

THE MEDIATING EFFECT OF EMPOWERMENT ON THE RELATIONSHIP
BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND ORGANIZATIONAL
CHANGE RECIPIENTS' BELIEFS: EVIDENCE FROM HEALTH CARE
SECTOR



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March, 2021

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PLAGIARISM

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

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ÖZET

Şirketler; teknolojik gelişmeler, gelişen iletişim olanakları, dijitalleşme ve küresel rekabetle baş edebilmek için uzun süredir değişim baskısı altındadır. Sürekli ve zorlayıcı hale gelen değişim taleplerine zamanında uyum sağlamak için şirketler, işgücünü bu şartlara uygun şekilde konumlandırmak durumundadır. Ancak bu sayede rekabet avantajı kazanmak ve şirketlerin sürekliliğini sağlamak mümkün olabilmektedir. Çalışanların örgütsel dönüşümdeki rolleri önemli ölçüde kabul görse de bu dönüşümde çalışanların dikkate alınmaması hala tartışılan bir konu olmaya devam etmektedir. Bu tez, değişime karşı çalışanların inançlarını (şirketçe değişime ihtiyaç olduğu, değişim için uygulanan yöntemlerin uygun olduğu, çalışan ve örgütsel yeterliliğin bu değişimi gerçekleştirmek için uygun olduğu, değişimden fayda sağlanacağı ve değişimin yönetim ve çalışanlar tarafından temel olarak desteklendiğine dair inançlar) ve bu inançların örgüt kültürü ve psikolojik güçlendirmeden nasıl etkilediğini ölçerek örgütsel değişim çabalarının insani boyutuna odaklanmayı amaçlamaktadır. Bu kavramların; hazırlık, uygulama ve içselleştirmeyi içeren örgütsel değişimin tüm aşamalarında çalışanlara destek sağlamakta önemli bir rol oynadığı varsayılmaktadır. Çalışmada ilk olarak örgüt kültürü ile çalışanların değişim inançları arasındaki ilişki incelenmiştir. İkinci olarak, psikolojik güçlendirmenin (yapılan işin çalışan için anlamlı olduğu, bu işi yapmak için gerekli yetkinliğe sahip olunduğu ve bu işi yaparken kendisini özgür hissettiği) örgütsel kültür (temel örgüt kültürü ve alt örgüt kültür boyutları katılım, tutarlılık, uyum ve misyon) ile çalışanların inançları arasındaki kısmi aracılık etkisi araştırılmıştır. Olguyu araştırmak için veriler, özel sağlık hizmetleri sektöründen çevrimiçi anket yöntemiyle toplanmış ve 646 cevap tezin veri tabanını oluşturmuştur. Sonuçlar, güvenilirlik ve faktör analizi, geçerlilik testleri, regresyon analizi ve yapısal eşitlik modellemesi gibi çeşitli istatistiksel yöntemler ile analiz edilmiştir. Bulgulara göre örgüt kültürü ile değişime yönetim ve çalışma arkadaşları tarafından verilen destek inançları arasında doğrudan bir ilişki olduğu gözlemlenmiştir. Değişim ihtiyacı, değişim yöntemi, çalışan ve örgütsel değişim yetkinliği ve değişimden sağlanacak faydaya dair inançlar ile örgüt kültürü arasındaki ilişkinin ise psikolojik güçlendirmenin kısmi aracılık etkisiyle yordandığı gözlemlenmiştir. Bu aracılık etkisinde psikolojik güçlendirmenin çalışanların kendilerine yönelik yetkinlik duyguları ve işten devşirilen anlam alt boyutlarının bütün kültür tiplerinde temel aracılık rolünü oynadığı; çalışanların hissettiği özerkliğin ise örgüt kültürü ve yönetimin değişime verdiği desteğe dair inançları kısmi olarak yordadığı sonucuna ulaşılmıştır.

Yapısal eşitlik modellemesi sonuçlarında ise örgüt kültürünün katılım ve misyon alt boyutları ile çalışanların değişim inançları arasındaki ilişkide psikolojik güçlendirmenin kısmi aracılık etkisi tespit edilmiştir. Tutarlı liderlik davranışları, çalışanlara sağlanan kendi işlerini organize etme özgürlüğü ve çalışanların sürece aktif olarak dahil edilmesi örgütsel değişim çabalarını destekleyecektir. Örgütsel değişim süreçlerinde bu hususların yönetim tarafından dikkate alınması faydalı olacaktır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Örgüt kültürü, psikolojik güçlendirme, değişim inançları, değişime hazırlıklı olmak, özerklik, yeterlilik, örgütsel değişim



ABSTRACT

Organizations are under pressures to change to cope with technological developments, advanced communication systems, digitalization and global competition for a long time. They should maintain their workforce in an appropriate structure to changing environment on timely manner responses to ever-lasting changes. Thus, employees or human asset became more importantly the source of competitive advantage for organizations and survival. Although the importance of employees' roles are highly accepted, underestimation of employee side on organizational transformation still continues to become a debated issue. This dissertation aimed to concentrate on human side of the change efforts through measuring change recipients' beliefs namely discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, valence and principal support management and principal support colleagues and how these beliefs are affected by organizational culture, psychological empowerment and their sub-dimensions. These concepts are assumed to play role in getting employees support for a successful organizational change for all periods; readiness, implementation and institutionalization. The first objective of the study was to study the relationship between organizational culture and employees' change beliefs and secondly to research the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational culture and employees' change beliefs. For searching the phenomenon, the data was collected from private health care sector through an online survey. 646 responses included in the analyses. The results were analyzed implying statistical methods such as reliability and factor analysis, validity tests, regression analysis and structural equation modeling. The findings indicate that employees' change beliefs; principal support management and colleagues are directly affected by organizational culture whatever the sub-culture type is. Appropriateness, discrepancy, efficacy and valence beliefs are partially mediated by psychological empowerment. Free from being dominant on any organizational culture dimension, psychological empowerment of employees, namely their feelings of competence on themselves and the meaning of change efforts help them regulate their beliefs of organizational change positively. Consistent leadership attitudes toward desired behavior change help decrease questions in change recipients' minds. Management support towards providing employees with autonomy to arrange their work also observed important as much as principal support for organizational change.

Key words: Organizational culture, change readiness, psychological empowerment, change beliefs, self-determination, competence, organizational change

DEDICATION

I dedicate this study to my dear mother, Sevinç Özavnik who is a constant source of wisdom, encouragement, never-ending support and love for me. I am deeply indebted for her being my mother.

...also to my father Zeki Özavnik, and my father-in-law Hayrettin Sipahi

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LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

ADP	Adaptability Culture
AGR	Agreement
APP	Appropriateness
CAD	Capability Development
CF	Customer Focus
CI	Coordination and Integration
COM	Competence
CON	Consistency Culture
CRC	Creativity and Change
CVL	Core Values
DIS	Discrepancy
EMP	Empowerment
EV	Efficacy and Valence
GO	Goals and Objectives
INV	Involvement Culture
IRFC	Internal Readiness for Change
MEA	Meaning
MIS	Mission Culture
OC	Organizational Culture
OCB	Organizational Citizenship Behavior
OCRBs	Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs
OL	Organizational Learning
PE	Psychological Empowerment
PSc	Principal Support Colleagues
PSm	Principal Support Management
SDI	Strategic Direction and Intent
SEM	Structural Equation Modeling
SLDT	Self Determination
TOR	Team Orientation
VIS	Vision

1. Introduction

Nobody is immune to change and change is an inevitable reality for all organizations and human beings; change need for organizations is more evident than ever before (Wanberg and Banas, 2000) because of rapidly developing technologies, global and local competition and developments in communication, e-commerce. Digital transformation lately put extra burdens on organizations for change.

The successful change efforts necessitate concentrating on the soft side of the organizations, values and behaviors to create value to the customers under radically changing business conditions (Denison and Neale, 1996). Organizational change was defined simply as a movement away from a present state toward a future state (George and Jones, 1996) or as Gilgeous (1997) defined it as a counter response to some significant threat or opportunity stemming from the external organization. Therefore, organizational change as a response to environmental events requires managerial perception, choice and action (Pettigrew, 1985). Organizational change as a challenge for many organizations shows a unique context in each situation in terms of work culture and values, nature of the business, leadership, management style, behavior and attitudes of the employees. Organizational change efforts are closely related with its culture and as an influential factor on change efforts; culture plays a crucial role in the destiny of change efforts and lasts a long period for many companies. In addition, factors like ambiguity, complexity and power of existing culture contribute to lengthen the transition period. Early researchers on organizational culture Ouchi and Wilkins (1985) and Smircich (1983) stated organizational culture to be distinctive, manipulatable and controllable in nature. However, Alvesson (1990) pointed out that cultural change has unpredictable components by nature and it could not be changed easily due to prevailing cultural tenets, resistance to change and so on (Wilkins and Dyer, 1988)

Organizational culture represents unwritten and unseen feeling part of the organization through symbols, myths, rituals, norms underlying beliefs, values and it is assumed to be intangible and lasting. Although there has been many definitions, organizational culture can

be defined broadly as a system of shared values and beliefs retained by employees helping distinguish the organization from other ones. One of the highly referred definition of organizational culture can be deemed into the combination of artifacts, values, beliefs and underlying assumptions shared by organizational members leading to appropriate form of behavior (Schein, 2010). Consensus about the definition of organizational culture refers to its holistic, socially assembled and historically set up configuration. It involves beliefs and behavior in different parts of the organization and manifesting itself in organizational life. Moreover, shared values, beliefs and assumptions form members' attitudes and behavior in the organizational life (Hofstede, Neuijen, Ohayv, Sanders, 1990., Davis, 1984; Denison, 1990; Kotter and Heskett, 1992; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1996). Organizational culture is a complex body occurred by many variables consisting of many HR policies and related practices. It consists of implicit rules and expectations so that employees derive what is expected from them and what behavior is acceptable or not. Thus, understanding the prevailing culture is vital for all managers and leader of the organization because it determines how the organization react to internal and external environmental demands. The former successes and way of handling problems are instilled on organizational understanding where needed these practices are believed to help them survive. However, transforming environmental demands into practices mostly offset the old way of doing things, thus changing mindsets, behaviors and even values. Therefore, organizational culture can be an unforeseen barrier to change.

Employees' beliefs play a crucial role in influencing their behaviors toward their organizational life (Piderit, 2000). Organizational forces flourish situations that employees use in shaping their behaviors out of beliefs generated from specific situations. Organizational change efforts contain strategies and tactics in the implementation of change process through which managers could adopt to change and affect their employees' beliefs for all levels of change: readiness, adoption and institutionalization (Armenakis, Bernerth, Pitts and Walker, 2007). However, Kotter (1995) stated the difficulty of altering employees' behaviors toward desired change and took this point at the top importance for change success among strategy, structures organizational culture or systems.

Leaders or change agents who have to lead the change have to manage five employee beliefs for their readiness and to successfully manage organizational change: discrepancy,

appropriateness, efficacy, valence and principal support (Armenakis et al, 2007). Most change efforts missed to get this support neglecting human side of the organization.

This dissertation hypothesizes that organizational culture traits help shape employees' change beliefs by manipulating sub-dimensions of cultural traits which reflects the underlying assumptions and values. Moreover, it sees the role of empowerment as an effective approach for getting support from employees. Psychological empowerment refers to employees' beliefs about their roles in their organizations (Spreitzer, 2008). These beliefs are manifested as meaning, competence, self-determination and competence. The major claim of the dissertation is about the role of psychological empowerment that is assumed to have a partial mediation role between organizational culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs.

1.1. Background of the problem

Successful change initiatives should be coupled with well-designed process steps that energize power and motivation of employees to overcome all kinds of organizational constraints to change and resistance and must be managed by committed leadership or change agents.

However, even though high costs, low product and service quality, low customer and employee satisfactions and shifting customers' demands indicate clearly an urgent need for change, internally integrated rigid organizational cultures, uncommitted leadership behaviors, low level of trust among employees, insufficient teamwork, under communication or even more importantly fear of unknown and uncertainty could impede the change initiatives and getting employees' support to these change endeavors. Organizational change calls for sacrifice, commitment and creativity, by natural connotation, any of them usually could not be flourished with coercion. Employee empowerment theoretically is assumed and reported to be the way to job satisfaction and organizational commitment. Naturally, it is expectable that such connection should be also an inclination for getting support of employees as it also serves to employees' organizational commitment. Despite the call for further evidence and support needed to develop psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008), there are very few

studies searching for connection of psychological empowerment with other concepts. Even Spreitzer (2008) mentioned that culture could affect employee effectiveness, there lacks studies to understand these relations. Similarly, as antecedent of psychological empowerment structural empowerment, high performance managerial practices, socio-political support, leadership and work design characteristics have been considered and positively reported (Siebert et. al, 2011; Spreitzer, 2008). Although these traits are closely related with organizational culture, organizational culture and empowerment and organizational culture and change beliefs or employees' change readiness were not studied or there is very limited studies. As these constructs have been assumed to be effective on employee' organizational change beliefs, this study tried to answer these questions from private health sector perspective.

1.2. Statement of the problem

Many change endeavors had been claimed to be futile because of neglecting employees' input into organizational change efforts. Although this contention had been widely shared among academicians and practitioners, many studies did not tell how to energize these employee contributions and include them into organizational change efforts. Most measures are employee involvement techniques, but this does not tell if these organizational practices could be taken as intended by the management or the change agents. Many organizational practices help unconsciously shape employees' beliefs and management could not be aware of it or even it could be one part of it. Both organizational factors such as content of the change, context and change processes and individual employee attributes even free from organizational effect form employees' leading to supportive or unsupportive behaviors.

This study concentrates on two parts of this phenomenon studying through organizational culture and psychological empowerment. Since there has been very limited studies, this dissertation tried to understand the phenomenon from this perspective searching for;

To what extent organizational culture construct affects psychological empowerment and organizational change recipients' beliefs?

If such an association exists, to what extent psychological empowerment mediates the organizational culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs and if organizational culture could be one of the antecedent factor to affect psychological empowerment.

While answering these questions, role of cultural traits which represent different organizational culture characteristics were considered for a holistic understanding of organizational culture construct toward organizational change recipients' beliefs.

1.3. Purpose of the Study

Although the importance of employees' roles are highly accepted, underestimation of employee side on organizational changes or transformation still tends to exist. This could be related to complexity of human beings. Employees could not be easily manipulated like machines. They brought many underlying beliefs with them to their jobs. Employees' values from family and national culture could play some roles for their assessment of organizational events. Even organizations highly backing employee participation could not meet expectation of converting this consideration into organizational effectiveness and success. Parallel to this difficulty, measurement of employees' attitudes and their behavioral norms probably would be a managerial difficulty to integrate into organizational decisions and execution. Similarly organizations also have some unique characteristics named under organizational culture.

The aim of this research is to relate the organization culture to employees' beliefs on organizational change. The study is based on the concepts of organization culture and psychological empowerment, which are assumed to play important role in getting employees support for a successful organizational change. The first objective is to study the relationship between organizational culture and employees' change beliefs and secondly to research the mediating effect of psychological empowerment on the relationship between organizational culture and employees' change beliefs. Empowerment will be analyzed only by psychological

empowerment. For searching the hypotheses, data was collected from private hospital groups that stated to be increased by number and service offered to patients and support by government.

1.4. Significance of the Study

Organizational culture and psychological empowerment concepts are quite important in organizational literature. However, they are not jointly studied in organizational change literature as expected. Embedding organizational change recipients' beliefs or employees' internal change readiness into the picture we even see very scant studies. Most of the studies searched the relationship superficially, meaning that sub-dimensions were not considered or instruments without sub-dimensions were preferred. This study tends to provide closer attention to the researched concepts and operationalize survey instruments with sub-dimensions. Thus, it aims to provide a holistic report from top layer to the deepest layers.

Psychological empowerment itself was not deeply studied in the management literature. Speitzer (2008) called for more research for further elaborating the concept. Especially, the studies from different national cultures were highly asked. There has been very limited studies in Turkey operationalizing psychological empowerment with other concepts. Since it is related with inner state of employees, the antecedents of psychological empowerment seems to be open for new input except the known ones: organizational empowerment practices, the role of leadership and job characteristics. The sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence, self-determination and impact) had been reported to construct psychological empowerment, but the ratios among themselves and even the importance one dimension to others were discussed and asked for further verification. Moreover, it is questionable if empowerment is appropriate for all employees in an organization or it is applicable for competent employees. Since inner-state of people could not be observed easily because of its relations like locus of control, self-esteem, introvert-extrovert traits, any supporting support could be a modest contribution to literature. Observation of psychological empowerment in the data set and connecting it with scanty researched constructs could

highlight a small part of human reactions to organizational change from a different national culture perspective.

Similarly, organizational change recipients' beliefs (OCRBs) or simply change readiness of employees has not been widely searched in Turkey. OCRBs scale has been introduced into Turkish with this study for the first time as far as observed. Organizational culture has been stated to be closely related with leadership, thus principal support from management is highly expected to be observed in the data, but discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence would be acting differently shaping employees' beliefs with the involvement of organizational culture and psychological empowerment.

1.5. Scope of the Research

This dissertation aimed to concentrate on human side of the change efforts through measuring change recipients' beliefs and how these beliefs are affected by organizational culture and psychological empowerment. Employees' reactions to change was the major focus. Such studies are quite rare in the literature. It is preferred to study in private health sector in Turkey since it is rapidly growing and changing in terms of technology, structure, management and culture. The sector reached 37% market share with regard to number of total hospitals in Turkey (Yıldırım and Konca, 2018, p.22).

Health tourism is also rapidly growing in Turkey. Since the study focused to understand general tendency in attitude manner instead of one organization, a group of hospitals were chosen as operationalization of survey instruments.

Participants in this study are employed in various private sector hospital groups in Turkey operating under growth strategies and one group was being reengineered due to foreign capital investment including top management change. Sector employees without any limitation could join the study from low levels to top levels for reflecting general employee and management reflections from the sector. Since organizational culture sub-dimensions

represent the different organizational culture characteristics, the study focused to understand problem from different angles of organizational culture construct. Employees working in all departments were invited to participate the study for generating a global picture for private health care services.

1.6. Organization of the Study

The introduction section briefly explains the dissertation purpose, scope and background information. The variables operationalized in the study were introduced and briefly defined.

The second section explained survey variables with their historical development and their presence in the literature. The interconnections among the variables were discussed in the section.

The third section provided information for research design and methodology. The evaluation of the research finding through statistical analysis, reliability and validity of research instruments, demographic analyses of survey scales, correlational and regression analyses were represented in this section.

The fourth section represents research findings and contains detailed result analyses, discussions, limitations, managerial implications and conclusion.

2. Literature Review

2.1. Organizational Culture Definition and Scope

Culture, used in the organizational studies as a term borrowed from anthropology, had been defined by Tylor (1871:1925) as a complex whole which includes knowledge, beliefs, art, morals, law and any other capabilities and habits acquired by man as a member of society (Güvenç, 2018, p.129). This early definition represents the main foundation of culture concept. What distinguishes humankind from other animals, it is its adaptive mechanism through learning which leads to appropriate changes in adaptive parts of the society or social groups. Thus, from the anthropological point of view, culture was referred to be neither genetic nor biological but it was a mechanism of customary beliefs and behaviors learned and shared as rules through enculturation and internalization by social groups. As a consequence of these rules, human beings could think and behave in custom ways (habits and traditions). Thus, culture has transgenerational and cumulative role passed and improved from one generation to following one through cultural learning. Only human capacity could form it into key symbols and core values, thus it becomes patterned and integrated by economic and social forces. Symbols have meaning for people in the form of shared memories, common beliefs and values from conscious or unconscious enculturation. (Morey and Luthans, 1985; Kottak, 2007; Güvenç, 2018).

Hofstede (1991, 2010) referring to the analogy of computer programming, defined culture as patterns of thinking, feeling and acting or *“collective programming of the mind”* that distinguishes the members of one group from others (2010, p.6). This mental programming has its levels in generating culture; human nature, culture and personality. Culture is not innate but learnt by nature and differs one social environment to others. Culture is affected by human nature and a person’s personality in varying degrees. Human nature represents the inherited genes and universal level human ability. All human beings have feelings like fears,

shame, joy, need to communicate with others and capability to observe and comment their environment. Although all are in common, people think, feel and act differently in expressing these feelings. Culture in this sense acts as an intermediary or “*operating system*” as Hofstede labeled. Culture modifies what people do with this human ability. Personality represents a person specific personal trait partly inherited and partly learned. Culture plays major role in partly learning in personality mental programming. Figure 1 depicts three levels in Hofstede’s Mental Programming.



Figure 1 Three Levels of Uniqueness in Mental Programming

Source: Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, (2010), **Cultures and Organizations**, p.6

Culture concept became an important organizational study topic such as organizational structure, strategy and control in 1980s (Hofstede et al., 1990; 2010). Culture and its impact on social organizations had been subject to anthropology, sociology, social psychology with regard to its functioning role of a society. Especially, its adaptation role has been studied to understand how human groups could adopt themselves to their environment through behavioral patterns that were socially generated and transferred (Denison and Mishra, 1995)

Inclusion of culture into organizational studies portrayed some difficulties and dilemmas because of the meaning of the concept, its observation and measurement and how to connect it organizational theory to help organizations benefit out of it (Schein, 2010; Denison and Mishra, 1995). The difficulty mostly comes from the intersection of culture concept with social

sciences; anthropology, sociology, social psychology and organizational behavior. Each discipline had its own biases and various approaches to the phenomenon. Phenomenological approach (Sachmann, 1991; Siehl and Martin, 1990) treated culture as a qualitative attribute where it claimed to be worked out by dimensions, its causes and effects but not as instant concerns such as predictable effects of social organizations on organizational outcomes (Denison and Mishra, 1990, p.205). On the other hand, organizational culture literature after 1980s, mostly concentrated on it from the practical terms such as behavioral side of successful organizations and functional connections between organizational culture and competition, effectiveness through culture-based coordinated organizational activity (Deal and Kennedy, 1982; Ouchi, 1981; Kanter, 1983; Wilkins and Ouchi, 1983).

The efforts of integration of approaches (Denison, 1990; Hofstede et al.; 1990) concentrated on incorporating quantitative and qualitative data to reflect functionalist perspective and phenomenological perspective (Denison and Mishra, 1995).

Historically, although there was no reference to organizational culture, organizational culture studies could be dated back to the early 1930s to Hawthorne studies where Western Electric Company's employees had been observed for their workgroup behaviors, shared attitudes and perception, organizational learning and group norms (Trice and Beyer, 1993). The results of this study generated an interest on human behaviors in organizational studies. However, social psychologist Lewin's social climates and qualitative observation of physical organizational settings studies established the roads to organizational culture through organizational climate's early definition (Yahyagil, 2004; Denison, 1996). Climate was a remarkable cultural fact that was easily observable tangible features of an organization. Yet, it could function only as a surface manifestation of organizational culture, since it could not explain causal issues in deeper organizational functioning. Climate could be seen an individualistic property consisting of temporary individualistic perceptions or attitudes which could be changed more easily than culture when situations and new information change employee perceptions. On the other hand, culture was considered as an enduring organizational property or core skeleton of organizations. (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Glisson and James, 2002; Schein, 1990; Noordin, Omar, Sehan and Idrus, 2010). Development of socio-cultural systems by Tavistock Institute helped understand connected bundle of organizational

norms and employee attitudes. Katz and Kahn's (1978) system theory and system dynamics approach paved the roads to organizational culture through their complete organizational analysis with no mention of organizational culture (Schein, 1990, p.110).

Pettigrew (1979) published the first article in organizational culture literature determining how organizational culture emerged. The author articulated the role of symbolism, language, beliefs, myths and rituals in forming, directing and functioning of organizational issues such as commitment, control and integration. The article provided first comprehensive explanation how, through these concepts and processes, purpose, normative patterns, meaning and leadership strategies were converged to evolve organizational cultures.

1980s helped development of organizational culture from organizational behavioral side. The studies took into account the soft side of organizations that was assumed to lead them to be successful or effective through underlying beliefs, values and assumptions prevailing in internal organizations. These studies were mostly done with a mix of academicians and collaborated consultants and organizational managers (Alvesson and Sveningsson, 2016). The studies such as Deal and Kennedy's "Corporate Cultures" (1982), Ouchi's "Theory Z"; Kanter's "Change Masters" (1983), Peters and Waterman's "In Search of Excellence" (1982) were considered culture derived from values and beliefs which helped foundation of management systems, organizational practices and behaviors reinforcing organizational principles. The practical outcome of such studies presumed that social systems were generated from organizational values, beliefs and assumptions and such systems are effective on organizational coordinated activities as well as motivation. Similarly, managing culture change for organizational success related with removing organizational inertia from the very same set of beliefs and assumptions to implement new desired ones with new strategies through planned changes. However, these studies were criticized in terms of research design, observation, instruments and procedures used and theory building (Denison and Mishra, 1995; Carroll, 1983; Hofstede et al., 2010; Alvesson, 2002).

The definition of culture mostly referred to its role on distinguishing how people think, behave, interact and make contact with each others and was conceptualized organizational life as invisible determinant of it and labelled or explained such as "*the way we do things*

around here” by Deal and Kennedy (1982), *“the glue that holds organization together through shared patterns of meaning”* by Martin and Siehl (1983).

Schein approached the culture concept from the organizational behavior angle. The author richened and united the concept in terms of individuals’ role and environmental effect inclusion into the definition. Schein (1990) defined organizational culture:

“ (a) a pattern of basic assumptions, (b) invented, discovered or developed by a given group, (c) as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, (d) that has worked well enough to be considered valid and therefore (e) is to be taught to new members as (f) the correct way to perceive, think and feel in relation to these problems” (Schein, 1990, p.111).

This highly accepted definition implies culture as a system of learnt, accepted and commonly shared thinking and behavioral styles. Culture consists of varying degrees of interdependent components (Pettigrew, 1979) such as values, attitudes, behavioral norms, thoughts, etc. Borders of culture cannot be limited only with its learnt and shared character but with how its components’ meaning perceived by the recipients. Weick (in his book “Sense-making in Organizations”, 1995) explained how people constructed sense-making from interpretation of organizational events, symbols, languages etc. by filtering, framing, creating facticity and rendering subjective into something more tangible (p.13 -14).

Schein (2010) claimed that culture demonstrated itself at three basic levels: visible artifacts from all physical layout, espoused values and underlying assumptions and beliefs. Technology, products, newsletters, mission statements, language used in communication, dress codes, company records, annual reports are examples of artifacts, even the smell and emotional intensity of place (Schein, 1990). However, one cannot easily decipher these artefacts into meanings. Although easily observable, artefacts such as organizational symbols, myths and other artefacts alone do not say much about how employees connect them to underlying organizational assumptions and what meaning or lesson they should derive from stories told. Since artefacts are interpreted subjectively and do not explain how employees react, they

cannot solely explain the organizational culture (Pondy, Boland and Thomas, 1988; Trower, 2012).

Values in general refer to a person's worldview and the tendency to prefer among various states of affairs such as right and wrong (Macy, 2006; Hofstede et al., 2010). Espoused beliefs and values represent workplace goals, standards, ideals, moral principles, norms and so on. It is abstract by nature and difficult to observe. Organization's mission statement or philosophy, strategies, goals and implicit forms from informal practices, rationalizations could articulate the hints of it. They guide and could influence artifacts or could be congruent with behavior or not. Espoused beliefs and values do not entirely explain behaviors and they need to be linked to underlying assumptions for a deeper cultural understanding (Schein, 2010). Below, Figure 2 can be used to determine espoused values of an organization for external adaptation and internal integration for solving the problem. Schein (1990) proposed to use this table for a deep observation of espoused values' inconsistencies about what was claimed and what was observed. Inconsistencies necessitated the third level analysis of organizational culture.

The External and Internal Tasks Facing All Groups	
External Adaptation Tasks	Internal Integration Tasks
Developing consensus on: 1. The core mission, functions and primary tasks of the organization vis-a-vis its environment 2. The specific goals to be pursued by the organization 3. The basic means to be used in accomplishing the goals 4. The criteria to be used for measuring results 5. The remedial of repair strategies if goals are not achieved	Developing consensus on: 1. The common language and conceptual system to be used including basic concepts of time and space 2. The group boundaries and criteria for inclusion 3. The criteria for the allocation of status, power and authority 4. The criteria for intimacy, friendship and love in different work and family settings 5. The criteria for the allocation of rewards and punishments 6. Concepts for managing the unmanageable - ideology and religion

Figure 2: The External and Internal Tasks Facing All Groups
Source: Schein, E. (1990), Organizational Culture, **American Psychologist**, p.113

The third level represents inexplicable basic underlying assumptions consisting of taken-for-granted and unconscious beliefs and values. They could be understood only through behavioral observation from many sources for determining how an organization functions, determining behavior, feelings and perceptions. The shared assumptions become entrenched into the culture and code the behavioral norms (Maierhofer, Rafferty and Kabanoff, 2003). Since they heavily shape how employees think and act, they provide the behavioral uniformity

(Weiner, 1988) for employees. In addition, as they guide employees to deal with uncertainty and change, depending on the negative or positive outcomes, the deeply ingrained beliefs and values could become a strong resistant behavior to change. Assumptions help regulate the system of meaning making of employees (Schein, 2010; Lundberg, 1985; Denison, 1984, Armenakis, Brown and Mehta, 2011). Schein (2010) sees the underlying assumptions as the essence of organizational culture and states that without decipher of operating pattern of core assumptions, leaders could not interpret artifacts and cannot assess espoused beliefs and values correctly.

Another similar approach to levels of culture documented by Hofstede (Hofstede et al, 2010). His studies helped the understanding of national culture role in organizational culture though employees' values system affected from it, but organizational practices had the major source of organizational culture. The author pictured manifestations of culture; symbols, heroes, rituals and values as an onion from superficial to the deepest manifestations. The figure 4 depicts this different levels of depth. The most superficial layer of the onion represents the visible symbols such as words, jargons, objects, gestures which are given particular meaning by the employees (or stakeholders in general). Heroes representing the most valued characteristics of the culture act as role model for encouraged behaviors. Rituals such as greetings, meetings, discourse are used as reinforcers for group cohesion in communicating beliefs in daily organizational life. Employees could observe symbols, heroes and ritual from the outside as "organizational practices" but cultural meaning of these practices serve to the establishment of organizational culture through their interpretation. The core of the onion is the values, which represent the tendencies of the organization among dilemmas such as acceptable or unacceptable, rational or irrational, moral or immoral and so on (Hofstede et al, 2010). Figure 3 depicts the levels of cultural levels.

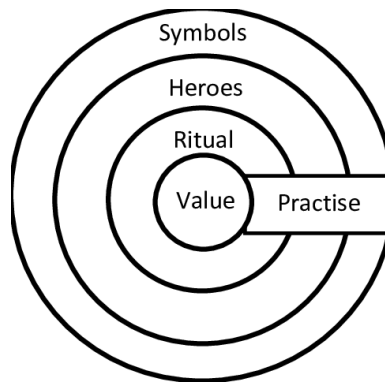


Figure 3 The onion manifestation of Culture at different levels of depth

Source: Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, (2010), **Cultures and Organizations**, p.8

Values do not reign only on organizational level. Rather, most of the values are affected by the national culture and acquired during early years of a child until first ten years from family, education and social environment. A person's fundamental values thus come from the national culture. However, organizational culture values generate and accumulate superficially with organizational practices on deeply taking place values (Hofstede et al., 2010). Thus, it is important to indicate that despite Peters and Waterman (1982) claim of shared values to be the core of organizational culture, Hofstede pointed out the importance of "*shared perceptions*" of organizational practices as the core of organizational culture. Hofstede (1990) claimed that employee value system varied more depending on their nationality, education and age than their organizational membership. The balance of values and practices was depicted by Hofstede's studies adding gender, social class, occupational and industry leveling with family, school and work layers. (Figure 4). Societal cultures are settled in one's unconscious values manifesting tradeoff among preferences. However, organizational culture on the other hand stay in observable and conscious practices where employees derive their perceptions on organizational environment and its functioning (Hofstede, 2001).

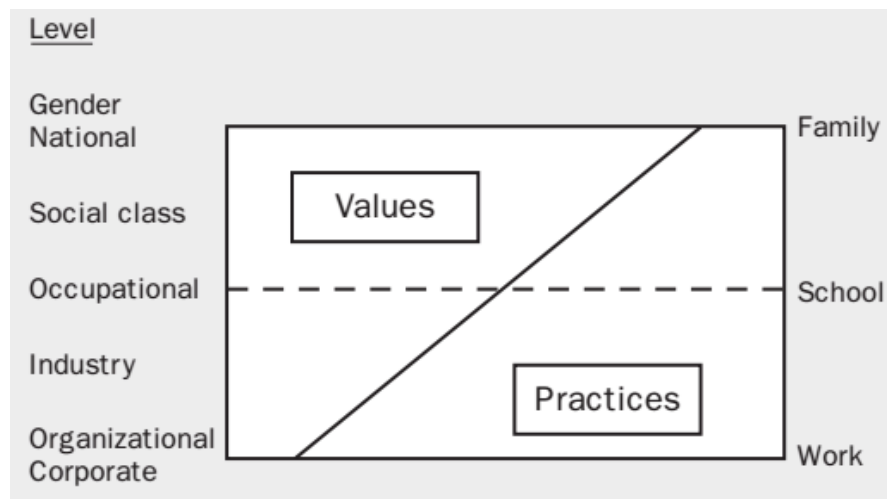


Figure 4 The Balance of Values and Practices for Various Levels of Culture

Source: Hofstede, Hofstede and Minkov, (2010), **Cultures and Organizations**, p.347.

Consequently, it can be concluded that organizational cultures are produced mainly from organizational practices, though values component has a modest role in shaping it. Hofstede named the value component under socio-cultural dimensions of national cultures. This component had nothing employees did in their jobs but what their value judgements are from their national culture (Yahyagil, 2004). Hofstede (1990; 2001; 2010) firstly measured four dimensions in explaining value systems of nations; power distance, uncertainty avoidance, masculinity versus femininity and individualism versus collectivism. In his later studies, the author connected these dimensions with organizational culture dynamics from practices. Briefly, power distance is related with the inequality in the society and basic solutions of people with it. Uncertainty avoidance measures how people dealt with stress in terms of unknown future. Individualism versus collectivism defines if individuals in a county prefer to behave for their individual interest to collective interests of groups. Masculinity versus femininity is related with emotional role division of men and women in a society. Fifth dimension was added into the study upon the research of Hofstede and Bond (1988) and labeled as long term versus long-term orientation. It measures how people focus their efforts in time horizon; past, present or future. The last dimension came from Minkov (2007) and labeled as indulgence versus restraint. It measures how people manage basic human desires for enjoying life by gratification or control.

It is important to note that socio-cultural dimensions observed in an organization give insightful hints to understand that organization, but it does not exhibit dominant organizational culture. Schwartz (1994) and Hofstede (2010) stated the importance of culture on behaviors through observation of the values at individual and group level. Besides Hofstede's socio-cultural dimensions mentioned above, it would be beneficial to mention about other cultural dimensional frameworks to analyze organizational employees' value system. Quite similar to Hofstede's socio-cultural dimension, Hampden-Turner and Trompenaars (2000) focused on understanding basic differences among societies and national cultures. The underlying logic behind the dimensions is based on explaining basic relational differences of people with each other, their time perceptions and their relationships with nature. Their seven bipolar cultural dimensions:

1. universalism versus particularism,
2. individualism versus communitarianism,
3. specific versus diffuse
4. achievement versus ascription
5. sequential time versus synchronous time
6. inner versus outer direction
7. Neutral versus affective (emotional)

Schwartz (1994) cultural values framework represented a detail structure. His comprehensive framework consists of three bipolar culture dimensions and two higher order value types, level of cultural values and individual values in essence to answer satisfying three fundamental human needs: individual biological needs, being a group member, communication need for social interaction. Three cultural bipolar dimensions consist of

1. embeddedness versus autonomy,
2. hierarchy versus egalitarianism,
3. Mastery versus harmony.

The author identified seven cultural level values in explaining the differences among societies: conservatism and embeddedness, hierarchy, mastery, affective autonomy, intellectual autonomy, egalitarianism and harmony. In addition, ten individual level values were found effective in explaining differences: power, achievement, hedonism, stimulating, tradition, self-

direction, benevolence, universalism, security and conformity. The author also defined two bipolar dimensions in explaining higher order value types: conservation versus openness to change and self-transcendence versus self-enhancement.

Lastly, GLOBE project extended on Hofstede's socio-cultural dimensions identified nine cultural dimensions in their Global Leadership and organizational behavior effectiveness research program: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, collectivism I (institutional) – II (in-group), gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, future orientation, humane orientation and performance orientation. They were found to be effective on societal level and organizational level (Hanges and Dickson, 2004)

As stated, despite the limited role of values on organizational culture, organizational practices (Hofstede, 1990) and/or interplay of artifacts, underlying assumptions and values (Schein, 2010) have more dominant role on generalization of organizational culture. Hofstede (1990:2010) clearly identified six factors exhibiting mutually independent dimensions of perceived organizational practices that distinguish one organization from others or one unit from the others. The six dimensions (Hofstede et al., 1990:2010, p.354) are as follow and they constitute a model for six-dimensional organizational cultures defined themselves as employees' perceived organizational practices manifested in symbols, ritual and heroes:

1. *Process oriented versus result oriented* (concern with means or concern with goals)
2. *Employee oriented versus job oriented* (concern for people of completing the task)
3. *Parochial versus professional* (employee identification from the organization or type of the job)
4. *Open system versus closed system* (if organization open to the newcomers or closed-secretive)
5. *Loose versus tight control* (existence of clear rules, procedures, timely routine or not)
6. *Normative versus pragmatic* (customer orientation inviolable rules or market driven)

2.1.2. The importance of Organizational Culture

The increase of emphasis on organizational culture coincided with the increase of competition and pressures for change to meet the shifting demands and effectiveness needs of organizations in 1980s. Organizational culture has been seen as a source of stability and a way to adaptation to deal with environmental changes. Organizational culture contributes to strengthen organizational stability through agreed upon values while it serves a glue mechanism to keep employees together. Meanwhile, it provides a set of principles, values and norms to strengthen adaptation when new strategies are settled to overcome organizational threats. Organizational culture becomes increasingly important due to the need to both ensure change and maintain stability under severe market condition and uncertainty. (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Schein, 2010).

Adaptation of organizational culture with the external environment, the institution's purpose and strategies are related with how opportunities and threats are perceived and are responded within the external environment and internal integration. It refers to how an organization developed relations with its employees to prosper in dealing with the external environment (Barkema and Vermeulen, 1997). In this sense, O'Reilly (1989) stated that there were two important reasons that make organizational culture valuable; the mutual harmony of culture and strategy and ensuring if culture serves to increase the loyalty of employees to their institutions. Both factors create a strong culture and help organizations competing with its rivals.

In terms of strategy setting, Allaire and Firsirotu (1984) claimed that organizational culture is a strong tool in understanding the life and behavior of organization in case of collapse, adaptation and even its processes such as radical change. Organizational culture plays a central role in setting the corporate strategy (Sadri and Lees, 2001) and it forms the basis for the strategy and management of organizations (Kyriakopoulos et al., 2004; Eren, 2020). Organizations need appropriate culture for successfully implementing the strategies. When organizations change their strategies and structures they fail if they do not appropriately align their underlying beliefs and values to support the strategy and structure. Thus organizational change efforts should consider organizational culture importantly in order to be successful on

change initiatives (O'Reilly, 1989; Vural, 1998; Ülgen and Mirze, 2020; Eren, 2020). The organizational culture should be compatible with the perceived institutional structure by its employees, otherwise it is highly probable that employees would not accept cultural characteristics that contradict with their perception of organizational reality (Fine, 1984). Strategies that based on shared values around business environment have more chance to be successful depending on the validity and strength of these shared values. Since true change could start basically with change in beliefs and values, new strategies and activities could be implemented with the change in values (Eren, 2020). Thus, such organizations with the appropriate culture are both motivated with a clear purpose and energy and they gain competitive advantage against its rivals (Wilkins, 1983).

Since underlying beliefs and values are instilled in a considerable time period, it becomes difficult for competitors to copy it in their organizations (Marrewijk, 2004; Lee and Yu, 2004). Formerly when there were static environment such imitation could be more easy, but today's turbulent environment does not enable organizations to imitate easily their competitors (Chatman and Jehn, 1994). Thus valuable, rare and inimitable organizations could maintain more sustainable economic achievement. Another reason that makes organizational culture valuable is that communication of truly shared beliefs definitely ease high level cooperation and lead to organizational commitment (Sather, 1983). Moreover, organizational culture by helping provide employees with a sense of identity could lead to a larger amount of organizational commitment or it facilitates its creation (Robbins, 1989). Organizational commitment is the employee's psychological commitment to organization and it includes beliefs such as internalization of organizational values, integration with business and loyalty (O'Reilly, 1989; Vural, 1998). It is expectable that employees would prefer to work with organizations who share their values (O'Reilly et al., 1991). Organizational culture as a set of shared beliefs and values encourage employees to behave appropriately to these values (Gregory et al., 2009). If expectation of the organization and desire of employee show a compromise, this harmony is called "psychological contract". Psychological contract is individualistic and is based on the perceptions of the employee. Since the psychological contract must be realized within the organizational culture, organizational culture affects the implementation of the contract process. Lack of such a person - organization fit, where employee values and corporate values are contradicting, employees would not want to share

their opinions and refrain from taking action (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Thomas et al., 2003; Marrewijk, 2004).

There is usually less problems in activities such as coordination, control and participation in decisions at the organizations with high internal integration and resources are not wasted for such problems. If the internal integration level of the institution is high, the employees would know better how to use their power under different situations (Eren, 2003). This strong commitment is particularly beneficial for the success of the organization when knowledge and high motivation are needed (Vural, 2005; Eren, 2020). Employees with such sense of loyalty would try harder for the success and review alternatives against problems and have a positive impact on the organizational events (Sathe, 1983).

2.1.3. The Characteristics of Organizational Culture

Organizational culture have been heavily studied both in academic and practicing institutions. These studies reflected various faces of the concept. Following these studies, seven distinctive characteristics (Chatman and Jehn, 1991; O'Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991) have been observed in general to capture the core of organizational culture (Robbins and Judge, 2015).

Innovation and risk taking: Innovative organizational cultures are open to new ideas, flexible and adaptable. They show off for a flat hierarchy and employees are encouraged for risk taking.

Attention to details: Detail-oriented organizational cultures are characterized for their emphasis on precision, analysis and paying attention to organizational details.

Outcome orientation: These organizations give priority to achievement and results. Outcome-oriented organizational cultures hold employees responsible for the success and failure and arrange reward system accordingly to reward performance unlike seniority and loyalty. Performance-oriented organizational cultures are expected to outperform organizations without this characteristics (Nohria, Joyce, and Roberson, 2003).

People orientation: People-oriented organizational cultures give priorities to fairness and supportiveness. They behave employees respectfully to their employees and have fair management approach; a consideration of decisions on people (Erdogan, Liden and Kraimer, 2006).

Team orientation: Team-oriented organizational cultures prosper collaboration and emphasize heavily on cooperation in team work. In these organizations, employees have supportive relationships with their peers and subordinates (Erdogan, Liden and Kraimer, 2006).

Aggressiveness: Organizations with aggressive cultures give priority to competitiveness and they push heavily outperforming competitors.

Stability: Stable organizational cultures were defined as predictable and bureaucratic. They align employees to get high level of efficiency. When the external environment is stable for the organization culture could enable organization to provide certain output (Westrum, 2004). However, lack of timely action would prevent them to adopt to shifting and dynamic environment.

Each characteristics in varying degrees exists in every organization and organizational culture typologies developed by various academicians make connections to these characteristics in their studies (Robbin and Judge, 2015).

Organizational culture could be differentiated depending on their employees' consensus on organization's values and its mission. High consensus could indicate a strong culture in which employees highly accept and share cultural values and organizational culture has an effect on their behaviors, if not, it indicates weak culture (Sorensen, 2002; Wiener, 1988). Schulte et al. (2009) claimed highly shared organizational values among employees lessened the turnover and organizational culture help develop employees' organizational commitment, loyalty and build cohesiveness among employees due to agreement between employee and organization. High acceptance of organizational culture values could be a source of higher customer orientation and profitability (Grizzle et al.,2009).

It is also important to note that organizational culture could not be unique especially in large organizations in which diverse subcultures could be observed. Subcultures emerge because different departments or geographic locations practice specific problems originated from the requirement of that department and they pursue different goals and experiments and are evaluated under different criteria. Subcultures could emerge from the personal traits of employees besides the different work situations under which jobs are performed. (Daft et al, 2010; Morgan, 1998; Ülgen and Mirze, 2020). Different culture traits impose different expectations on employee behavior. However, dominant culture emphasizes the major values that most of the organization share and it is the unique personality of that organization (Hoffman and Jones, 2005). Denison and Mishra (1995) contended that the integration of subcultures existing in organizations establishes organizational culture. Thus, it is overall organizational shared meaning that is attributed to organizational culture that guides and forms employees' behaviors.

2.1.4. Organizational Culture Models

Yahyagil (2015) in his study of typology of culture classifies organizational culture models under two approaches. Descriptive and qualitative approach depicts and identifies organizations from the most distinctive cultural components. The second one is more cognitive sense and concentrates on collective values of organizations and more concerned for creating high-end abstractions for more individual cognition.

The six dimensions from Hofstede (1990) occurring in many combinations exhibit qualitative and descriptive cultural components of organizations. Similarly, Ouchi's (1981) Z-culture in which he narrated the success of Japanese management in 1980s with its principles and Trompenaars (1993) organizational culture model was qualitative and descriptive nature. Trompenaars portrayed his model in four cultural forms upon interaction of two dimensions equity versus hierarchy and person versus task. This interaction created family, Eiffel tower, incubator and guided missile cultural forms. Westrum (2004), on the other hand observing

the quality and style of information processes depicted three cultural forms namely pathological culture, bureaucratic culture and generative culture.

Organizational culture models from cognitive approach demonstrate evaluative and more complex structures focusing on intangible features of culture namely beliefs and values to derive an abstraction of behavior and effectiveness. Three of them were developed nearly the same period. Cooke and Lafferty (1989) developed the OCI (organizational culture inventory) measuring twelve behavioral styles observed from espoused assumptions and expectations to guide employees' interaction. They named three organizational culture. Constructive culture serving to meet employees' satisfaction needs measured affiliative, achievement, employee encouragement and self-actualization. The aggressive and defensive culture form measured oppositional behavior, power relations, normative behavior and competition and perfectionism in the organization for restraining threat to employees' and organizational security. And the passive and defensive culture searched for the forms such as approval, avoidance, dependence etc upon employees' expectations to protect the statu quo and security.

Both Competing Values Framework (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983; Cameron and Quinn, 2010) and Denison and Mishra's (1995) organizational culture models put beliefs and values at the heart of their models and share quite similar approach to the phenomenon. Both models are consistent with each others and they share the same association in linking the organizational culture to organizational effectiveness.

2.1.4.1. Quinn and Cameron Competing Values Framework

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1983) created Competing Value Framework working with experts, researchers and theorists. This comprehensive study helped the understanding of effectiveness criteria and it generated valuable insights about organizational culture, communication, leadership, human resources, quality, motivation, corporate strategy, employee selection and decision-making (Cameron and Quinn, 2011). The model defines four

culture models using three dimensions and for each culture a set of values. The first value dimension is related to organizational focus, from an internal micro emphasis on well-being and development of people in the organization to an external macro emphasis on the well-being and development of organization itself. The second value dimension is related to organizational structure from an emphasis on stability and control to an emphasis on flexibility. The third value dimension is related to organizational means and ends from an emphasis on important processes, for example planning and goal setting to an emphasis on outcomes for example productivity.

These dimensions create three competing values dilemmas in the organizational literature. Stability versus flexibility dilemma is the most debated issue in sociology, political science, in organizational life and psychology (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). While many social theorists had emphasized on authority, structure and coordination more, others had stressed diversity, individual initiative and organizational adaptability. Lawrence and Lorsch (1967) centered their landmark study on this dilemma and argued that integration and differentiation were the core issues in organizational design. They suggested that organizations best balancing integration and differentiation are also the most effective systems. Flexibility has been stated with emphasis organizational values on adaptability, diversity and individual initiatives, contrary stability / control emphasis on coordination, structure and authority (Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). Internal versus external, another long recognized dilemma in organizational behavior is external versus internal. According to external view, organizations are modeled tools with the basic goal of accomplishing organizational tasks and having resources. Here the emphasis is on overall competitiveness of organization in changing environments. From the internal view, the organizations are socio-technical systems with their participants who have likes, dislikes and requiring consideration. When the external value on overall organization is maximized, internal emphasis on the socio-technical equilibrium may be reduced. When the emphasis on harmony grows, it may tend to shift emphasis away from overall competitiveness (Cameron and Quinn, 2011; Quinn and Rohrbaugh, 1983). Internal focus helps development of organizational capabilities and integration while external focus helps benefit from external opportunities and help organization differentiate itself from competition (Cameron, DeGraff and Thakor, 2014). Means versus ends dilemma; organizational effectiveness takes into consideration two

aspects: the objectives of organizations and the means through which they sustain themselves. Means usually become functionally autonomous.

The result of multidimensional scaling with 17 effectiveness criteria in three-dimensional space defines four models (Figure 5). The human relations model (Clan Culture – collaborate), upper left section of the figure, places a great deal of emphasis on flexibility and internal focus. It stresses the criteria as cohesion and morale as means and human resource development as ends. The open system models (Adhocracy culture – create) places a great deal of emphasis on flexibility and external focus, on the upper right section. It stresses such criteria as flexibility and readiness as means and growth, resource acquisition and external support as ends. The open system dominant organizations emphasize on values increasing their ability to fit into external environmental requirements quickly (Howard, 1998). The rational goal model (Market culture – complete), places a great deal of emphasis on stability and control and external focus on the lower right section. It stresses effectiveness criteria as planning and goal setting as means, productivity, and efficiency as ends. The internal process model (hierarchy culture – control) is represented on lower left section. It places a great deal of emphasis on internal focus and stability and control and it stresses the role of information management and communication as means and stability and control as ends. The competing values framework has been labeled for organizational form from the popular organizational studies, but referring the form of value creation with dominant action words relating the culture form into orientation, four cultural forms are labeled as clan culture – collaborate, adhocracy – create, market culture – compete, hierarchy culture – control (Cameron, Quinn, Degraff, Thakor, 2014). The Figure 5 depicts the Competing Values Framework.

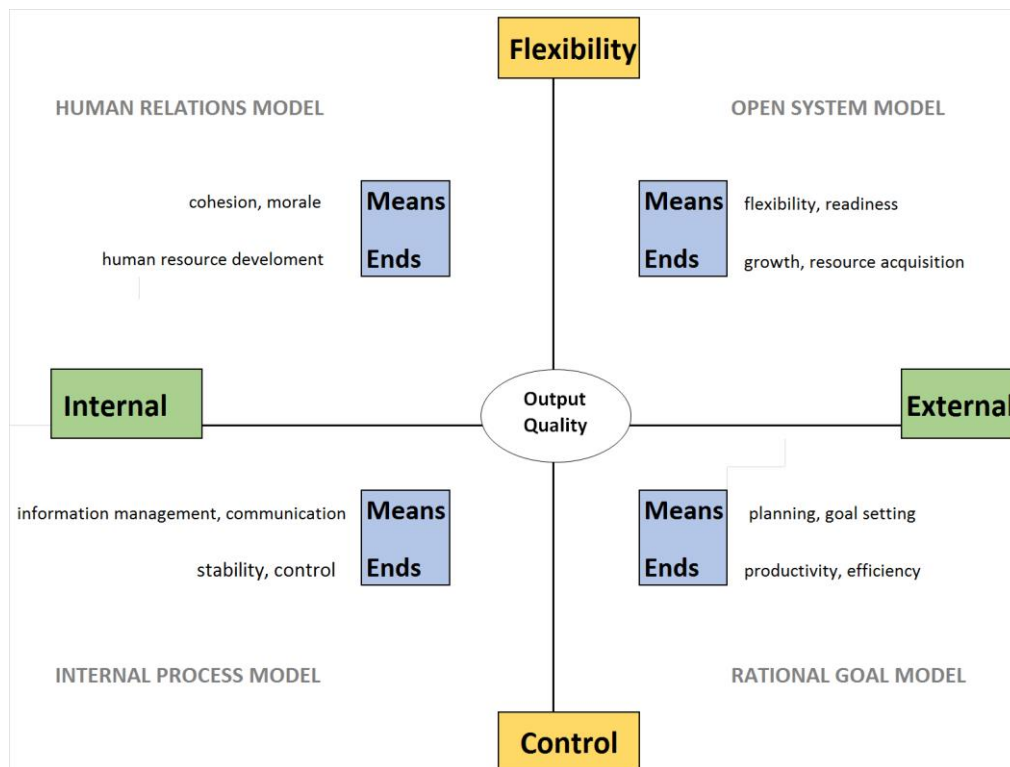


Figure 5: The Competing Values Framework

Source: Quinn and Source: Roughbourn, (1983), A Spatial Model of Effectiveness criteria: Toward a Competing Values Approach to Organization Analysis, Management Science, 29(3), p.369

Figure 6 depicts Quinn and Cameron's Organizational Culture Traits with some basic attributes details with each organizational cultural traits for their model.

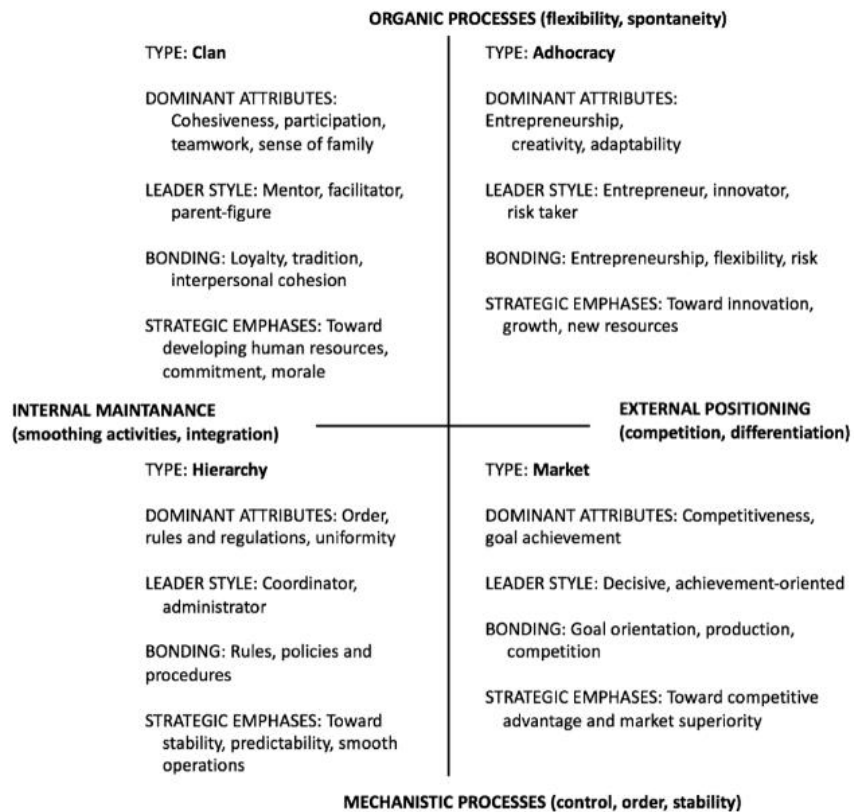


Figure 6: Quinn and Cameron Organizational Culture Traits

Source: Desphande, Farley and Frederick (1993), Corporate Culture, Customer Orientation and Innovativeness in Japanese Firms: A Quadrad Analysis, Journal of Marketing, p.25

2.1.4.2. Miles and Snow Organizational Culture Typology

Miles and Snow (1978) claimed that the success of an organization was associated with the harmony how its external environment adaptation and internal integration (structure, strategy and its processes) aligned in the market to answer customer needs for today and tomorrow. Thus, external adaptation to changing environment could align effectively only if organization arrange its strategy, structure and processes in a way that external adaptation was supported with internal adaptation. They called this “adaptive cycle” which served to answer three questions: entrepreneurial problem (e.g. product and market domain, growth policy), engineering problem (technological orientation) and administrative problem (e.g. organizational structure, planning, control).

They ranked companies according to their reaction to this adaptive cycle into four categories namely: prospectors; defenders; analyzers and reactors.

1) Prospectors maintain a dominant market position through continuous product, service and market development as pioneer in competitive position. They focus on innovation more than efficiency. Entrepreneurial problem is solved through differentiation or low cost strategies for expanding market share; technology is mostly non-standard and flexible and administrative problem is solved with non-centralized control mechanisms. Performance criteria are market share and sales. The risk of this organizational strategy is high since new products can not always be accepted by the market and it could lead to significant losses.

2) Defenders locate and maintain a narrow focus for its products or services. Main aim is to protect its market domain through competitive prices or quality services and products usually operating in stable industries. These organizations focus on efficiency for more profitable products. They prefer core technology for low cost production. The administrative problem is solved through rigid centralized controls. These organizations could face inadequate adaptation to external environment in competition because of lack of diversification and monitoring environmental changes.

3) Analyzers locate themselves between the defenders and prospectors. Their strategy focus on established product and services and adding new ones by imitating and improving already successfully invented by competitors. Such organizations continuously monitor the achievement and failure of prospectors. Technology tends to be stable with some degree of flexibility for imitated products. Thus, this hybrid strategy absorb some ambiguity (Zahra and Pearce, 1990). These organizations could not achieve desired efficiency and effectiveness that they value as performance indicators.

4) Reactors do not have coherent strategies to compete in the external environment. The approach is based on waiting and responding only forced by competitors to loss major customers and in risk of maintaining profitability. They fail answering three other types of strategies because of centralization, contradicting strategies with internal structures and lack of adaptive processes to competitive environment.

2.1.4.3. Deal and Kennedy Model

Deal and Kennedy (1982) detected six elements effective in establishment of organizational culture. They distinguished four types of organizational cultures defining them on the two axis where they named them feedback speed (fast and slow feedbacks) and degree of risk (low and high risks).

The six elements resemble the ones that Schein originally defined on 1992 in his book “organizational culture and leadership” (Schein,2010). These elements are namely history, beliefs and values, rituals, stories, heroes and informal cultural network. Deal and Kenndy (1982) defined four organizational culture out of six elements and two axis.

1. Work Hard-Play Hard Culture: Persistence and stability are dominant character of such organization. Feedback mechanism works very fast. Teamwork and collective commitment are plentiful. Thus, it is considered as common culture with strong corporations where low risk levels are taken as objectives for operational requirements. Innovation is not the major priority.

2. Tough-Guy Macho Culture: It is located in high risk and fast feedback axis. Aggressive and competitive employees take initiatives to do the jobs. Risk taking and accordingly economic reward toward achievement reign in the organizations. Individualism echoes during internal conflicts, thus narrow minded short-term vision is disperse. Collaboration is not highly supported. Individualistic efforts could lead to innovation.

3. Process Culture: It is located in low risk and slow feedback axis. Organization is highly bureaucratic organization. Mechanistic culture shows a character free from the market and external environment. Employees work interchangeably, no efforts for innovation.

4. Bet-Your-Company Culture: It is located on high risk and slow feedback axis. Strategic decisions are taken in a highly uncertain manner. Long-term projects with abounded sources could be allocated. Timing of results is unknown due to unplanned actions.

2.1.4.4. Ouchi Z Culture

Ouchi (1981) compared the management styles of Japanese and American companies in his model. In his book "Theory Z", Ouchi explained the management styles of Japanese companies that shows a distinctive and participatory management structure and analyzed how the cultural values of Japanese companies could be adapted to American companies. Figure 7 summarizes the basic differences between two types.

TYPE A	TYPE Z
Short-term employment	Long-term employment
Rapid evaluation and promotion	Slow evaluation and promotion
Highly specialized careers	Moderately specialized careers
Individual decision making	Consensual decision making
Individual responsibility	Individual responsibility
Explicit, formal control	Implicit, informal control (but with explicit measures
Segmented concern	Holistic concern

Figure 7: Ouchi's Two Organizational Types

Source: Ouchi and Price (1978), Hierarchies, Clans and Theory Z: A New Perspective on Organizational Development, **Organizational Dynamics**, Autumn 1978, p. 39

Depending on the seven criteria, Ouchi compared both cultures. The first criterion was employer's loyalty toward employees; Japanese companies strengthen it by offering long term employment. The second criterion focused on assessment period for promotion. Long-term assessment played a major impact for Japanese employees' promotion. The third was career development. Japanese organizations offered their employees expertise in different areas. The fourth criterion was related with control mechanism where Japanese organizations see it a natural process of teamwork out of strict controls and procedures. The fifth and the sixth criteria were closely related decision-making and responsibility. Japanese companies treated this relationship in team spirit and proposed a consensual manner employees for their own responsibility awareness. The seventh criterion was the interest in employees, is not only related to business life in Japanese companies; includes family, social and home life.

2.1.4.5 Denison Organizational Culture

Denison organizational culture survey dated back to 1984, 1990 and later when the author and his colleagues tried to link certain cultural traits to organizational effectiveness criteria. The traits namely involvement, adaptability, consistency and mission are integrated qualitative and quantitative research methods to discern cultural qualities of high performing organizations and low performers (Denison, 1984:1990. Denison and Mishra, 1995, Denison, Haaland, Goetzer, 2003, Denison, Nieminen and Kotrba, 2014). These studies helped development of a highly validated explicit organizational culture model. The framework shares the same dimensions developed by Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981:1983) and Quinn and Cameron (1988) as explained above. Congruent with Schein's formulation of effective organizations' providing solution to two problems: internal integration and external adaptation the framework has formulated four traits to support the idea. High performing organizations (Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Mintzberg, 1989; Spreitzer, 1995, 1996) were observed to successfully adapt demands of the external environmental into their work practices (adaptability), they provided their employees with a clear purpose and direction (mission), they operationalized core values to assure consistent and coordinated behaviors (consistency) and they engaged their employees by empowering them (involvement). It was also found that each trait represented or being the predictor of different effectiveness criteria: for profitability mission and consistency traits, for innovation adaptability and involvement traits and for sales growth adaptability and missions traits were manipulated (Denison et al., 2003).

Beliefs and underlying assumptions take place at the heart of the framework. The cultural levels at deep of each organization depict an individualistic character and normally difficult to measure and decipher. However, beliefs and assumptions are the basis of behavior and action. The model claims that behaviors can be connected to a fundamental set of core beliefs and underlying assumptions, which are manifested in four cultural trait in terms of organizational practices. Denison organizational culture framework consists of four major traits. Each traits are represented by three dimensions totally twelve dimensions are measured to decipher

these beliefs and assumptions. Thus, the framework provides a diagnostic process to define organizational culture with its strong and weak parts.

The model consists of four quadrants each representing one cultural trait. Each trait – quadrant contains three indices. The traits with their indices lay down on two dimensions: flexibility versus stability on the horizontal axis and internal versus external on the vertical axis. (Figure 8).

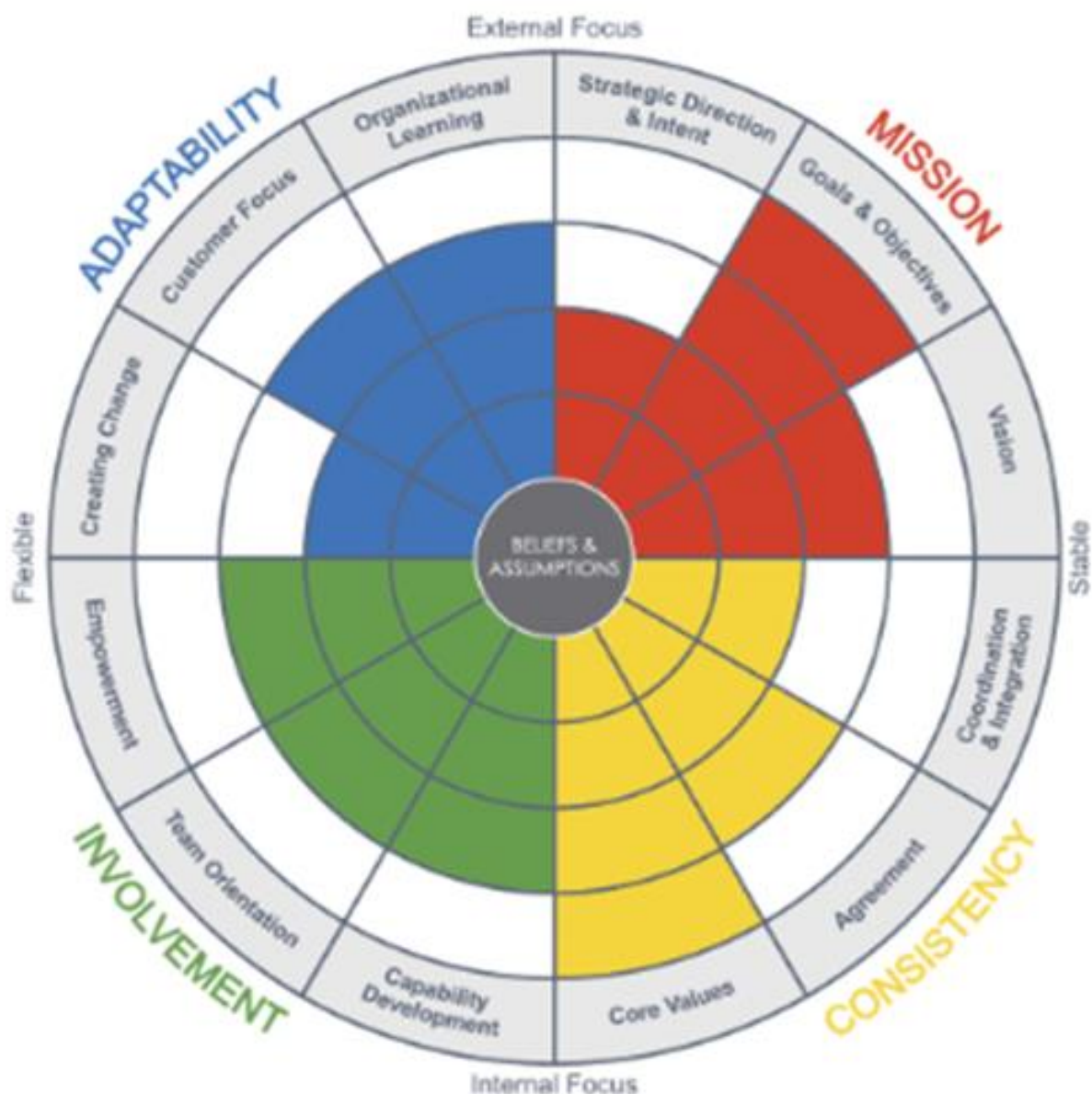


Figure 8: Denison Organizational Culture Model

Source: Denison, Haaland and Goelzer, Is Asia Different From the Rest of the World, **Organizational Dynamics**,

33 (1), pp.101-102

Horizontally splitted bottom half represents the internal focus with involvement and consistency traits. This part deals with the internal dynamics of the organization and top half-representing adaptability and mission traits focus on the interaction of the organization with its external environment.

On the other hand, vertical split distinguishes flexible organization from stable organization. Left half represented by adaptability and involvement traits signals to an organization's capacity for flexibility and change while right half with mission and consistency emphasis for stability and direction. Organizations higher on involvement and adaptability will provide more variety, input and solution to a situation than high on consistency and mission traits organizations that focus more on control and stability.

Involvement Culture

The empowered employees, teams and development of human capacity (Lawler, 1996; Buckingham and Coffman, 1999), have defined effective organizations. Involvement culture is related with the engagement of employees within the organization and demonstrates a concentration on the internal components of the organization and on flexibility. The sub-dimensions developed for involvement culture are empowerment, capability development and team orientation.

Empowerment subscale points out that employee are given the authority, initiative, and competence to manage their own job. The aim is to generate a sense of responsibility through employees' contribution into decisions and ownership through connecting employees' role into the organizational goals toward the corporation work. This creates a sense of ownership and responsibility towards the organization (Katzenbach and Smith, 1993). Team orientation places value on working cooperatively towards organizational goals so that all employees are mutually accountable. Teams are given priorities for doing the job. Capability development refers to continuous investment on the development of employee competence to be competitive and challenging business environment needs. Organizational cultures dominant

on involvement rely on voluntary, informal control systems; they avoid bureaucratic, formal and explicit control systems. Organizational members are asked for their inputs for quality.

Consistency Culture

Saffold (1998) defined effective organizations with their being consistent also being well integrated to cultural performance linked organizational processes. Senge (1990) links consistency to common mindset where source of internal integration and stable actions and decisions spring. Thus, consistency is related with shared values, efficacious systems and processes. The consistency culture emphasizes on internal and stable focus. The sub-dimensions developed for consistency culture are coordination and integration, agreement and core values.

For creating a sense of identity and clear expectations, core values are shared by employees. Agreement refers to the ability of organizational members on compromising on critical issues and reconciling differences if any. Coordination and integration serve to work together in different departments and functions to achieve organizational goals. All organizational boundaries serve to doing work. Consistency provide employees with a central foundation of coordination, control and integration. Organizations high on consistency establish a mindset and organization system of internal governance on the basis of consensual support. These organizations have engaged employees, clear rules and procedures for doing business, internal promotion tendency and list of encourage behaviors. Widely shared beliefs and assumptions by the employees tend to create an internalized control system becoming a more efficacious coordination and integration means. Advantage of the trait emerges when employees face with unexpected situations. Employees react to unpredictable situations on the ground of value based rules and principles.

Adaptability Culture

Adaptability culture focuses on employees' ability to articulate the customers' needs, their learning willingness and adaptation to change. By nature, adaptability trait is external and flexible focused. The organizations having adaptability character have systematic beliefs and

norms in which they collect data from their customers and competitors and transform this data into behavioral changes internally so that they sustain the development for growth, survival and change (Katz and Kahn, 1978; Kotter, 1996; Denison and Neale, 1996). Therefore, these companies have the capacity for perceiving and responding to the external environment and to internal customers from all levels of the organization and re-institutionalize new response behaviors for adaptation. The sub-dimensions developed for adaptability culture are creating change, customer focus and organizational learning.

The sub dimensions focuses on reading environmental demands and answering them. Creating change is related with creating active responses for changing needs and foreseeing future changes. Customer focus concentrates on satisfying customer in all possible ways anticipating future needs. Organizational learning is the adaptive and responsive part of the organization transforming needs and opportunities into— innovations, developing new capabilities and increasing knowledge level.

Mission Culture

Mission refers to purpose and meaning which is derived from a social role an organization pursues. Purpose and directions embedded in the goals and direction draw a picture how organization will be seen in the future if these are achieved (Mintzberg, 1989; Hamal and Prahalad, 1994). The clear goals and directions encourage behaviors appropriate with the short and long-term commitment of employees to the organization. Mission trait focuses on internal stability and external developments. The sub-dimensions developed for mission culture are strategic direction and intent, goals and objectives, and vision.

Strategic direction and intent transform strategic intention into purpose and disseminate it in a way that employees both contribute to it and act accordingly. Goals and objectives are declared and are associated with the organization's mission and vision providing all employees with direction. Vision is the instilled future state of the organization.

An increase on effectiveness could be expected from balance of these four traits. One trait alone could not fully explain the elaboration of effectiveness; it should be complemented and supported varying degrees by other three cultural traits (Fey and Denison, 2003; Yilmaz and Ergun, 2008). Conceptually appealing, Yilmaz and Ergun (2008) assumed that involvement dominant culture without support and complement from mission, consistency and adaptability cultures could lead to employees' uncoordinated behaviors and effort and thus the risk of increased conflict, unbalanced focus on external processes, behaviors out of strategy and organizational goals. The unbalanced emphasis on consistency could lead, from the same vein to resistance to changes, emphasis on adaptability to contradicting goals and endeavors, emphasis on mission to rigidity and narrow-mindedness.

It is important to note that Denison Organizational culture framework lays down on similar dilemmas (external versus internal, stability versus flexibility) with Competing Values Framework originated by Quinn and Rohrbaugh 1981:1983, Quinn, and Cameron, 1988). However, their approach to organizational culture is different; competing values framework raises over typological culture assessment contrary to profile approach of Denison framework in the sense of measurement implications. Moreover, Denison framework concentrates on the balance of four cultural traits or mixture of them since the balance among external and internal focus and stable and flexible focus, there raises also the long-term effectiveness stance of the organization. Thus effective organizations are seen as the ones displaying complex combination of four cultural traits rather than one and dominant culture trait (Hartnell, Kinicki, Ou, Choi and Karam, 2019; Gillespie, Denison, Haaland, Smerek and Neale, 2008; Denison, 1990)

2.2. Empowerment Definition and Scope

When economies and organizations were faced with pressures to change to cope with technological developments, advanced communication systems and global competition human asset became more importantly the source of competitive advantage for organizations and survival. Organizations should maintain their workforce in a suitable structure to adapt to changing environment on timely manner responses to ever lasting changes. Since hierarchies

established for coordination and control mechanisms could be the source organizational inertia and inclined to be restricted with former organizational practices, they are challenged by internal and external forces. Thus, power structure in organizations needed to be improved internally to satisfy external changes and enable employees to deal with changes effectively.

Therefore, empowerment became a prominent concept to revitalize employees' power for achieving organizational goals. Empowerment refers to power sharing in organizations in a way that employees are given authority to fulfill organizational requirements and their jobs effectively also for satisfying customers needs, Employees are trusted to organize their jobs in defined boundaries and organizational values and they do not need further approval from their managers. Empowerment has been seen an organizational structural arrangement, but later studies defined employee-centric or intrinsic motivation face of the construct.

2.2.1. The importance of Empowerment

Empowerment became an important organizational implication in 1980s. Lawler, Mohrman and Benson (2001) mentioned that 70 percent organizations preferred to empower their employees, even if it was not for all employees but at least for some of them. Uncertainty, increased competition and digitalization force organizations more and more and they need their employees' power, knowledge, ideas and creativeness to sustain their businesses and become successful. One of the way to reach this end from the employee side seems to be taking initiatives for empowerment (O'Toole and Lawler, 2006). This is closely related with power-sharing or power transfer (Conger and Kanungo, 1988). Power in organizations mainly stems from organizational structural conditions and not inherit individually or does not generate from socialization conditions. Laschinger (1996), Laschinger et al. (2001) and Kanter (1985) pointed out the management role in providing employees with power for empowering them structurally so that they could sharpen their ability to be successful in their jobs in a meaningful way. Similarly employees provided with opportunity demonstrate more proactive action for contributing and solving organizational problems. Seibert et al. (2011) reported that psychological empowerment is closely associated with employee outcomes including job

satisfaction, job performance, organizational commitment and negatively associated with job strains and turnover intentions.

As an important component of empowerment, Mishra and Morrissey (1990) pointed out the role of information sharing to be one of ways to flourish trust in organizations. Trust onto organization and management is the major block of empowerment from employee side. Since employees' contribution to organizations is a strategic advantage for organizations, empowerment is one of the effective managerial decision to implement for organizational effectiveness and success. Supporting employee attitudes such as efforts towards innovation, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, organizational citizenship behaviors are positively related with empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008; Laschinger et al., 2001; Jeong et al. 2019; Seibert et al., 2011). Empowerment could only be flourished with managerial initiatives both for structural and psychological empowerment. Thus, it is vitally important to get employees' support for organizational events. Managers should consider more how to enrich and effectively implement empowerment in organizations.

2.2.2. Theoretical Foundations of Empowerment

Empowerment until it gained its importance as a management concept in 1980s especially as prominent concept of quality movement such as total quality management, reengineering, six sigma and culture change projects did not appear as a specific definition. Intellectual roots of empowerment can be traced in the writings of Mary Parker Follett who claimed basically that employees doing the work should be included into the coordination and planning activities because they desire to contribute, grow and enable to self-manage their works (Eylon, 1998; Piderit, 2000). Moreover, many close meanings had been used echoing to empowerment concept in the literature such as employee involvement and employee participation (Lewin, 1947), sharing power or sharing mutual responsibility and so on. These terms later conceptualized and united under the term of employee empowerment (Lawler, 1988; Lawler and Mohrman, 1998, Davidon, and Malone, 1992).

Attention to empowerment came with the altering nature of work. The shift to knowledge economies out of production, pressures from global competition and continuous improvement necessitated closer concentration on employee behaviors in dynamic work environment under more uncertainty than traditional task oriented jobs and empowered management (Ilgen and Hollenbeck, 1991). Employees today, are needed to perform different behaviors than simply executing their jobs. They are expected more to contribute to goal attainment and organizational effectiveness. Empowerment mechanism could help them demonstrate more citizenship behavior, adaptive job performance in a proactive way, contextual performance and so on for organizational achievement (Pulakos et al, 2000; Grant and Ashford, 2008; Borman and Motowidlo, 1997). Crant (2000) stated the crucial role of empowered employees out of traditional task role through the increased responsibilities in organizational performance (1) in the areas of creativity and innovation and (2) in the change endeavors and (3) for competitive advantage in contemporary business environment.

Empowerment initially was developed as two inter-related perspectives (Spreitzer, 2008; Maynard et al., 2013). Social-structural empowerment (Kanter, 1977, 1983,1993) or the relational approach is considered empowerment being macro approach in which power and decision making role are shared in organizational hierarchy between superiors and subordinates through structures, organizational policies and actions with the aim of elimination of feeling of powerlessness among organizational members. Socio-structural empowerment perspective develops on the premise of job design and job characteristics models (Hackman and Oldham, 1980; Maynard et al, 2012). Thus, this perspective is closely related with organizational conditions to create avenues for employees through job designs fostering autonomy for decisions and crafting meaningful tasks to support development.

The second perspective is considered more micro orientation and mostly in motivational form (Spreitzer, 2008). It focuses on how employees psychologically feel and experience on their job roles upon empowerment in the organization. Thus, it is more bottom-up approach engaged by intrinsic motivation that employees have on their jobs free from organizational hierarchy. It tries to explain how an individual's perceptions or cognitions generates a sense of control on his or her work (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, Spreitzer 1995, Thomas and Velthoue, 1990). Later, Seibert, Silver and Randolph (2004) took a further step and they

defined empowerment climate from the angle of shared perception of employees and linked it to organization's structures, business practices and policies that serve to support empowerment through information sharing, giving autonomy to employees under defined boundaries and lastly team accountability.

Conger and Kanungo (1988) state that empowerment is derived from the construct of power and control. In organizational setting, the ones who have power are able to achieve their desired ends against ones who do not. When considered in this relational light, power and control power are shared with subordinates by managers to achieve organizational goals (Spreitzer, 2008; Maynard et al, 2012). Thus, empowerment is related with participative management heralded in management techniques such as management by objectives, quality circles and quality management, goal setting, total quality management, six sigma, reengineering and so on as in form of delegating authority or sharing power.

The reasons why empowerment gained importance in management studies after 1980s can be summarized in three headings Firstly, it is the major component of effectiveness for managerial and organizational activities. Secondly, the belief that productivity of organizations grows with power and control sharing. Thirdly, effective team building and group development could be achieved through empowerment techniques (Conger and Kanungo, 1988).

However, this is only the one part of empowerment. Besides this power focus, empowerment is regarded as a motivational construct in which power and control is assumed to be an internal state necessary for individual need as motivation and expectancy belief such as McClelland (1975) theorized it. Intrinsic need for self-determination (Deci, 1975) is included into empowerment construct together with Bandura's self-efficacy (1986) conceptualization (Conger and Kanungo, 1988, p.473). Thus, empowerment is closely related with power issue in people management in both senses that feed the need of self-determination and self-efficacy of employees to make them powerful. So delegating of authority as an organizational strategy leads to enhancing employee efficacy. Conger and Kanungo (1988) define empowerment as

“a process of enhancing feelings of self-efficacy among organizational members through the identification of conditions that foster powerlessness and through their removal by both formal organizational practices and informal techniques of providing efficacy information” (p.474).

Empowerment construct has common features in expectancy theory (McClelland, 1975) which explains individual motivation partly dependent to two expectations: firstly increased effort for higher level of performance and because of higher performance achievement of desired ends. Empowerment intervention leads to enriching individual personal efficacy to successfully do their work, but not necessarily result expectations of employees (Bandura, 1986; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Seibert et al, 2011). These enabling experiences help employees to initiate and to be persistent in their task behaviors (Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Thomas and Velthouse, 1990).

Conger and Kanungo (1988) defined empowerment in five stages integrating various motivation concepts. The first stage lists the organizational factors lead to employees' feeling of powerlessness; supervision, reward system and the nature of the job. The second step demonstrates participative management techniques such as goal setting, feedback system, job enrichment. The third step is related with providing self-efficacy information to strengthen employees self-efficacy feelings through Bandura's construct: enactive attainment, vicarious experience, verbal persuasion and emotional arousal. The fourth step to empowerment is related with strengthening employees' effort-performance expectancy beliefs. These four steps together lead to behavioral effects of empowerment to help the accomplishment of task objectives for employees. Figure 9 depicts these five stages.

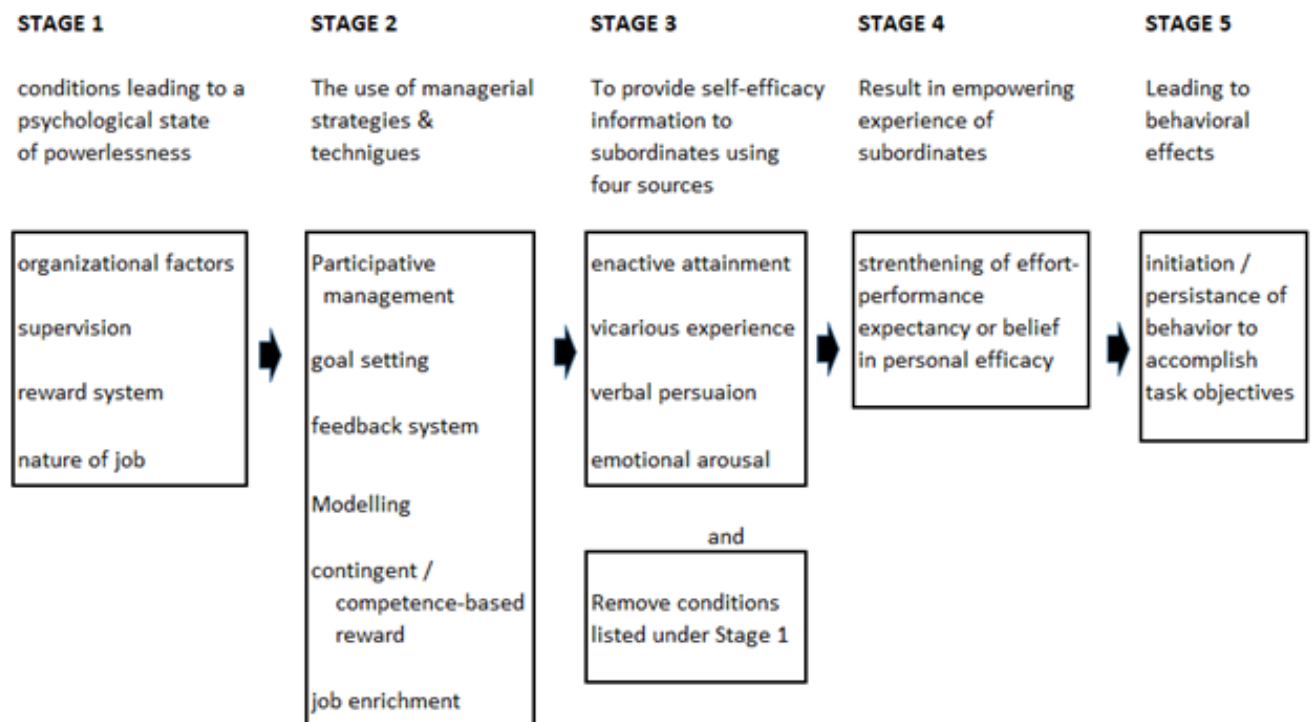


Figure 9: Five Stages in the Empowerment Process

Source: Conger, J. and Kanungo, R.,(1988), The empowerment Process: Integrating Theory and practice, *Academy of Management Review*, 13 (3), P.475

2.2.3. Types of Empowerment

Two main approaches on empowerment was developed during the initiation of the concept into management literature. Primarily, socio-structural perspective assumed empowerment to decentralize organizational power throughout organizational structure and policies so that employees were empowered to do their jobs effectively. Later studies introduced psychological empowerment concept that is stemmed from organizational practices to employees' feeling toward their jobs strengthening and their self-concept for organizational accomplishment.

2.2.3.1. Structural Empowerment

Kanter introduced empowerment concept into management literature in 1977 in her book "Men and Women of the Corporation" (Kanter, 1977, 1993; Lachinger, Finegan and Shamian,

2001). Her structural theory of power is rooted on the contention that power in corporation is the result of structural conditions and not derived from employee characteristics or socialization (Manojlovich, 2007). Thus according to Kanter, power does not define domination but the ability of individuals to get the work done in their organizations. Organizational work conditions affect employees' behaviors more than their personality traits in their work behaviors. Kanter (1977, 1993) proposed that employees act rationally when organizations maintain conditions where employees could find themselves. Such empowering structures could be realized by formal organizational structures, -job characteristics that are central and observable link to organizational goals. Such a formal power enables employees also for initiatives for decision-making. Informal organizational structures such as relations with all organizational members would also support empowering conditions. Informal power comes from the alliances employees establish in their organizations with superiors, their subordinates and peers (Kanter, 1993; Lachinger et al, 2001). Employees equipped with formal and informal power have more chance to improve work attitudes and effectiveness behaviors.

According to Kanter, effectiveness in organizations depends on power, opportunity and employee mix (e.g. position, sex). Power sources in the organizations are employees' access to information, resources and getting managerial and peer support. Information and knowledge both technical and expertise form are needed to do jobs as well as informal knowledge for a sense of larger organizational happenings. Access to resources empower employees in the sense that they reach financial sources and rewards they need to achieve their jobs while getting managerial and peer support relate to higher effectiveness.

Providing employees with opportunity structures do not only help them advance , learn and develop more knowledge and skills but also increase their commitment, effectiveness and naturally job satisfaction and their being more open to changes and challenges. Absence of access to opportunity, information, support and resources make employees feel powerless. Since they are charged with accountability without these sources of power, they demonstrate frustration and more failure openly or secretly (Kanter, 1977, 1993, Laschinger et al, 2010). Figure 10 depicts Kanter's Structural Theory of Power in Organizations.

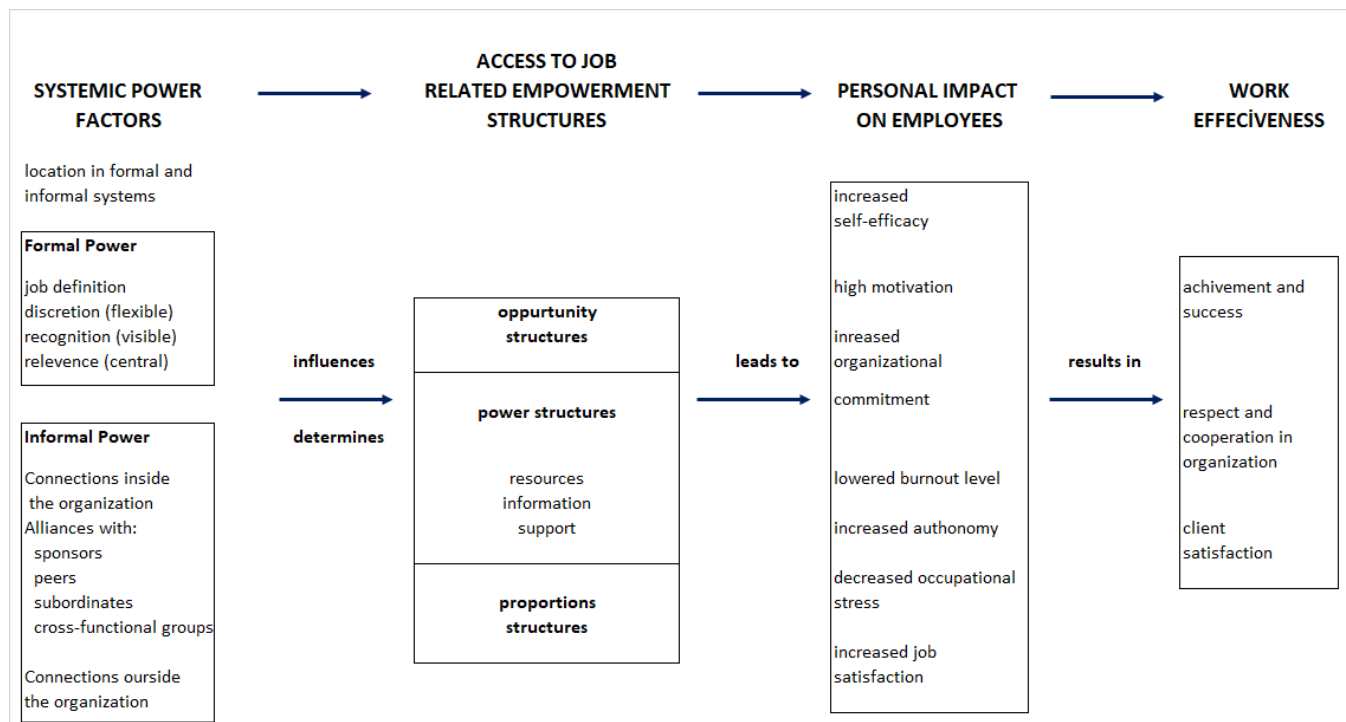


Figure 10: Kanter's Structural Theory of Power in Organizations

Source: Laschinger, H.K.S., J. Finegan and J. Shamian. (2001), The Impact of Workplace Empowerment and Organizational Trust on Staff Nurses' Work Satisfaction and Organizational Commitment, **Health Care Management Review**, Volume 3, p.62

Although structural empowerment gives clear work conditions for empowerment, it lacks employee side. Many scholars emphasized the importance of employees' reactions to the organization-centric empowerment characteristics (Spreiter, 2006; Conger and Kanungo, 1988, Laschinger et al, 2010, Maynard et al, 2012). Structural empowerment establishes the links between practice and performance, but it does not guarantee to be received as intended by employees. Moving from this standpoint, Conger and Kanungo (1988) started to theorize psychological empowerment in respect of employee-centric empowerment and claimed that empowering work setting help employees feed their self-determination and self-efficacy. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) took a further step and stated cognitive state derived from empowered conditions to be an individualistic motivational construct leading to intrinsic employee task motivation. This was an important movement for empowerment, since it carries the answer why employees do not feel empowered although organizations provided them with all structural empowerment power (Spreitzer, 1996; 2008).

2.2.3.2. Psychological Empowerment

Thomas and Venthouse (1990) elaborated their contribution working on the intrinsic task motivation. They defined it positive experiences employees derive from job which produce both satisfaction and naturally motivation. They started to delineate their work defining core cognitions named task assessments which they assumed to be causes of satisfaction and intrinsic task motivation. These assessments are individual person-oriented and refer to task, not the content work. For them, dimensions of these assessments are generic and applicable to each work separately. Task contains activities with a purpose. It is somehow similar with Hachman and Oldman's (1980) conceptualization meaningfulness from task significance; psychological component of intrinsic work motivation. They draw a comprehensive construct to form employees' task assessments. Three broad interpretive processes namely evaluation, attribution and envisioning accompany employees to add meaning to actual perception about these tasks. Thomas and Venthouse's (1990) model is depicted in Figure 11.

The core of the model is the cycle where environmental events, task assessments and behaviors interact. Environmental events' data is processed by the individual for the consequences of ongoing task behavior and events and conditions related to future behavior. This data forms employee's task assessment regarding impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice. Eventually task assessments shape employee' behavior. Thus, intrinsic task motivation is affected by both external events and by the way, employee build on it. Additionally, intrapersonal elements global assessments about employee's generalized beliefs about impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice and interpretive styles interact to explain variation in task assessment construction. Induced global assessments, generalizations from experiences is similar to Rotter's (1966) conceptualization "locus of control". When ambiguity reigns, employees deductively make task assessment consistent with experiences. Interpretive styles add subjective information regarding evaluation, attribution and envisioning while empowering interventions (e.g. structural empowerment) provide ways to influence employee's task assessment. Two general intervention strategies are changing environmental events leading employees' forming their task assessment and changing the employee's own way interpreting events.

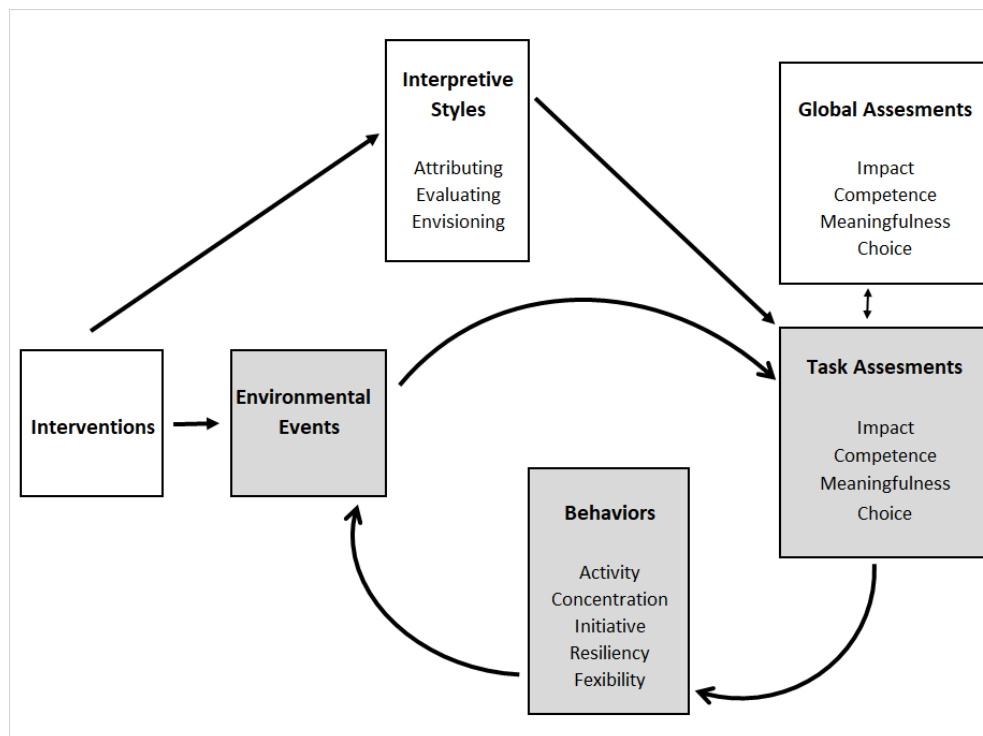


Figure 11: Cognitive Model of Empowerment

Source: Thomas, K.W., Velthouse, B.A., (1990), Cognitive Elements of Empowerment: An “Interpretive” Model of Intrinsic Task Motivation, *Academy of Management Review*, 1990, Vol. 15, No.4, 666-681, p.670

Four dimensions of task assessment namely impact, competence, meaningfulness and choice are cognitive elements of intrinsic motivation. Thomas and Velthouse (1990) offered these assessments as a synthesis of the cognitive motivational content of Deci (1975), Hackham and Oldham (1980), Bandura (1977, 1986) and for motivational aspects of leadership models (Seibert et al, 2011). As a social learning approach, the four concepts relates expectancy theory (Lawler, 1973) and reinforcement dynamic. Each concept coincides with expectancy theory construct such as impact with performance-outcome expectancy, competence with effort-performance expectancy, meaningfulness with anticipated outcome valence – intrinsic motivation- and choice with perceived opportunity. Each assessments are also intrinsic reinforcement.

Spreitzer (1995b) constructed the first multidimensional scale to assess psychological empowerment on the basis of the conception of Thomas and Velthouse (1990). She defined

psychological empowerment as a motivational construct manifested in four cognitions; meaning, competence, self-determination, and impact. Together, these four cognitions reflect an active, rather than a passive, orientation to a work role (Spreitzer, 1995b, p.1444). Meaning is the relationship between an employee's work role and his/her own beliefs and values about this work role that s/he finds it meaningful or not (Hackman and Oldham, 1980). Self-determination refers to sense of choice related with initiation and arrangement of employee's action; a sense of freedom in doing job (Deci, Connell, and Ryan, 1989). Competence is the belief of self-capability about performing work activities successfully (Bandura, 1989; Lawler, 1973). Lastly, impact is the belief that s/he can affect strategic, administrative, or operational activities and outcomes in his/her work unit (Abramson, Seligman, and Teasdale, 1978; Ashforth, 1989).

Firstly, the indicators of empowerment was regarded as organizational practices and structures upon Kanter's (1977, 1983) study (structural empowerment). However, these contextual factors currently are assumed later to be the antecedent of psychological empowerment (Seibert, Silver, and Randolph, 2004; Spreitzer, 1996, 2008; Seibert, Wang and Courtright, 2011). Seibert et al, 2011, in their meta analytic study, classified contextual factors into four categories referring to scholarly articles. High-performance management practices found to be related to higher levels of psychological empowerment through both cognitive and affective mechanisms; such practices could be related to power decentralization and giving a share to employees in decision making and so on (Combs, Liu, Hall, and Ketchen, 2006; Liao, Toya, Lepak, and Hong, 2009; Patterson, West, and Wall, 2004). Socio-political support for example organizational justice and support, leadership like in transformational leadership or simply leadership support and work design characteristics also separately classified as antecedent contextual factor effective in enabling feeling of empowerment (Kark, Shamir, and Chen, 2003; Kirkman and Rosen, 1999; Kraimer, Seibert, and Liden, 1999; Liden, Wayne, and Sparrowe, 2000)

Contextual factors found statistically significant were derived out the structural practices from Kanter study (1977:1983); lately, they were considered to form the basis for psychological empowerment (Spreitzer, 2008). Besides that, a number of personality characteristics were verified to be influential in psychological empowerment constructions. The authors stated the

strong relationship of employees' positive self-evaluation but less effective human capital trait with psychological empowerment. As the consequences of psychological empowerment, both attitudinal and behavioral ones were reported. The study detected that psychological empowerment was positively linked with job satisfaction and organizational commitment but negatively linked to job strain and intention to leave. Behavioral consequences can be listed with positive task performance, organizational citizenship behaviors, innovation and performance.

Spreitzer also (2008) stated that a range of attitudinal and behavioral results is related with psychological empowerment. As outcome of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, task performance, OCB, innovation and team performance have been reasoned by the outcome of psychological empowerment. It is important to state that leadership in a trusting relationship played an important role in the construction of psychological empowerment (Yukl, 2010, Liden et al., 1997)

2.3. OCB definition and Scope

Because of ever-changing environments, organizations are simultaneously challenged to adopt many changes in strategy, structure, work processes and culture. Organizations need employees to carry out change endeavors effectively. Thus having employees who are ready to accept changes increase the effectiveness of change processes. However, organizational change is quite a complicated web of connections and interactions. Besides employees' own characteristics, all organizational events and experiences help employees form their change beliefs. Employees beliefs about organization change is closely related with their readiness for change and employees reflect it in their attitudes and intentions toward the need and appropriateness of change and their own beliefs about themselves and organization capacity to fruitfully adopt these changes in organizational setting. Employees' change beliefs are not fixed thus, they can be manipulated by interventions through changing external and internal conditions. The proposed organizational change, trust on organization and change agents play

role shaping organizational change beliefs. Highly perceived change beliefs would increase high motivation to change and lead to high involvement towards change.

Organizational change recipients' beliefs is a multidimensional construct affected by employees change beliefs such that change is needed, employees have enough change self-efficacy to adopt the proposed organizational change, the way proposed to change is found appropriate by employees, leaders and colleagues are dedicated to change endeavors and the expected results of change efforts are beneficial for employees.

2.3.1. The importance of OCRB

It is evident that changes must be applied by employees who are under change initiatives and determining what beliefs trigger their beliefs toward motivated support to change would save some wasted resources. Armenakis et al (2007) identified five beliefs distilled from classical research. These beliefs could guide change agents to assess employees reactions under different phases of change periods for diagnosis process, creating readiness for implementation and lastly change adoption and institutionalizations processes. These beliefs are discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, valence and principal support.

The assessment of five beliefs for structuring change assessment are found to be useful for several purposes for change management process (Armenakis et al, 2007; Holt et al, 2007; Self et al. 2007; Armenakis et al, 2011; Armenakis and Lang,2014). The beliefs constitute the fundamental themes in organizational change literature for a long time. The change agents have to involve employees into organizational change efforts since employees' acceptance and support will destine the success of change efforts and changes in tasks, new way of doing things will affect employees' lives. These beliefs constitute the major building blocks of employee behaviors. Thus, being aware of employees' beliefs and how and why they formed these beliefs will help change agents in arranging change plans and procedures for reducing resistant behavior in favor of supportive behavior and for attracting employee organizational change commitment. Moreover, assessment of beliefs shred light for three change processes:

diagnosis, creating readiness and lastly change adoption/institutionalization. The framework can be used to evaluate why change program is not progressing.

The framework embodies many change related issues and sentiments (content, context, capabilities, support etc.). Thus, instead of labeling employees reactions to change as resistance to change, change practitioners must research more intensively and try to understand employees' interpretations of reluctance to welcome change efforts. The framework gives clear clues for the possible reasons. Employees' answers to the beliefs positive or negative facilitate the discovery of certain aspects of the change process for a joint consideration of what has to be done for unfavorable beliefs and lessons out of it. Framework offers a generalizable approach to evaluating change steps. The framework shows attitudes critical for any change. Thus, uniqueness of the framework comes from the assessment of answers to these beliefs. Interpretation issues detected from each belief contains solution to make corrections in actions during the change periods (Armenakis, Harris, Cole, Fillmer and Self, 2007).

The framework is not leader-centric approach on change signaling strategic importance of leadership, instead it is employee-centric / change recipient. Although both are mutually exclusive, the framework designed to understand the building blocks of individual motivations to welcome change initiatives. The five beliefs underlie employees' motivation to change and their active participation. It formulates an effective diagnosis for change need and focuses on creating readiness for change instead of reducing resistance. It gives clues to leaders for affecting the five beliefs.

2.3.2. Theoretical Foundations of OCRBs

Organizational change can be defined as a broad area of study as a difference in conditions surrounding the organization internally and externally leading to planned / unplanned change endeavors in organizational, at group or individual levels (Kotter, 1995; Bouckennooghe, 2010. Considering that most change efforts prove to be futile because of human factors (Self et al,

2007; Kotter and Cohen, 2002), the critical part of this definition is the nature of change in both group and individual phenomena. Since organizational change affects groups and individual employees, process model of effective change (Kotter, 1995) involves employees for all the steps prescribed in the model for implementing successful change initiatives. Though change influence all organizations, since employees experience it individually and it is expectable that employee's efforts become a success factor for change initiatives. Naturally, employees' actions, perceptions, attitudes and roles in managing organizational change constitute a huge area of research (Seo et al, 2012; Shin et al, 2012; Choi, 2011; Jansen et al, 2015). Positive beliefs toward change could be assumed to lead similarly to positive attitude for change. Moreover, change literature refers change readiness and resistance to be the basis of over 90 percent of all conceptual work (Bouckennooghe, 2010). All organizational situations affect employees' beliefs, attitudes and behaviors.

Oreg, Vakola and Armenakis (2011) studied change recipients' reactions to organizational change for a 60-year review of similar studies. The model they derived proposed a broad picture of employee reactions (Figure 12). The study classified employee reactions applying Piderit (2000) classification of affective, cognitive and behavioral factors for employees' reactions to the change where affection relates to how they feel, cognition relates to what employees think and behavioral reactions means what employees intend to act. Thus, employees' beliefs lead to shape their reactions to change initiatives.

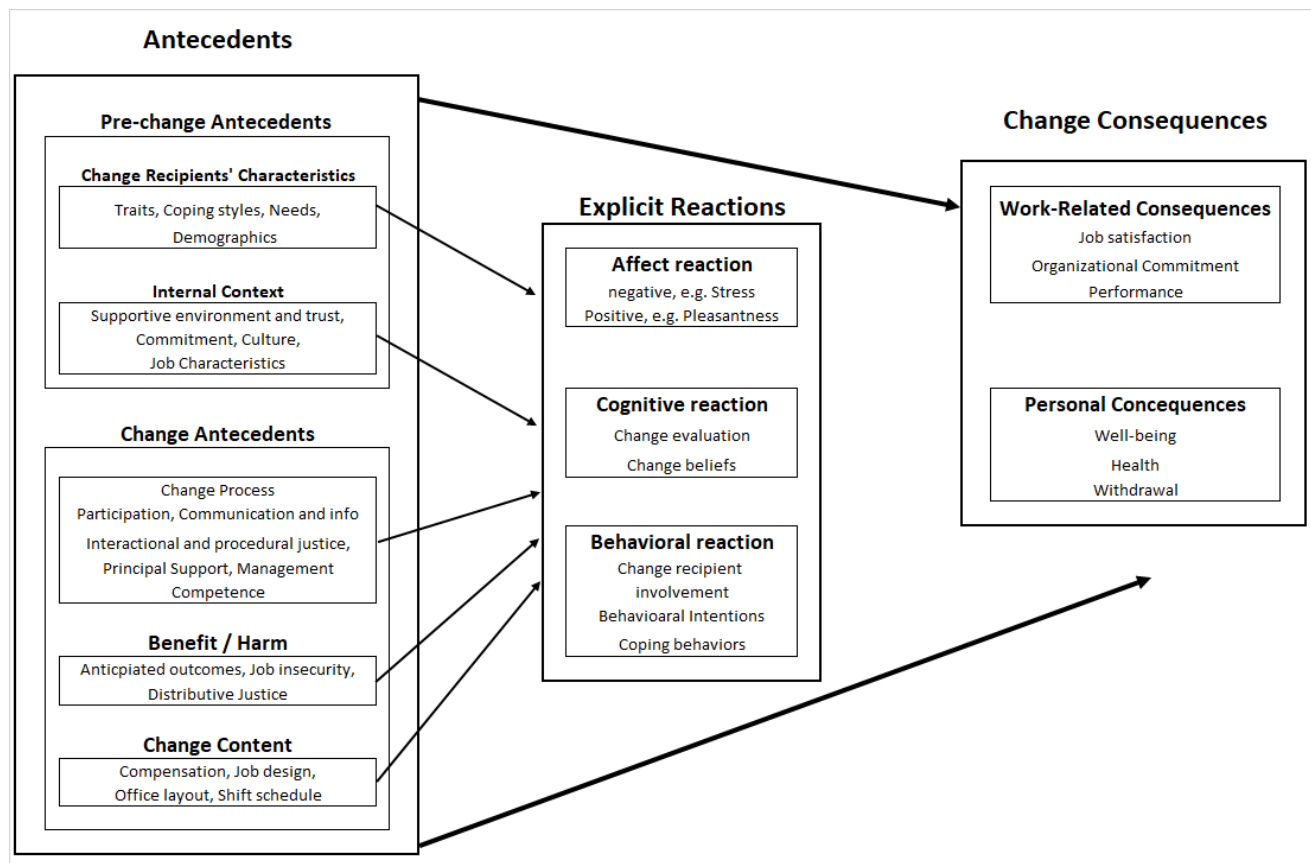


Figure 12: Antecedents, Explicit Reactions and Change consequence of Organizational Change

Source: Oreg et al, 2011, Change Recipients' Reactions to Organizational Change: A 60-Year Review of Quantitative Studies, *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 461- 524, pp.466

Moreover, it can be said that organizational change instruments consists of content, process and context factors (Armenakis and Bedeian, 1999, Self et al, 2007). Content factors refer to what change initiatives will be taken such as changes in HR practices, quality initiative (e.g. TQM, reengineering, six sigma), social and physical settings for eliminating gaps in the desired organizational performance and effectiveness. Depending on the bigness of initiatives, employees reactions will vary since some changes will affect their lives gradually (new rules and regulations, loss of jobs etc). Piderit (2000) claimed that employees mostly react resistance to change not because of change but its anticipated effects. Process factors refer to what methods will be operationalized during the whole change period. Lewin (1947) had proposed a process model where steps were identified as unfreezing, moving and freezing. Contextual factors explain why change is needed; what external and internal circumstances

affect organizational effectiveness. External contexts such as technological and governmental changes ultimately affect organizational performance forcing organizations for new strategic orientations or maybe new structural organizational changes. Mowday and Sutton (1993) defined internal context as being organizational situations, which affect employees in terms of their stances of beliefs, intentions and attitudes and their behaviors. Organizational circumstances such as formalization, management communication and support for employees, employees' gender, tenure; broadly organizational context affects change interpretations and processes adopted during the implementation period; before, during and after. Some soft internal context characteristics which affect the success of change endeavor are assumed to be perceived organizational support (Eisenberg, et al, 1990) and leader-member exchange (Larkin and Larkin, 1994). Perceived organizational support bases the employees' perception on employer's attitude toward on them. Perceived organizational support can be exercised by recognition of employee achievement and effort, helping them to solve their problems, showing concern for employees' values, beliefs, goals, safety etc. This perception helps employees to build feelings for their organization and result from exchange process of tangible and intangible outcomes by the organization in daily working life. Strong affect feelings not only trigger employees' commitment to organizational goals and objectives but also, if managed positively, behaviors that are more receptive are expectable and more buy-in employee behaviors toward change initiatives. This kind of interaction could come from leader-member exchange in that the immediate superiors and management in general play a crucial role for employees' acceptance of change (not job losses) (Holt et. al, 2007). Figure 13 depicts the relationship between content, context, process and individual attributes with readiness.

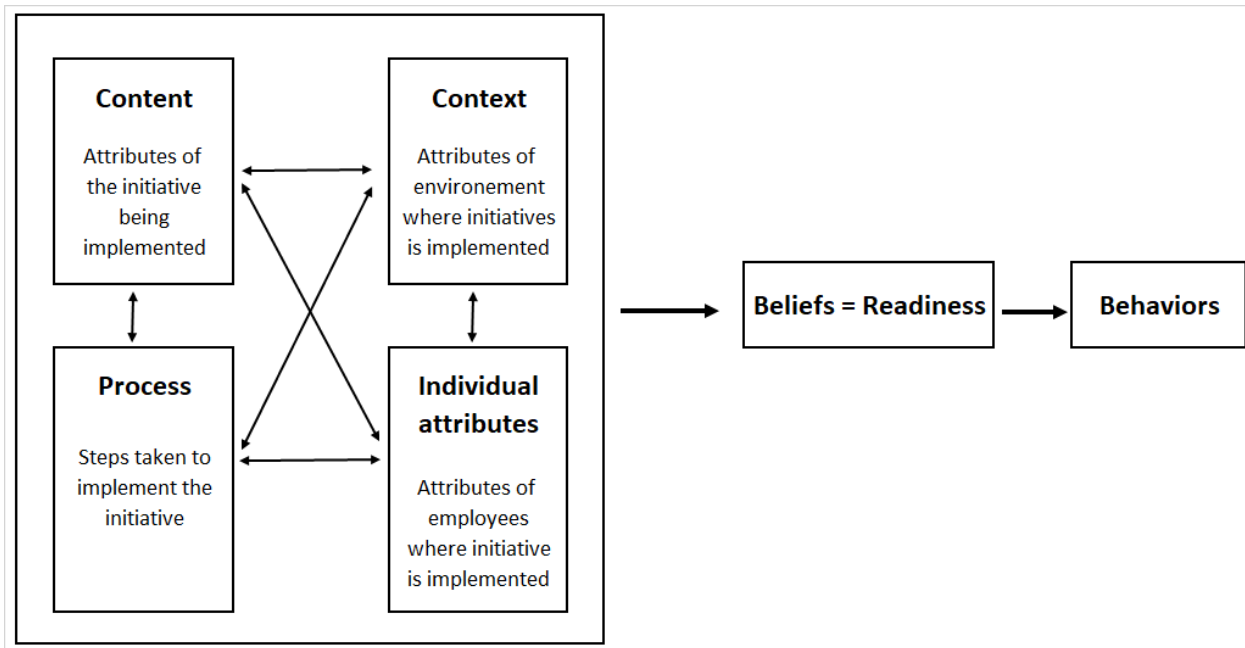


Figure 13: The Relationship between Content, Process, Context and Individual Attributes with Readiness

Source: Holt, D., Armenakis, A.A., Field, H.S., Harris, G.H. (2007), Readiness for Organizational Change The Systematic Development of a Scale, *The Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 43 (2), p.235

Armenakis et al. (1990, 2007) proposed a set of five key sentiments (beliefs) which are critical to encourage change readiness, adoption and institutionalization. Their study considered researchers and practitioners' works on planning, implementation and assessing change initiatives in the organizational literature starting from classical organizational change studies (Coch and French, 1948) and innovation diffusion (Ryan and Gross, 1943). Later they concluded that five beliefs were salient in explicating employees' reactions to change initiatives: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, principal support and valence.

Discrepancy explains the belief that there is a deviation from desired organizational performance and a need for change is urgent. Kotter's change steps (1995) refer to create a sense of urgency or performance gap for the acceptance of change initiatives by the change agents. Proper change strategies and tactics should be presented to illustrate this urgency to change. It is a necessity for change recipients to admit this need for their purposeful support and actions (Bandura, 1986; Rafferty and Griffin, 2006).

Appropriateness, on the other hand, is the belief that organization proposes an effective solution to the discrepancy to remedy it appropriately. Truly, employees could admit the need for change, but they should also believe that proposed change content is appropriate to overcome the performance gap. Corrective action in dissent depth of intervention ought to match the uniqueness of problematic situation (Bartunek et al, 2006; Rafferty and Griffin, 2006). Gagne, Koestner and Zuckerman (2000) supported this contention that employees could accept more easily change efforts if it was properly reasoned and not in directional form or fear.

Efficacy belief refers to the confidence an employee has in his/her own and organizational abilities to satisfactorily execute and cope with the organizational change (Herold, Fedor and Caldwell, 2007). Such an efficacy sense is in harmony with Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory that effort will end with performance, thus success is probable and Bandura's (1982) social learning theory in which new job requirements could be fulfilled if current capabilities create enough comfort beliefs that new ones could be easily learnt and implemented; thus employees could again feel competent prior to the change (McGuire and Hutchins, 2006). Efficacy feelings of employees about they have or will have knowledge and necessary abilities to fulfill the tasks demanded for organizational change will help them accept change (Armenakis, Brown and Mehta, 2011)

Principal Support is the belief of employees that organizational change is fully supported by employees' respected peers, leaders and employees' immediate superiors who are also motivated by change action for its success. Beliefs that leaders and respected colleagues are not seriously supporting the change blurred employees' beliefs for supporting the change. In line with social learning theory (Bandura, 1986); -employees are affected in terms of belief, behavior and attitude wise by interpersonal networks in the organization-, behavioral integrity theory (Simons, 2002) also questions consistency of a leader, word-deed synchronization over time, if he/she behaves as the way spoken (Armenakis et. al, 2007, p.488). Similarly, respected peers as a source of information have an influential role on employees' beliefs. It is observed that whether an employee is asked to change the behavior, s/he seeks for evidence that change agents (leaders) and opinion leaders (peers, colleagues) are also acting similarly for interacting support of the organizational change (Armenakis et al, 2007).

Lastly, valence holds the idea that organizational change on individual employee basis eventually leads to some personal gains or losses which Armenakis et al (2007) labeled as valence. It is the answer to the question “what benefit will I get out of this change’. It serves a function of intrinsic and extrinsic outcome. Herald et al (2007) and Fedor, Caldwell and Herold (2007) stated the role of valence and efficacy together to play a crucial role for employees’ commitment to change when they assess they benefit out of change and they have abilities to handle the change. Valence is a motivation factor originated in Vroom’s (1964) work and refers to perceived or real attractiveness of change efforts’ outcomes. Similarly, Bandura (1986) stated extrinsic incentives’ charming role for employees to change their behaviors until intrinsic values become discernable. Psychological contract theory (Rousseau, 1989) also combines extrinsic and intrinsic incentives in a similar approach. Valence as a practical way of assessment could be claimed to be an important beliefs of expected outcomes related with attitudes toward work changes (van Dam, 2005).

The framework is claimed to be operationalized in three phases of organizational change: the planning, implementation and institutionalization (Armenakis and Harris, 2009, Holt et al, 2007). However, five beliefs could not be weighted equally, some beliefs could play more important role than others (Cole et al, 2006; Varma and Harris, 2008; Harris and Gresch, 2008). Varma and Harris (2008) found principal support and valence as more powerful predictors in a merger case study while appropriateness and valence more powerful in a new organization. Harris and Gresch (2008) reported that appropriateness, valence and efficacy more related in one of their research and appropriateness and valence in one other study.

The change model where content, process, context and individual attributes are depicted is in line with five change beliefs. Factors forming each belief represented content with appropriateness, process with management support, individual attributes with self-efficacy and personal valence (Holt et al, 2007)

Since this study is employee-centric one in nature and the desire was to measure individual employee approach to organizational change, the similar concepts were also searched for understanding of the development of employees’ reactions to change. In this vein, some

concepts are evaluated in terms of employees' reaction and organizational change. Four concepts are reasoned that organizational change has something with reallocation of resources so employee perception of organizational justice should be related to how organizational change is implemented. The concepts to be considered are the employees' attitudes toward procedural and distributive justice, affective and normative change commitment. Armenakis et al (2007, p.498) found that OCRBs predict a significant amount of variance in procedural Justice (Daly and Geyer, 1994); distributive justice (Elkins and Phillips, 2000); affective change commitment (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; normative change commitment (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002).

Since explaining power of these concepts with OCRBs are quite significant, as a dependent variable, OCRBs scale is used in the dissertation. Moreover, OCRBs scale is a more practical and informative one in detecting employees' beliefs in five dimensions leading to their attitudes and behaviors at the end. Two concepts commitment to change and readiness for change will be briefly discussed below since they provide supporting ideas in the development of employees' change beliefs.

2.3.3. Related Concepts with OCRBs

Since organizational change recipients' beliefs have not been heavily used, similar concepts connoting it was studied for a better understanding of change beliefs. In this sense, affective and normative commitment to change and readiness for change were studied below. Readiness for change resembles in a great extent to OCRBs except for principal support sub-dimension.

2.3.3.1. Affective and Normative Commitment to Change

The definition of commitment to change by Conner (1992) is given as "the glue that provides the vital bond between people and change goals". Conner and Patterson (1982) defined it, as "the most prevalent factor contributing to failed change projects is a lack of commitment by

the employee". Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) described commitment to change, as a force mind-set that binds individuals to a course of action deemed necessary for the successful implementation of a change initiative. It is considered that commitment to change shows individuals' commitment through supporting behavior related to the successful implementation of an initiative (Topolnytsky, 2002).

Commitment to change can take different forms, which develop differently and reflects different applications for behavior. Herscovitch and Meyer (2002) classified commitment into three forms. Affective commitment to change was defined as an employee's belief in the value and importance of change initiative and desire to support the change. Continuance commitment to change was defined as an awareness of the costs associated with failing to support a change effort. Finally, normative commitment to change was defined as a perceived obligation to support the change (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002; Orth, 2002).

High levels of continuance commitment are likely to lead employees to perform only the compliance behaviors formally required to support change, but high levels of affective and normative commitment are more likely to be associated with cooperation and championing behaviors that characterize active support of change (Herscovitch and Meyer, 2002). Orth (2002), Topolnytsky (2002) conclude that employees who have high levels of affective or normative commitment to change are more willing to go beyond what is required of them to ensure that change is successful. Employees who are committed to implementing the change will be expected to adopt their behaviors to be consistent with the spirit of the change (Meyer and Herscovitch, 2001).

Affective and normative commitment are not designed to measure employees' beliefs to organizational change; they are designed to measure employees' behaviors. Armenakis et al.'s (2007) content analysis indicated that appropriateness and discrepancy beliefs were modestly related to affective and normative commitment and any questions in affective and normative commitment scales coincided with efficacy, valence and principal support.

2.3.3.2. Readiness for Change

According to Armenakis et al. (1993, p. 298), perception of readiness for change is defined as *“the cognitive precursor to the behaviors of either resistance to, or support of, a change effort”*.

Jones et al. (2005, p. 362) developed this concept and consider that readiness for change is *“the extent to which employees hold positive views about the need for organizational change (i.e. change acceptance), as well as the extent to which employees believe that such changes are likely to have positive implications for themselves and the wider organization”*.

While previous studies considered IRFC as a one-dimensional construct, Holt et al. (2007) defined IRFC as a multidimensional construct composed of: individuals' belief in their ability to carry out the proposed change (i.e. change-specific efficacy), management support for the change, appropriateness of the change, and personal benefit of the change (i.e. personal valence)

Holt et al (2007) developed an instrument at an individual level for gauging readiness for organizational change. The building block of this concept is Armenakis, Harris and Mossholder's (1993) model for change readiness that had been based on early change studies (Coch and French, 1948; Kotter, 1995; Kotter and Schlesinger, 1979). According to these studies. The greater the extent of employee participation on organizational change, the more they contributed to new production goals and some insight how to reduce resistance to change. They claimed that readiness was a precursor of employee readiness to change and their adoptive behaviors.

Jacobsen (1957) firstly introduced readiness concept. Van de Ven and Poole (1995) synthesized several disciplines on change theories and they stated that for a desired level change, conflict should be solved by aligning leadership concerns with employees' beliefs and cognitions, essentially by creating a readiness. Some scholars (Jones, Jimmieson and Griffith, 2005; Weeks, Roberts, Chonko and Jones, 2004) developed readiness scales using several perspectives such as change process and content, individual attributes. These perspectives

are change process with reference to steps by step implementation, change content referring initiatives introduced and their characteristics, organizational context in relation with organizational condition and environment and lastly individual attributes referred to different employee traits enabling them accept the change or avoid it.

Readiness to change scale is quite similar to OCRBs in sense that it contains 25 questions and four subscales of appropriateness (10 items), management support (6 items), change specific efficacy (6 items) and personally beneficial (3) items. Since readiness change concept is in line with OCRBs scale, OCRBs contains discrepancy, and respected peer support, OCRBs has been operationalized in this study. Figure 14 depicts the change readiness model for organizational change. The model presents a holistic picture with the basic elements to be included into change program to create readiness for change on individual and organizational level.

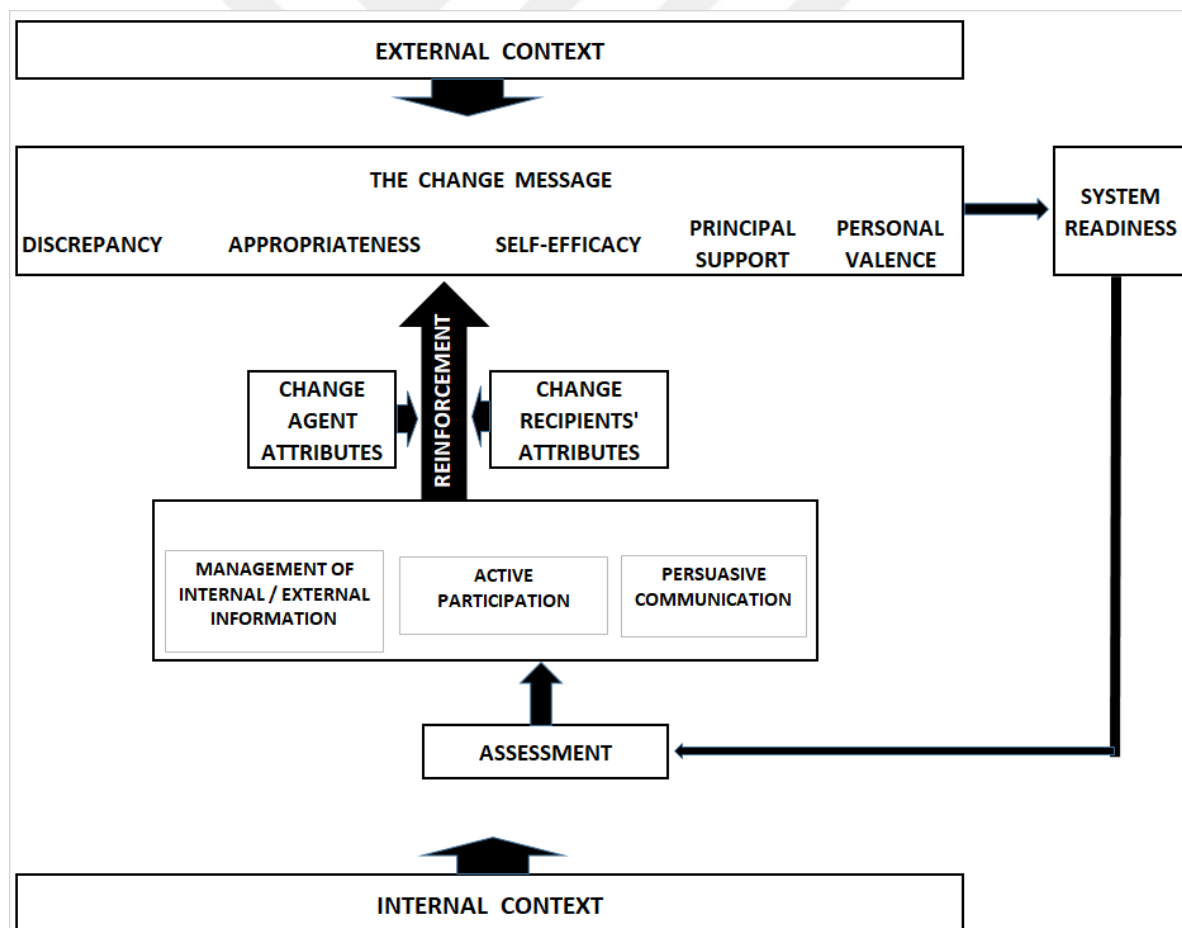


Figure 14: Readiness Model to Change

Source: Armenakis, Brown, Mehta (2011), Organizational Culture: Assessment and Transformation, **Journal of Change Management**, Vol.11, No.3, 305-328, p.308

Readiness model to change and OCRBs mostly consider employees' cognitive components that are assumed crucial for change readiness: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, valence and principal support. Nonetheless, affective components such as acceptance, annoyance, excitement, anger are also assumed one part of the picture in embracing change plans. Both of them determine the antecedents of overall attitudes toward change (Weiss, 2002; Rafferty et al., 2013)

2.4. Organizational culture and OCRBs Relationship

It is highly argued that failure in change initiatives is related with employees who do not have a readiness mindset aligned with organizational change (Bernerth, 2004; Sihk, 201). The literature review detailed the related concepts to understand the relationships between change recipients' beliefs, their readiness for change and organizational culture. Armenakis et al (2007) and Holt et al (2007a) contended that change is a broad construct with its connections of content, context, process and individualistic characteristics. Simply, what is being changed, what implementation is being done under which circumstances, all as a shared meta-construct represent a psychological state of an organization.

Choi and Ruona (2011) and Weiner (2009) argued organizational culture to be one of the most distinctive contextual factor in such that it helps increase or decrease employees' readiness for change. Thus, readiness beliefs namely organizational culture which forms affect appropriateness, discrepancy, efficacy, valence and principal support as embedded in employees' perceptions play a role effecting employees readiness for organizational change. (Armenakis et al., 1993; Weiner, 2009; Choi and Ruona, 2011; Eby et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2005). Moreover, organizational culture with its emphasis on employees could take impeding or assisting role toward employees' readiness for change and their commitment to change (Jones et al., 2005, Haffar et al., 2014, Olafsen, Nilsen, Smedsrud and Kamaric, 2020).

Oreg et al (2011), in their meta-analysis, determined organizational culture as organizational context factor which affects employees cognitive, attitudinal and emotional reactions to organizational change with their work related consequences such as organizational commitment, performance and personal consequences such as well-being and withdrawal. Jones et al (2005) found that change recipients' change readiness could be predicted if organizational cultural value system was properly aligned with organizational objectives and change vision. Their evidence suggested that employees perceiving supportive and participative culture reported high-level change readiness compared to other organizational culture dimensions. Similarly, perceived cultural fit between two merged companies was reported to be negatively related with stress out of change (Cartwright and Cooper, 1993). Newton (2007) reported evidence that organizational cultures emphasized on flexibility have more impact on employee adjustment and organizational change. In the same vein, an another study reported that flexible quadrants (Human Relations and Open System Cultures) of competing values framework (Cameron and Quinn, 2011) are more connected with employee adjustment with organizational change (Cunha and Cooper, 2002). They explained that flexible culture values such as involvement, communication and team spirit helped employees increase organizational change commitment leading to reduce stress and increase employees' well-being. Cameron and Quinn (2011) theorized group culture organizations with emphasis on human resources development, cohesion and morale, teamwork, participation, and consensus for the long term benefit of the organization. Employees of such organizations are expected to possess a higher degree of readiness by nature since the organization should have elaborated employees beliefs to demonstrate capability of implementing a proposed change and acting confidentially for performance and success due to adequate trainings and employees awareness level for discrepancy and appropriateness regarding the proposed change effort (Holt et al., 2007; Eby et al., 2000; Jones et al., 2005). On the other hand, the leader from organizations dominated by the market culture (Cameron and Quinn, 2011) emphasize more on market share than caring for employee morale or development. Employees of this kind of organizations could feel irritated when such change implementation occurs as they value it not suiting their valence and feel incompetent. Normally their beliefs are shaped negatively toward organizational change.

Thus, it can be concluded that the level of alignment among strategy, structure and technology is closely related with the organizational change implementation, effectiveness and performance (Lok et al, 2005). Smith and Graetz (2011) explained the importance of balance between flexible and control cultures for employee engagement and their contribution to organizational decision making through empowerment, learning and development strategies. Altogether, these cultural traits increase psychological readiness so that employees accept change endeavors and support. Santhidran et al (2013) pointed out the relationship between organizational commitment to change and change readiness. They stated the importance of leadership shaping the employees' change readiness by facilitating workplace culture to affect behaviors. Thus, change recipients' commitment to change pave the roads to successful organizational changes (Herscovich and Meyer, 2002).

2.5. Psychological Empowerment, Organizational Culture and OCRBs

Hofstede (2001) defines organizational culture as the collective programming of the mind that differentiates the members of one organization from the others. Organizational culture by the definition helps shape organizations and gives clear glues about complicated organizational factors such as employee empowerment (Johnson, 2009). Mallak and Kurstedt (1996) claimed that empowerment is closely related to the strength of the organizational culture. Their belief is further than participative management since it requires the internalization of organizational culture by the employees. Thus empowerment will vary according to the extent to which the organizational structure and culture inhibits and facilitates it (Honold, 1997; Appelbaum et al, 1999). The association between culture and psychological empowerment was firstly established by the research conducted on the aspects of contextual factors and employees' work behaviors where Spreitzer (1996) measured participative unit climate. Later, Quinn and Spreitzer (1997) identified four organizational cultural levers for integrating empowerment into organizational practice. Employee understanding of clear vision and challenge communicated by top management as management vision and organizational strategic direction that enable employees improve their capability to match the challenge. Secondly, openness and teamwork serves employees to feel themselves as a part of the organization

that is heavily emphasized by the corporate culture. The third lever is related with control and discipline providing empowered employees with clear goals, task responsibilities and lines of authority to assure that employees do not experience chaos. The fourth organizational culture lever for empowerment is a sense of social support from bosses and peers and security to reinforce employee initiatives. Empowering environment could be maintained by management's continuous dedication to all four levers. To be able to mention about psychological empowerment, employees could exercise a certain degree of control over organizational work lives (Spreitzer, 1995). Naturally, this condition necessitates an organization with a culture of employee participation with management emphasis on flexibility, autonomy and reward for participation. Such a culture leads to normally to employee empowerment (Seibert et al., 2011, Spreitzer, 2008)

Randolph (1995) stated that empowerment was related with the inner-state of employees, when practiced, empowerment frees employees' potential leading employees to make their contribution for their organizational roles. Similarly, Amabile (1988) emphasized the role of employees who are driven by self-determination and meaning, stating that this created motivation for employees for their creativity. Once it is met with competence and impact, employees thus further were empowered for implementing change and affecting organizational events. Adaptability culture form supports employees in terms of creativity and organizational learning in adapting environmental changes. In a study of mediation effect of empowerment between organizational culture and innovation performance (Ergün, E., 2018), it is reported that competing values framework's organizational culture dimensions of Clan, Market, Hierarchy and Adhocracy were related to empowerment ($\beta=0,116$ to $\beta=0,427$). The study also determined that only adhocracy culture supported innovation performance as being the most important predictors of innovation performance.

Psychological empowerment was associated with a bundle of employee positive behavioral outcomes such as job performance, OCB, organizational commitment, and task and contextual performance and change support behaviors (Choi, 2007; Spreitzer, 2008; Seibert et al., 2011). In some studies, employees' support for change was associated positively to constructs related to psychological empowerment including PE's sub dimensions such as self-efficacy (Cunningham et al., 2002; Herold et al., 2007) and perceived control (Fugate et al., 2002). Furthermore, psychological empowerment becomes more relevant when dealing with

changes is an integral part of one's job (Seibert et al., 2011). In the context of organizational changes, employees are often in position to determine how to adapt changes within their own jobs. Naturally, changes must be implemented effectively with empowered employees. The implications of beliefs about change discrepancy, appropriateness and support are configured in part by psychological empowerment linking its structural components. Since psychological empowerment can be strengthened by structural empowerment, psychological empowerment is injected and sustained by an appropriate match between employee competencies and job requirements (Laschinger et al., 2006), and letting employees with control in their work roles (Lawler, 1996). Spreitzer (2008) stated the role of participation in decision making as one of the factors to contribute to psychological empowerment such participation possibly contributes to beliefs about discrepancy and appropriateness beliefs. Similarly, the effectiveness of training and supportive leadership contribute to the development of PE (Seibert et al., 2011) and are possibly to be represented in beliefs regarding the support from management.

Lizar and Mandundjaya (2014) reported that psychological capital and psychological empowerment both positively affected individual readiness for change. Their study also highlighted that the impact of psychological empowerment (41.8%) on individual readiness for change showed impact more than psychological capital (34.1%). Some studies researched the sub dimensions of psychological empowerment for change. Prochaska et al. (1997) stated that the perceived competence to manage organizational change, namely self-efficacy influenced the relationship between organizational change and employee readiness for change. Armenakis et.al (1993) and Bandura (1982) similarly commented that employees with inner competence should help cope with organizational change and possibly contribute to organizational change endeavors. In a study in which psychological and behavioral relations was searched with health care employees' participation, Cunningham et al. (2002) reported that strengthening employees' perception of change-self efficacy together with participation and active problem- solving methods increased employees commitment to redesign reducing their stress level. Similarly, Wanberg and Banas (2000) claimed that individual readiness to change was related to self-efficacy, a sense of control, optimism and self-esteem. Miller and Rollnick (2013) used self-efficacy as a central construct in the use of motivational interviewing as an approach to change individuals' behaviors. The meaning sub-dimension of PE was

claimed to arouse affective commitment to organizational change since it measured the match between work role demands and employees' values and needs (Kristof-Brown et al, 2005; Spreitzer, 1995b). From same token, self-determination, impact and competence could be invoking employees' commitment to their organizations, since these traits help employees to feel enhanced self-value and increase toward their jobs.



3. Research Methodology

This section illustrates the conceptual model, the scope of the research and developed hypotheses. The data collection, the determinant of the samples. The statistical methods used in the analyses are also explained in this section.

3.1. The research model of the Study

Below figure depicts the dissertation's research model.

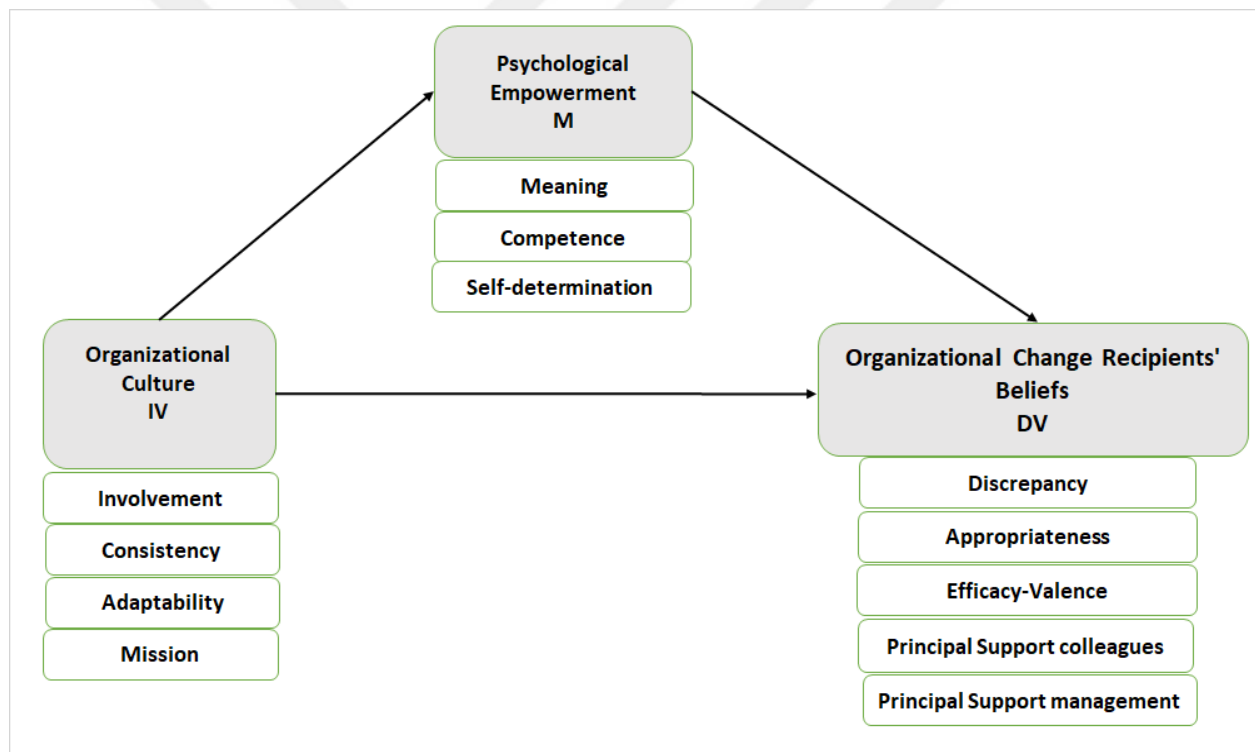


Figure 15: Research Model

3.2. Research Hypothesis and Questions

This study tends to understand deeply the effect of psychological empowerment role with organizational culture and organizational employees' beliefs on change. For answering this question, methodologically three other questions raise:

1. Do organizational cultures have a significant impact on employees' beliefs on change?
2. Is there any differentiation for different organizational culture dimensions and different types of beliefs?
3. To what extent psychological empowerment will influence this relationship?
4. Are all employees' beliefs influenced by different typologies of organizational culture?

The main purpose of this dissertation is to deeply understand relationships among OC, PE and OCRBs through examining the survey instruments' sub-dimension, before doing so, it is important to determine overall profiles effects on each conceptual construct (Figure 16). Both similar organizational culture frameworks; culture competing values framework (CVF) and Denison organizational framework emphasize combined roles of four cultural traits. Quinn (1988) contended that organizations with cultural balance had advantages to overcome environmental changes. Similarly, Denison (1990; Fey and Denison, 2003) claimed that measuring of highly combined four cultural traits in organizations would eventually lead to high performance and balanced cultural combination could succeed internal integration and simultaneously external adaptation as an indication of effective organization.

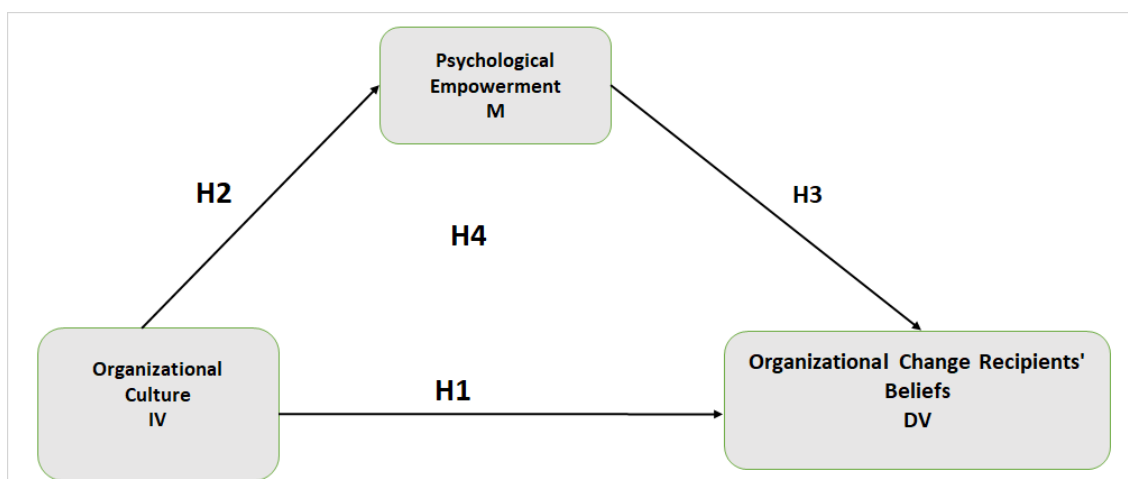


Figure 16: Main Hypotheses

Despite the scarcity of research on organizational culture's role on employees change beliefs or similar concept of Internal Readiness for Change (IRFC), different scholars reported some mixed results for this relationship. Jones et al. (2005) reported the influence of group and adhocracy culture types representing flexible cultures on IRFC where flexible cultures showed a positive relationship with employees' readiness for change and their support for continuous change for governmental organizations in Australia. Tsalits and Kismonu (2019) reported no difference between flexible and stable organizational cultures for employees' internal change readiness beliefs with positive direction in a family organization in Indonesia. Haffar et al. (2013) from Syria referred to positive association of clan and adhocracy cultures with IFRC and negative relationship between market culture and IFRC and non-existence of relationship with hierarchy culture in the survey of manufacturing companies. Again, Haffar et. al (2014) in their study of IRFC mediation between organizational culture and TQM implementation reported that clan and adhocracy cultures to be positively related to IFRC sub-dimensions of personal valence and change-self efficacy while market culture and hierarchy cultures were negatively related with valence. Market culture was negatively related with efficacy and non-existence of relation between hierarchy and efficacy. Olafsen, Nilsen, Smedsrud and Kamaric (2020) observed in their study from a Norwegian public agency flexible organizational culture more than stable culture was positively related with change commitment and the authors reported this was partly because of valence and efficacy sub-dimensions of IRFC framework. In the study, they observed that flexible cultures were positively related to change self-efficacy and negatively related to personal valence. Stable culture was only positively related with change self-efficacy while stable culture and personal valence was not statistically significant. Lastly, the research from South Korea, Jeong, Kim, Kim and Zhang (2019) reported that organizational culture (CVF) and its sub-dimensions; clan, adhocracy and market cultures were positively related with OCB and OC was an indicator of OCB. Thus, this study claims that:

H1: There is a relationship between organizational culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs.

For deeper understanding of the relation, the second step of hypotheses development introduces sub-dimensions into the picture. So, each culture type has been operationalized with OCRBs and with its sub-dimensions for follow-up of the first step:

H1.1: There is a relationship between involvement culture and OCRBs

H1.2: There is a relationship between consistency culture and OCRBs

H1.3: There is a relationship between adaptability culture and OCRBs.

H1.4: There is a relationship between mission culture and OCRBs.

There is quite a few studies searching the relationship of organizational culture and psychological empowerment. The ones that investigated the relationship reported mixed results. Ahadi, Suandi, Ismail and Omar (2011) researched the effect of organizational culture on psychological empowerment of academicians in Research Universities. They reported that clan culture played an important role predicting autonomy and clan culture played a predictable role for impact. Despite no significant relationship was found between adhocracy culture and impact, adhocracy culture showed high-level predictive role on self-efficacy. Hierarchy culture did not demonstrate significant relationship with psychological empowerment sub-dimensions. Bolat, Bolat and Yüksel, (2016) investigated the moderating effect of psychological empowerment on servant leadership and organizational culture in two manufacturing companies in Turkey. They observed that clan culture had a significant effect on psychological empowerment while there was a decreasing but significant effect on hierarchy culture. Lee (2016) surveyed the relationship among organizational culture, psychological empowerment and organizational effectiveness among fashion companies in South Korea. According to demonstrated table, group and innovative cultures had positive statistically significant relations with sub-dimensions competence and meaning of psychological empowerment. In addition, self-determination showed associations with innovative and rational culture while impact was positively influenced by group culture and rational culture. Lastly, Ergün (2018) investigated the mediating role of empowerment between organizational culture and innovative performance on the manufacturing companies operating in one of industrial district of Turkey. The study showed support for the significant relationships between empowerment and clan culture, market culture and hierarchy culture where clan culture was the most significant. However, adhocracy culture was found not to be related with empowerment. The author found adhocracy culture as the sole predictor of innovative performance.

Thus, the second hypothesis claims that organizational culture is associated with psychological empowerment.

H2: There is a relationship between organizational culture and psychological empowerment.

Since the study focuses on closer look into the relationships, the second step of hypothesis 2 investigates involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission cultures' association with psychological empowerment. Sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment (meaning, competence and self-determination) were also conducted in correlation and regression analyses.

H2.1 There is a relationship between involvement culture and psychological empowerment

H2.2: There is a relationship between consistency culture and psychological empowerment.

H2.3: There is a relationship between adaptability culture and psychological empowerment.

H2.4: There is a relationship mission culture and psychological empowerment.

Psychological empowerment has been conceptualized referring that it is a necessity for individual employees' own control feelings about their work. The central argument has been assumed to be prevailing for change recipients' beliefs for organizational change in the next hypothesis development. Despite there has been scant research on this particular relationship, there are some supporting studies. Lizar et al. (2015) searched for the role of psychological empowerment and psychological capital on individual readiness for change in a governmental construction company. The results revealed that psychological empowerment regressed positively with individual readiness for change more than psychological capital. Although they see psychological empowerment and change readiness beliefs' roles from a different angle (change readiness beliefs legitimacy - appropriateness, necessity - discrepancy and value – valence help development of employees' psychological empowerment), Morin, Myer, Bélanger, Boudrias, Gagné and Parker (2016) in their longitudinal study from consortium of health-care organizations in Canada reported that psychological empowerment, change readiness beliefs and affective commitment to change are

interrelated concepts and concluded that these relations have top-down and bottom-up consequences in implementing changes for both legitimizing change process and also empowering employees with managerial efforts. Seibert et al. (2011), on the other hand reported that psychological empowerment was positively related with organizational commitment and OCB. Thus, the third hypothesis highlights the relationship between psychological empowerment and its sub-dimensions (meaning, competence and self-determination) with organizational change recipients' beliefs and with its sub-dimensions: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy-valence, principal support management and principal support colleagues.

H3: There is a relationship between psychological empowerment and organizational change recipients' beliefs.

The fourth hypothesis claims that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between organizational culture types (involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission) with OCRBs and with its sub-dimensions: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy-valence, principal support management and principal support colleagues.

H4: Psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between organizational culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs.

H4.1 PE mediates the relationship between involvement culture and OCRBs

H4.2 PE mediates the relationship between consistency culture and OCRBs

H4.3 PE mediates the relationship between adaptability culture and OCRBs

H4.4 PE mediates the relationship between mission culture and OCRBs

Below table summarizes dissertation hypotheses. (Table 1).

Table 1: Summary of Hypotheses

IV --> DV			
Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
H1			
H1.1	H1.2	H1.3	H1.4
Discrepancy Appropriateness Efficacy-Valence Principal Support colleagues Principal Support management			
IV --> M			
Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
H2			
H2.1	H2.2	H2.3	H2.4
Meaning Competence Self-determination			
M --> DV			
Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
H3			
H3.1	H3.2	H3.3	H3.4
Discrepancy Appropriateness Efficacy-Valence Principal Support colleagues Principal Support management			
IV --> M --> DV			
Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
H4			
H4.1	H4.2	H4.3	H4.4
Discrepancy Appropriateness Efficacy-Valence Principal Support colleagues Principal Support management			
Meaning Competence Self-determination			

3.3. Sampling Procedures and Data Collection

Participants in this study are employed in various private sector hospital groups in Turkey. The hospital groups were rapidly developing and one of them was under top management change due to new foreign investment company. The respondents varied from doctors, managers, nurses and administrative staff. The study did not restrict participants with doctors and nurses as health sector connotes at first sight. Staff with all departments and rank employed were included into the study.

The online questionnaire consisted of 79 questions was administered via online survey company, with the notification to preserve the privacy of the information provided. The first section (Questions 1-7 – Appendix A) contained the general and demographic questions about participants' gender, age, educational level, working period in current organization, total work experience, current position and department .

In the second part, the participants answered questions for survey instruments for Organizational Culture (OC), Psychological Empowerment (PE) and Organizational Change recipients' Beliefs (OBRBs) (Appendices B, C, and D). The responses to scales' items were scored on a Likert scale ranging from 1 (strongly disagree), 2 (disagree), 3 (neither disagree nor agree), 4 (agree) and 5 (strongly agree). Assessment of rating interval results out of Likert scale indicates as such: 1,00 – 1,79 / very low; 1,80 – 2,59 / low; 2,60 – 3,39 / medium; 3,40 – 4,19 / high and 4,20 – 5,00 / very high (Tezbaşaran, 2008).

Total 920 people answered the online questionnaire; 646 fully completed answers out of 920 are operationalized in the analyzes (complete response rate= (70, 2%)

3.4. Measurement Instruments

This study used three self-report scales to measure the model proposed.

The organizational culture was measured by Denison Organizational Culture scale developed by Denison and Mishra (1995). The original questionnaire (Denison and Mishra, 1995) contains 60 questions and consists of four quadrants, each representing one cultural dimension – mission, adaptability, involvement and consistency. The quadrants are divided into two broad dimensions; horizontally stability versus flexibility on the horizontal axis and vertically internal versus external on the vertical axis. Each organizational culture traits consists of three subscales each having five questions. So total four culture traits are measured by sixty questions. The organizational Culture scale has been operationalizing commercially by Denison Consulting Company. For avoiding survey fatigue (Gosling, Rentfrow and Swann, 2003), this study used a shorter version scale (Yahyagil, 2004) with 36 questions (each culture trait is measured by three sub-culture dimensions with total nine questions. Yahyagil (2004) provided the construct validity and reliability of the 36-items Turkish version. In the study, overall reliability – Cronbach Alpha- was measured as 0, 89 and for involvement (0, 67), consistency (0, 76), adaptability (0, 61) and mission (0, 82). See Appendix B for organizational culture scale.

The psychological empowerment scale is applied to measure mediation effect. The psychological empowerment scale was developed by Sprietzer (1995b) stemming from Thomas and Velthouse's (1990) four basic dimensions of the empowerment construct namely meaning, competence, self-determination and impact. In the original scale development study, Speitzer measured it applying it to industrial and insurance sample. She measured Cronbach's alpha as 0.72 for industrial group and 0.62 for insurance group in her empirical validation.

The construct validity and reliability of Psychological Empowerment in Turkish in different studies demonstrated strong Cronbach alpha power. Uner and Turan (2010), who this thesis used their translation, measured and validated the scale applying it to physicians and nurses. The Cronbach's Alpha was calculated as 0.88 for physicians and 0.83 for nurses for the total scale and for the sub scales as (meaning 0.86; competence 0.89; self-determination 0.81;

impact 0.93 for nurses and meaning 0.90; competence 0.92; self-determination 0.84; impact 0.94 for physicians. See Appendix C for the psychological empowerment scale.

The organizational change recipients' beliefs is used to measure dependent variable (Armenakis et al, 2007). Since this scale has not been used in Turkey in order to adopt the original scale into Turkish, translation, expert committee assessments, back translation and a pilot application steps were followed.

Armenakis et al (2007) developed the scale for the measurement of basic beliefs in organizational change period. The original scale consists of 5 sub-scales and 24 questions. Discrepancy, Appropriateness, Efficacy and Valence include questions and principal support consists of six questions. The coefficient alpha for discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, principal support, valence and overall scale were measured for three different groups; Medical group as 0.92, 0.95, 0.86, 0.87, 0.90 and 0.94 ; for Product Manufacturer as 0.89, 0.89, 0.76, 0.75, 0.82, and 0.90; for Public Safety Organization as 0.70, 0.92, 0.76, 0.69, 0.78 and 0.92, respectively.

3.5. The Evaluation of the Research Findings

3.5.1. Statistical Analyses

This part identifies the statistical methods applied to the analyses. A cross-sectional survey methodology was employed to analyze 646 survey responses. For providing evidence of construct validity and to purify the dimensionality of the measurement scales, exploratory and confirmatory factor analyzes are used for scales' components validity. Orthogonal varimax rotation method was chosen for the scale analysis. Internal consistency for each scale is questioned by using Chronbach's Alpha.

Descriptive statistics for survey instruments with means and standard deviations were submitted. ANOVA and T-tests were applied to evaluate whether the groups are significantly different or not. If different, post-hoc tests were applied to distinguish which group was

differentiated from each other. Pearson correlation and regression analyzes were applied to test the relationship among survey variables. For reporting and avoiding multicollinearity problem, VIF factor was measured in the analyses. VIF greater than 10 would indicate multicollinearity problem (Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko, 2013). For measuring and avoiding autocorrelation for independence of errors, Durbin-Watson test was implied in analysis. The measurement should be between 1,5 and 2,5 (Kalaycı, 2014).

Hypotheses were evaluated on the basis of Baron and Kenny's formulation of mediation using regression analyses in SPSS. Structural equation modeling was used to test CFA, research model verification and model regression.

Since SPSS and AMOS analyses used both, first order and second order scales, confirmatory factor analyses were applied to first and second order scales.

For evaluating the statistical significance of confirmatory factor analyses and structural equation model analyses for involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission some goodness of fit indices were considered. Since there is not any single significant test that comprehensively define a model to suit the data, multiple criteria must be used simultaneously to assess model fit (Hooper, Coughlan and Mullen, 2008; Marsh, Hau, Wen, 2004). There seems to be a prevailing academic debate about which goodness of fit indices must be reported (Hu and Bentler, 1998)

The proposal of some pioneer scholars (Hu and Bentler, 1998; Kline, 2016) coincide for the following indices to be used simultaneously in reporting the results: Chi-square test - χ^2 and its p-value, CFI – Comparative Fit Index, RMSEA – Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, SRMR – Standardized Root Mean Square Residual. Jackson, Gillespie and Purc-Stephenson (2009) stated that GFI – Goodness of Fit Index would be included into this list. Therefore, acceptable limits for these indices are as follow:

Table 2 : SEM Fitness Indices

Goodness of Fit Indices (GOF)	Good Fit	Acceptable	abbreviation
X / df	0 - 3	0 - 5	CMIN / df
Comparative F,t Index	0,95 - 1	0,90 - 1	CFI
Goodness of Fit Index	0,95 - 1	0,85 or 0,90 - 1	GFI
Standardized Root Meaan Square Residual	< 0,05	< 0, 08 or 0,10	SRMR
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation	< 0,06	< 0,08	RMSEA

Source: Hu, L.T., and Bentler, P.M. (1998), Fit Indices in Covariance Structure modeling: Sensitivity to under parameterized model misspecification, *Psychological Methods*, 3, 434–463; Schermelleh-Engel, K., Moosbrugger, H., Müller, H. (2003) ,Evaluating the Fit of Structural Equation Models: Tests of Significance and Descriptive Goodness-of-Fit Measures ,*Methods of Psychological Research Online* 2003, Vol.8, No.2, pp. 23-74;Gürbüz, S. (2019), Amos ile Yapısal Eşitlik Modellemesi, Seçkin Akademik ve Sosyal Yayınlar, p. 34

Mediation Analysis

The basic question of this dissertation is to understand if psychological empowerment plays a significant role between organizational culture traits and organizational change recipients' beliefs. To test these relationships, firstly direct relationships between organizational culture traits and change recipients association were measured with regression analyses. Then, hierarchical regression analyses were conducted.

Mediation analysis is a statistical method, which assess evidence from data to test hypotheses if some causal antecedent variables transfer their effects on dependent variable (Hayes, 2018). Figure 17 depicts simple cause and effect relationship and a basic mediation effect applied into the dissertation variables. In the mediation model, there are two consequent variables Y and M and two antecedent variables X and M. The model proposes how causal variable X influences outcome variable Y by a single mediator M. The independent variable affects dependent variable following two paths: directly from X to Y (direct effect) and through M to Y (indirect effect). Thus mediating variable is an intervening variable that helps to understand the relationship between independent and dependent variables though it.

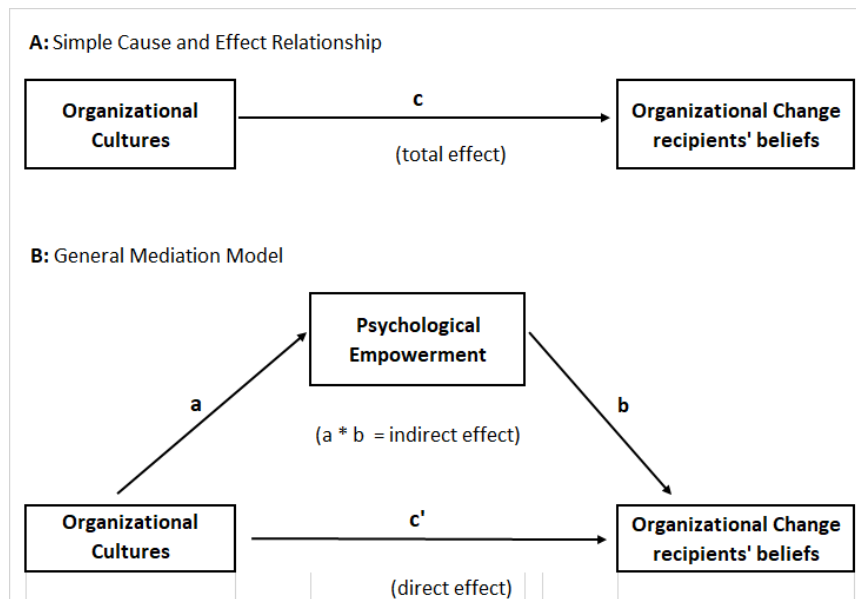


Figure 17: Simple Cause and Effect Relationship and Mediation

In Figure 17, simple cause and effect relationship is labeled as c pathway directly from X to Y showing X effect on Y. “c” represents the total effect. In the mediation model, the effect of X to Y is transmitted through M. “a” pathway states the effect of X on M and M effect on Y is stated as “b” pathway. Indirect effect is represented by “a * b”. When mediator variable is included into the model, the effect of X to Y is labeled as “c’ ” pathway and direct effect.

According to Baron and Kenny (1986), a variable functions as a mediator when it meets the following conditions:

1. The independent variable significantly explains variations in the dependent variable (Path c)
2. The independent variable significantly explains variations in the mediator (Path a),
3. The mediator variable significantly affects the variations in the dependent variable (Path b), and when Paths a and b considered together, a previously significant relation between the independent and dependent variables is no longer significant (full mediation) with the strongest representation of mediation when Path c is zero, or still significant to a certain level (partial mediation)

3.5.2. Reliability and Validity of the Research Instruments

This part consists of exploratory factor analyses and confirmatory factor analyses. Among many usage of EFA, the main purpose is to reduce large amount of variables into a smaller and manageable numbers to explain the original variance of an instrument development stage in an explorative manner (Conway and Huffcutt, 2003). There is no interpreting attempt of an existing verified instrument. EFA is assumed to produce an extra and nonreplicable factor. EFA results for the same instrument can be varied because of some different reasons such as due to real differences, sampling errors, use of different rules and procedures. EFA tries to answer the underlying processes producing correlation among the variables.

Firstly, the factorability of all scales was controlled. It is mostly recommended to get values higher than 0, 5. Similarly, Bartlett's test of sphericity should be $p < ,05$. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin test (KMO) pictured an adequate sample size for the analyzes (KMO = ,959 with $p < ,05$). This indicates that the variables are related enough to conduct an effective EFA.

By construct, CFA evaluate sampling error better than EFA, thus it produces accurate number of factors and assign variables onto right factors. If the expected results would be different from real population differences, CFA could catch it by lack of fit (Conway and Huffcutt, 2003). Thus, CFA is related with theory testing (Tabachnick and Fidelli, 2016). CFA answers if correlation among variables are consistent with assumed factor structure. CFA concerns mostly whether formerly developed instruments with sound construct background match well with the data surveyed.

Since SPSS and AMOS analyses will be used both, first order and second order scales, confirmatory factor analyses will be implied to first and second order scales. In the first order CFA, the lower level variables are error-containing observed variables out of questionnaire. In the second order CFA, the lower level variables are themselves latent variables, that has to say they have effects on their observed indicators. In terms of both orders, the latent variables remain the same with regard to their dimensionality. The first order CFAs will be used in the analyzes, however their second order versions will be added to the appendix for comparison

purposes. The reason for using first-order model can be explained that factors alone could generate more accurate information for the understanding the relationships among variables. Both first-order and second-order CFA models were measured for assurance of scales' reliability and dimensionality, since both order scales were operationalized in the study. Second-order results were given in related parts. Tables and figures were submitted in Appendix F and M 1-2-3.

3.5.2.1. Organizational Culture Scale

For EFA analysis for the Turkish version of Organizational Culture, firstly all items' reliability and construct validity analysis were conducted. Four dimensions with 36 questions yielded Cronbach Alpha as, 960 value. In the analysis, seven items were excluded from the scale because of low factor loads. Involvement (IT1, IT3); Consistency (CV3 and CI3), Adaptability (AF3) and Mission (MS3 and MV1). The repeated analysis without these items for involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission culture dimensions' factor and reliability analyses highlight very good acceptance results. Table 3 lists KMO and Cronbach values. After exploratory factor analysis Cronbach Alpha and KMO values were calculated as 0, 970 and 0, 972 respectively. Appendix E submits OC scale reliability analysis for culture traits, Cronbach Alpha results with more details.

Table 3: Organizational Culture Exploratory Factor and Reliability analysis

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
OC	0,972	62,39	0,97
			Factor Load
Mission Culture		26,65	
Leaders have a long-term viewpoint			0,777
There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work			0,711
We are able to meet short-term demands without compromising our long-term vision			0,631
There is a long-term purpose and direction			0,707
The leadership has "gone on record" about the objectives we are trying to meet			0,705
There is widespread agreement about goals			0,508
People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run			0,503
Adaptability Culture		23,456	
Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes			0,67
We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment			0,654
The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change			0,63
Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded			0,611
We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement			0,58
We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment			0,574
Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work			0,544
All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs			0,54
Consistency Culture		6,285	
The leaders and managers "practice what they preach"			0,766
There is a "strong" culture			0,754
There is a clear and consistent set of values that governs the way we do business			0,677
People from different parts of the organization share a common perspective			0,574
It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues			0,564
When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve "win-win" solutions			0,554
It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the company			0,521
Involvement Culture		6,003	
Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when			0,754
Capability of people is constantly improving			0,732
Teams are our primary building blocks			0,71
Business planning is ongoing and involves everyone in the process to some degree			0,654
Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own			0,609
Most employees are highly involved in their work			0,605
There is continuous investment in the skills of employees			0,54

Approx. Chi-Square = 16452,54; df=630; significant $p < 0,001$

Original Organizational Culture instrument contains 60 questions and for each organizational culture trait, it has 15 questions. Since the dissertation survey contained already 79 questions, for avoiding survey fatigue, the short version used. This is one of the limitation of this

dissertation. However, EFA and CFA values are quite satisfactory and original survey instrument had been heavily operationalized for measuring organizational effectiveness mostly and content validity of the original survey is heavily operationalized academically and trade wise. Following CFA analysis was conducted to confirm the short version.

Organizational Culture scale with its four major sub-scales each having three factors with three items totally thirty-six items was measured firstly to identify CFA values for its first-order form that was used in the proposed model. CFA analysis including deleted items were showed the same results for deleted items. Six questions were eliminated in EFA analysis. IT3 question for involvement culture was not eliminated because of its high factor load on involvement culture. One question from adaptability culture; AO3 organizational learning did not survive in CFA analysis. Thus, total seven items were taken out from the organizational culture scale. The items are involvement culture team orientation IT1, consistency culture core values CV3 and coordination and integration CI3, adaptability culture customer focus AF3, organizational learning AO3, mission culture strategic direction and intend MS3 and vision MV1. The statistical and goodness of fit indices showed acceptable values such as $X^2 = 1435.055$; $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 3,900$; GFI = ,843; CFI = ,927; RMSEA = ,067; SRMR = ,0414. Table 4 and Figure 18 demonstrate first-order CFA values of OC scale.

Table 4: CFA of First-order Organizational Culture Scale

	Standard Estimate	p
Involvement Culture - INV		
Business planning is ongoing and involves everyone in the process to some degree	0,777	***
Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it is needed	0,691	***
Most employees are highly involved in their work	0,642	***
Teams are our primary building blocks	0,706	***
Work is organized so that each person can see the relationship between his or her job and the goals of the organization	0,776	***
Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own	0,803	***
Capability of people is constantly improving	0,829	***
There is continuous investment in the skills of employees	0,816	***
Consistency Culture - CON		
The leaders and managers “practice what they preach”	0,778	***
There is a clear and consistent set of values that governs the way we do business	0,832	***
When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve “win-win” solutions	0,733	***
There is a “strong” culture	0,844	***
It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues	0,841	***
People from different parts of the organization share a common perspective	0,788	***
It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the company	0,818	***
Adaptability Culture - ADP		
The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change	0,72	***
We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment	0,782	***
We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment	0,837	***
Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes	0,62	***
All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs	0,659	***
We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement	0,727	***
Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded	0,747	***
Mission Culture - MIS		
There is a long-term purpose and direction	0,732	***
There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work	0,808	***
There is widespread agreement about goals	0,772	***
The leadership has “gone on record” about the objectives we are trying to meet	0,835	***
People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run	0,688	***
Leaders have a long-term viewpoint	0,829	***
We are able to meet short-term demands without compromising our long-term vision	0,722	***

*** p < ,001

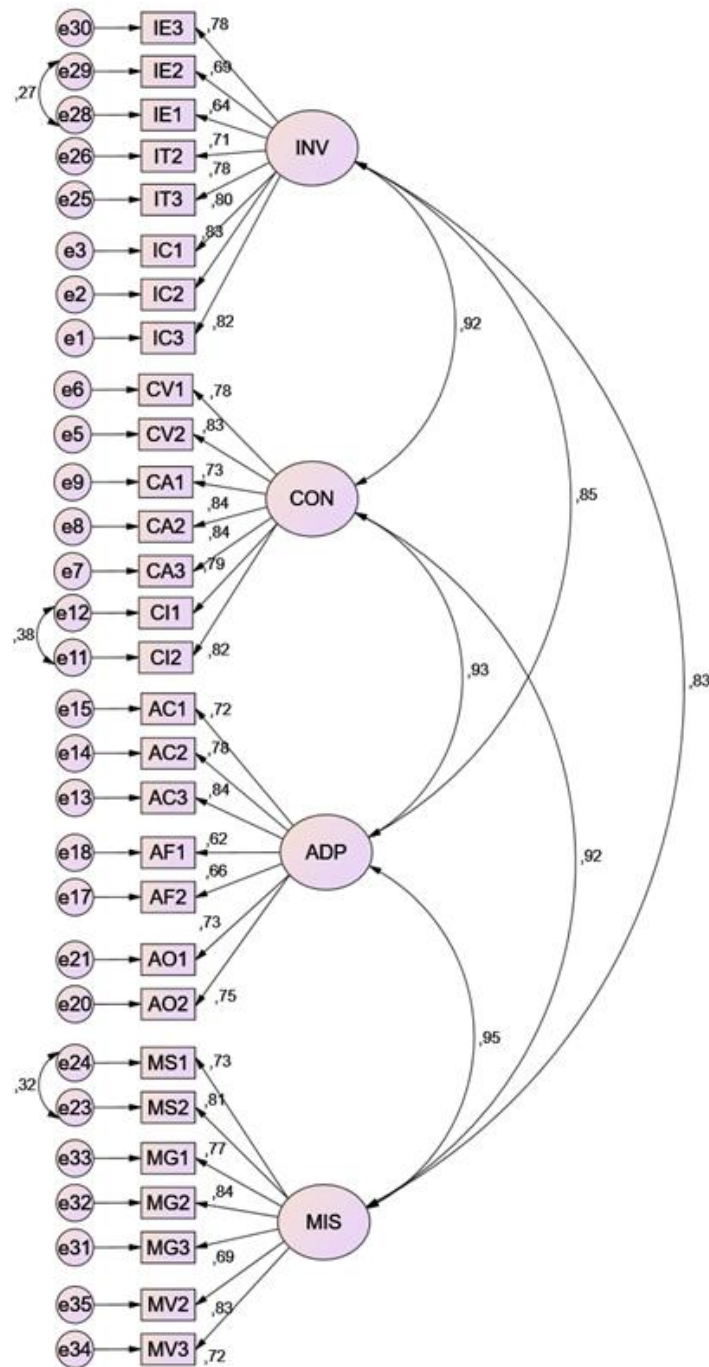


Figure 18: CFA of First-order Organizational Culture Scale

Second-order CFA model of organizational culture scale was analyzed for sub-factors reliability assurance. In the analysis, as it was its first-order CFA model, the similar items did not survive and were taken out from the analysis: involvement culture team orientation IT1, consistency

culture core values CV3 and coordination and integration CI3, adaptability culture customer focus AF3, organizational learning AO3, mission culture strategic direction and intend MS3 and vision MV1. The statistical and goodness of fit indices showed acceptable values: $\chi^2 = 1339,476$; $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 3,731$; GFI = ,851; CFI = ,933; RMSEA = ,065; SRMR = ,0408. Table 11 and Figure 18 demonstrate second-order CFA values of OC scale. Please see Appendix M/1-2-3 (without culture traits' sub-dimensions) for 2nd order OC CFA Analysis Table and Figure.

3.5.2.2. Psychological Empowerment Scale

In this analysis, the factorability of psychological empowerment was conducted for 12 items and four dimensions. KMO was measured as 0,862 with significant Bartlett's test of sphericity ($P < 0,000$) so the result supports factor analysis. All items loaded on their original dimension. The factors were listed in Table 5. The scale explained 82, 67 percent variance in total. The Cronbach's Alpha was also significant as 0,877.

Table 5: Psychological Empowerment Factor and Reliability Analysis

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
PE	0,862	82,67%	0,877
			factor load
Meaning (MEA)		21,20%	
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.			0,888
The work I do is meaningful to me.			0,872
The work I do is very important to me.			0,813
Competence (COM)		21,25%	
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.			0,854
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.			0,839
I am confident about my ability to do my job.			0,824
Self-determination (SLDT)		20,16%	
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.			0,821
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.			0,82
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.			0,81
Impact (IMP)		19,064	
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.			0,907
I have significant influence over what happens in my department.			0,884
My impact on what happens in my department is large.			0,745
Approx. Chi-Square = 8170, 770; df = 66; Significant p< 0,001			

The first order multi-factor PE scale consisting of four factors and twelve questions was tested initially with confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 25 version. Only impact question Im1 (My impact on what happens in my department is large) did not survive because of low factor load value. P values were <.001 significant at 95% confidence. CFA results were listed in the Table 6. The goodness of fit indices from CFA ($X^2 = 98,023$; $p < .001$; $x^2/df = 2,649$; CFI = ,973; RMSEA = ,051; SRMR = ,0347) demonstrates that the scale was appropriate with the data and in acceptable limits. These results show the scale was conformed. Figure 19 depicts the scale after CFA.

Table 6: CFA of First-order PE with Standardized Regression Weights

Competence (COM)	Standard Estimate	p
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	0,884	***
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	0,898	***
I am confident about my ability to do my job.	0,911	***
Self-determination (SLDT)		
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	0,808	***
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	0,82	***
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	0,755	***
Meaning (MEA)		
The work I do is very important to me.	0,961	***
The work I do is meaningful to me.	0,931	***
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	0,802	***
Impact (IMP)		
I have significant influence over what happens in my department.	0,928	***
I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.	0,867	***

*** p < 0,001

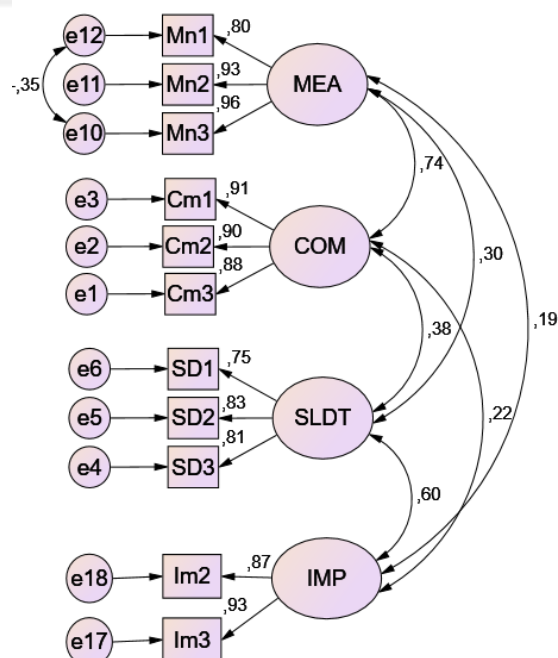


Figure 19: First-order PE Scale

The next step for the CFA was to measure psychological empowerment in its second-order model. The CFA analysis was reached χ^2/df value (6,697) which was higher than 5 of acceptable limit. To be on the agreed margins, the least explaining sub-factor impact was excluded. Total explaining power for psychological empowerment in overall proposed model remained the same after impact exclusion. The goodness of fit indices for second-order CFA ($X^2 = 83,486$; $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 3,630$; $GFI = .972$; $CFI = .986$; $RMSEA = .064$; $SRMR = .0380$) showed strong fit within the acceptable limits. Table 7 and Figure 20 list the second-order CFA results.

Table 7: Second-order CFA of PE Standardized Regression Weights

Competence (COM)	Standard Estimate	p
I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.	0,884	***
I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.	0,898	***
I am confident about my ability to do my job.	0,911	***
Self-determination (SLDT)		
I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.	0,808	***
I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.	0,82	***
I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.	0,755	***
Meaning (MEA)		
The work I do is very important to me.	0,961	***
The work I do is meaningful to me.	0,931	***
My job activities are personally meaningful to me.	0,802	***

*** $p < 0,001$

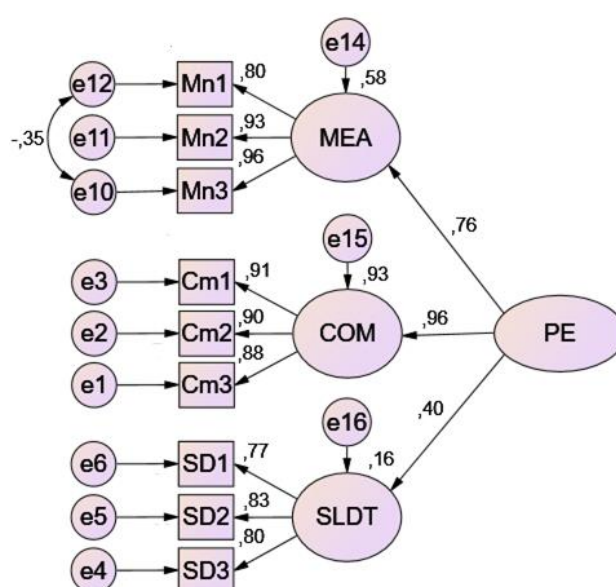


Figure 20: Second order CFA Analysis of PE

3.5.2.3. OCRBs Scale

The Turkish adaptation of the scale required some more steps before administering the scale for data collection to refine concepts and factor analyses. The pilot study below includes the steps followed for the Turkish adaptation. See Appendix D for OCRBs scale.

The Pilot Study of OCRBs Scale Used in the Research

For adopting the scale into this study and before administering it with other scales, a large hospital group's headquarter and its main hospital was chosen as a pilot study for the first verification. Practitioners, English and Turkish language teachers, did three Turkish translations and three back translations. The expert committee decided jointly the appropriate translation. The most appropriate translation was administered in the hospital group. The original scale consists of 24 questions, but the authors stated also two other questions which did not survive in their original study. Since two questions seemed to be related, they were also included into the first measurement. Total 137 fully answered questionnaire was collected. Out of originally two not-survived questions, the one remained statistically valid (We need to improve our performance by implementing an organizational change). The other question remained not-survived (My fringe benefits will remain the same after this change). In addition, one efficacy question (I have the capability to implement the change that is initiated) did also not survive. In the Turkish adaptation after explanatory factor analysis, discrepancy, appropriateness remained same as in the original scale, efficacy and valence combined into one factor and principal support divided into two: principal support management and principal support colleagues in the explanatory factor analysis.

Since the sample size of the pilot study for the first verification was limited, the second round of verification seemed reasonable for the final Turkish version administration in the study. This time, sample is chosen from various sector companies that are known to be in a change period. 383 fully completed questionnaire of total 506 were collected for the verification. Total 24 questions were asked to the participants. The explanatory factor analysis generated

four factors where appropriateness, valence and efficacy combined into one factor. When the analysis was forced to five factors, appropriateness generated one factor like discrepancy. However, efficacy and valence were combined into one factor that was labeled as “efficacy and valence – EV”. Principal support was divided into two factors: from the statements in the questions it was possible to segment them principal support management (PSm) and principal support colleagues or peers (PSc). Question number six is loaded into two factors and taken out from the evaluation. All twenty-three questions represented factor load higher than 0.55. Cronbach Alpha reliability for the scale was measured as 0,917. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy (KMO) as 0,919 and total variance explained seemed to be 74,612 percent Table (8).

Table 8: Pilot Study Exploratory Factor Analysis for Second Verification of OCRBs Scale

SCALE		Cronbach Alpha .917	KMO .919	Variance Explained 74,612
factor load		EFFICACY AND VALENCE		23,423
16V	,812	The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment		
9e	,807	I can implement this change in my job		
14e	,789	I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change		
1V	,779	This change will benefit me		
19e	,760	I believe we can successfully implement this change		
11V	,699	I will earn higher pay from my job after this change		
24e	,572	We have the capability to successfully implement this change		
DISCREPANCY				16,170
15D	,885	We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations		
20D	,851	A change is needed to improve our operations		
10D	,820	We need to improve the way we operate in this organization		
25D	,775	We need to improve our performance by implementing an organizational change		
5D	,770	We need to change the way we do some things in this organization		
APPROPRIATENESS				14,232
8A	,752	The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization		
13A	,709	The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation		
23A	,699	This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation		
18A	,667	When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization		
3A	,658	I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations		
PRINCIPAL SUPPORT MANAGEMENT				12,837
22PS	,893	My immediate manager is in favor of this change		
26PS	,880	My immediate manager encourages me to support the change		
12PS	,815	The top leaders support this change		
7PS	,707	The top leaders in this organization are “walking the talk”		
PRINCIPAL SUPPORT CO-WORKER				7,950
2PS	,870	Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change		
17PS	,816	The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work		
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity		Approx. Chi-Square = 7098,387 df = 276 significant p < 0,001		

Before administering the OCRBS for dissertation sample, lastly CFA analysis was conducted for the second pilot study. Confirmatory factor analysis was operationalized for factor reliability. Three questions (11v, 24e and 7ps) were deleted because of factor loads and for higher fit indices. The statistical results was listed in Table 9 below. The fit indices for the late version of OCRBs demonstrate strong verification of the scale such as $\chi^2 = 443,091$, $\chi^2/df = 2,822$, CFI= .955, GFI=,955 RMSEA = ,044 and SRMR= ,0352.

After CFA analysis, Cronbach's Alpha with the remaining items was calculated as 0,917 and KMO as 0,929 and total variance explained for five factors' scale as 78.003 percent; EV (20,919), DIS (18,337), APP (18,115), PSm (12,250), PSc (8,382). As all reliability and factor analysis verified strong associations, the scale with this structure was decided confidently to be the dependent variable OCRBs in the study. This version was administered in the data collection.

Table 9: Pilot Study OCRBs Scale Standard Regression Weights After Confirmatory Factor Analysis

	factor loads
EFFICACY AND VALENCE	
19e	0,775
14e	0,878
1v	0,858
9e	0,903
16v	0,854
DISCREPANCY	
15d	0,918
10d	0,789
20d	0,856
25d	0,726
5d	0,72
APPROPRIATNESS	
18a	0,864
3a	0,838
23a	0,849
13a	0,8
8a	0,836
PRINCIPAL SUPPORT MANAGEMENT	
26ps	0,889
22ps	0,883
12ps	0,793
PRINCIPAL SUPPORT COLLEGUES	
17ps	0,912
2ps	0,792

P < 0,001

EFA and CFA Analyses for Dissertation Data

Exploratory factor analysis for the dissertation sample was applied to Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs. Total 20 questions and five factor scales was examined by Principal Component Analysis. In the first round, initial Eigenvalues 1, all factors loaded into four factors with KMO ,929 , $p < .001$ and total variance explained was 74,581. Then the scale is forced to original scale five factors. Again, efficacy and valence generated one factor, appropriateness, discrepancy stand-alone factors, and principal support divided into two separate factors. They are named Principal Support Management and Principal Support colleagues. The Turkish adaptation of OCRBs demonstrated relatively different combination of change beliefs. Armenakis and Harris (2009) called for further research in development of five beliefs under different variables. Principal support in the study divided the support into two separate form as originally stated: formal leaders -vertical change agents and opinion leaders -horizontal change agents (p.129). Another study; Morin et al. (2015) reported efficacy and valence together were conceptually equivalent to affective commitment to change construct as combined in the dissertation data.

All factors load in acceptable limits and all survived. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin measure of sample adequacy was ,929 with significant p value ($p < .000$). All items load values were higher than ,70. Total variance explained by five-factors was 78,817. Cronbach' Alpha was ,920. Table 10 represents the factor loads and variance explained for OCRBs and sub-scales.

Table 10: The Factor Loads and Variance Explained for OCRBs

	KMO	Variance explained	Cronbach's Alpha
OCRBs	0,929	78,82%	0,920
			factor load
Efficacy & Valence (EV)			21,82%
The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment			0,840
I can implement this change in my job			0,830
I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change			0,819
I believe we can successfully implement this change			0,790
This change will benefit me			0,749
Discrepancy (DIS)			19,05%
We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations			0,872
A change is needed to improve our operations			0,869
We need to improve our performance by implementing an organizational change			0,813
We need to improve the way we operate in this organization			0,812
We need to change the way we do some things in this organization			0,778
Appropriateness (APP)			16,97%
This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation			0,763
The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization			0,751
I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations			0,740
The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation			0,719
When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization			0,695
Principal Support Management (PSm)			12,55%
My immediate manager encourages me to support the change			0,896
My immediate manager is in favor of this change			0,874
The top leaders support this change			0,804
Principal Support Colleagues (PSc)			8,43%
The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work			0,866
Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change			0,837

Approx. Chi-Square = 10283, 943; df = 190; Significant $p < 0,001$

The first level multi-factor OCRBs scale consisting of five factors and twenty question was tested with confirmatory factor analysis using AMOS 25 version. CFA results were listed in the table 11. The goodness of fit indices from CFA ($\chi^2 = 390,133$; $p < .001$; $\chi^2/df = 2,485$; CFI = .977; GFI = .943; RMSEA = .048; SRMR = .0364) demonstrate that the proposed model was appropriate with the data and in acceptable limits. Table 11 and Figure 21 depict first order CFA analyses for OCRBs.

Table 11: CFA of First Order Analysis of OCRBs with Standardized Regression Weights

Efficacy & Valence (EV)	Standard estimate	p
The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment	0,877	***
I can implement this change in my job	0,927	***
I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change	0,877	***
I believe we can successfully implement this change	0,763	***
This change will benefit me	0,846	***
Discrepancy (DIS)		
We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations	0,890	***
A change is needed to improve our operations	0,899	***
We need to improve our performance by implementing an organizational change	0,776	***
We need to improve the way we operate in this organization	0,742	***
We need to change the way we do some things in this organization	0,714	***
Appropriateness (APP)		
This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation	0,900	***
The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization	0,880	***
I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on our operations	0,881	***
The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation	0,780	***
When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization	0,886	***
Principal Support Management (PSm)		
My immediate manager encourages me to support the change	0,886	***
My immediate manager is in favor of this change	0,848	***
The top leaders support this change	0,783	***
Principal Support Colleagues (PSc)		
The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work	0,766	***
Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change	0,840	***

*** p<0,001

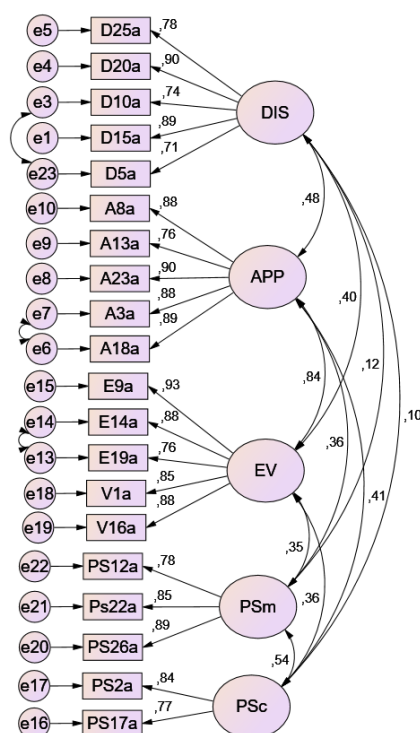


Figure 21 First Order CFA Analysis of OCRBs

The second order OCRBs scale also demonstrated acceptable goodness of fit indices ($\chi^2 = 488,859$; $p < ,001$; $\chi^2/df = 3,018$; CFI = ,968; GFI = ,928; RMSEA = ,056; SRMR = ,0619).

Appendix F lists the second order CFA analysis of OCRBs.

3.5.3. Demographic variables and T-test, One way Anova Analyses

Sample of the current study consists of 646 participants. The sample descriptive analysis was provided in Table 12. According to the data, 53,4% of the participants are female and 46,6% represents the males. The age of the participants between 21-30 years old are 43,8%; 27,6% are between 31-40, 16,6% between 41-50, 8% between 51-60, 20 years and lower 2,9% and 61 and overs are represented by 1,1% in the sample data. The majority of participants (56,5%) are university graduates, high school graduates, master, PhD and primary school graduates represent data sample respectively; 28,8%, 10,4%, 2,5% and 1,9%. The majority of the working period in the current organization shows that 1-3 years group is large as 30,2%, less than one year 25,2%, more than 10 years 18,7%, 4-6 years 16,9 years and 7-10 years 9%. Total work experience showed that 36,8% have experience 1-5 years, 6-10 years 15,9%, 21 and over 19,5%, 11-15 years 15,5% ad 16-20 years 12,2%. The staff position consisting of medical practitioners, intern doctors, nurses and regular staff represents the highest organizational occupation group with 50% followed by 16,7% middle level managers, 15,3% experts (specialist physicians), 9,4% first level managers and 8,5% top management positions. In terms of departments worked, service department is the highest 59,1%, then comes respectively 18,3% sales and marketing, 7,6% accounting department, 7,6% research and development and lastly 7,4% technical-IT.

Table 12: Descriptive Analyses for Research Sample

	Groups	Frequency	percentage (%)
Gender			
	female	345	53,4%
	male	301	46,6%
Age			
	20 and lower	19	2,9%
	21-30	283	43,8%
	31-40	178	27,6%
	41-50	107	16,6%
	51-60	52	8,0%
	61 ad over	7	1,1%
Education			
	primary school	12	1,9%
	high school	186	28,8%
	university	365	56,5%
	master	67	10,4%
	PhD	16	2,5%
Working Period in Current Occupation			
	less than 1 year	163	25,2%
	1-3	195	30,2%
	4-6	109	16,9%
	7-10	58	9,0%
	more than 10 years	121	18,7%
Total Years Worked			
	1-5	238	36,8%
	6-10	103	15,9%
	11-15	100	15,5%
	16-20	79	12,2%
	21 and over	126	19,5%
Current Position			
	staff -practitioner and intern doctors, nurses, regular staff	323	50,0%
	expert -specialist doctors	99	15,3%
	first level manager	61	9,4%
	middle level manager	108	16,7%
	top management	55	8,5%
Department Worked			
	sales and marketing	118	18,3%
	accounting and finance	49	7,6%
	Technical - IT	48	7,4%
	Service	382	59,1%
	AR-GE	49	7,6%

3.5.3 Demographic Characteristics According to Survey Instruments

To examine whether survey instruments put similar effects on all participants, the control variables have been operationalized to understand the demographic effect. A series one-way ANOVA tests and independent samples t-tests (for gender) were performed to determine the mean differences in groups according to gender, age, education, tenure in current organization, total working experience, position, and department for organizational culture, psychological empowerment and organizational change recipients' beliefs. Statistically significant differences among group means were evaluated by examining Scheffe post hoc tests to explain what group differed.

Demographic Characteristics According to Organizational Culture

Likert response interval for organizational culture for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,16 and standard deviation 0,79. This result states the medium acceptance for survey respondent's medium acceptance for their organization culture.

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between organizational culture and gender ($F = 0,275$; $P = ,600 > 0,05$), education ($F = 0,295$; $P = ,881 > 0,05$) and department worked ($F = 0,168$; $P = ,955 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results revealed statistically significant difference between organizational culture on participants' age ($F = 3,312$; $P = ,006 < 0,05$). Less than 20 years participant showed the highest mean score ($\mu_{<20} = 3,57 \pm 0,550$) compared the lowest mean scores of 31-40 years participants ($\mu_{31-40} = 2,99 \pm 0,84$).

Regarding tenure ($F = 4,791$; $p = ,001$), OC mean scores for 7-10 years revealed the lowest level mean ($\mu_{7-10 \text{ yrs}} = 2,90 \pm 0,94$) while highest level highlighted less than one year participants ($\mu_{\text{less_one Yrs}} = 3,39 \pm 0,73$).

The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on organizational culture ($F = 8,430$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15 \text{ yrs}} = 2,88 \pm 0,77$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest over 1-5 years experience ($\mu_{1-5} = 3,36 \pm 0,75$).

Also, the participants were differentiated in terms of position ($F=2,517$; $p=0,004 < 0,05$). First level managers mean scores were the lowest ($\mu_{\text{first_level}} = 2,99 \pm 0,82$) while top management scores showed the highest level mean ($\mu_{\text{top_man}} = 3,37 \pm 0,66$). **Table 13** lists the results.

Table 13: Demographic Characteristics of Organizational Culture Scale

Group	N	Mean	SD	F	P
Gender				0,275	0,600 P > 0,05
female	345	3,183	0,781		
male	301	3,135	0,801		
Age				3,312	0,006 P < 0,05
<20 yrs	19	3,571	0,550		
21-30 yrs	283	3,244	0,790		0,001
31-40 yrs	178	2,994	0,836		0,001
41-50 yrs	107	3,161	0,719		
51-60 yrs	52	3,125	0,768		
>61 yrs	7	3,179	0,693		
Total	646	3,161	0,790		
Education				0,295	0,881 P > 0,05
primary school	12	3,327	0,937		
high school	186	3,165	0,813		
university	365	3,167	0,778		
master	67	3,118	0,791		
PhD	16	3,030	0,760		
Total	646	3,161	0,790		
Tenure				4,781	0,001 P < 0,05
less than 1 year	163	3,387	0,741		0,001
1-3 yrs	195	3,161	0,782		
4-6 yrs	109	3,013	0,763		
7-10 yrs	58	2,900	0,936		
>10 yrs	121	3,114	0,750		
Total	646	3,161	0,790		
Total work experience				8,430	0,000 P < 0,05
1-5 yrs	238	3,356	0,755		0,0019
6-10 yrs	103	3,042	0,846		
11-15 yrs	100	2,881	0,770		
16-20 yrs	79	3,021	0,785		
>21 yrs	126	3,198	0,737		
Total	646	3,161	0,790		
Position				2,517	0,040 P < 0,05
staff	323	3,2111	0,81028		
expert	99	3,1120	0,82471		
first level manager	61	2,9896	0,81921		
middle level manager	108	3,0514	0,71608		
top management	55	3,3561	0,66090		
Total	646	3,1607	0,79046		
Department				0,168	0,955 p > 0,05
S & M	118	3,2034	0,78976		
Production	49	3,1839	0,71932		
Accounting & Finance	48	3,1620	0,82413		
Technical - IT	382	3,1513	0,79305		
Service	49	3,1059	0,83216		
AR-GE	646	3,1607	0,79046		

Organizational culture sub-dimensions also revealed differences demographically.

Involvement Culture

Likert response interval for involvement culture for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,14 and standard deviation 0,855. This result states the medium acceptance for survey respondent's medium acceptance for their organization involvement culture traits.

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between involvement culture and gender ($F = 0,276$; $P = ,290$ female, $,292$ male $> 0,05$), education ($F = 0,573$; $P = ,682 > 0,05$) and department worked ($F = 0,577$; $P = ,679 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results revealed statistically significant difference between involvement on participants' age ($F = 3,858$; $P = ,002 < 0,05$). Less than 20 years participant showed the highest mean score ($\mu_{<20} = 3,61 \pm 0,72$) compared the lowest mean scores of 31-40 years participants ($\mu_{31-40} = 2,97 \pm 0,91$). Regarding tenure ($F = 8,072$; $p = ,000$), OCRBs mean scores for 7-10 years revealed the lowest level mean ($\mu_{7-10 \text{ yrs}} = 2,84 \pm 0,96$) while highest level highlighted less than one year participants ($\mu_{\text{less_one Yrs}} = 3,42 \pm 0,82$). The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on involvement culture ($F = 8,384$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15 \text{ Yrs}} = 2,84 \pm 0,86$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest over 1-5 years experience ($\mu_{1-5} = 3,37 \pm 0,83$). Also, the participants were differentiated in terms of position ($F = 3,736$; $p = 0,005 < 0,05$). First level managers mean scores were the lowest ($\mu_{\text{first_level}} = 2,90 \pm 0,86$) while top management scores showed the highest level mean ($\mu_{\text{top_man}} = 3,25 \pm 0,78$).

Consistency Culture

Likert response interval for consistency culture for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,098 and standard deviation 0,888. This result indicates that respondents showed medium acceptance for their organization consistency culture traits.

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between consistency culture and gender ($F= 0,724$; $P = ,919 > 0,05$), education ($F= 0,571$; $P = ,684 > 0,05$) and department worked ($F= 0,616$; $P = ,651 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results also revealed statistically significant difference between consistency culture on participants' age ($F= 2,589$; $p = ,025 < 0,05$). 31-40 years participants showed the lowest mean score ($\mu_{31_40} = 2,93 \pm 0,93$) compared the highest mean scores of less than 20 years participants ($\mu_{<20\text{yrs}} = 3,53 \pm 0,55$). Regarding tenure ($F= 6,402$; $p = 0,025$), consistency culture mean scores for 7-10 years revealed the lowest level mean ($\mu_{7-10\text{yrs}} = 2,82 \pm 1,06$) while highest level highlighted less than 1 year ($\mu_{<1} = 3,36 \pm 0,81$). The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on consistency culture ($F = 8,279$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$) 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15_Yrs} = 2,81 \pm 0,84$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest over 1-5 years experience ($\mu_{1_5} = 3,32 \pm 0,85$). Also, the participants were differentiated terms of position ($F=2,246$; $p=0,063 < 0,05$). First level managers mean scores were the lowest ($\mu_{\text{first_level}} = 2,94 \pm 0,92$) while top management scores showed the highest level mean ($\mu_{\text{top_man}} = 3,28 \pm 0,80$).

Adaptability Culture

Likert response interval for adaptability culture for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,173 and standard deviation 0,815. This result indicates that respondents showed medium acceptance for their organization adaptability culture traits.

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between adaptability culture and gender ($F= 1,822$; $p = ,531$ female - $,532$ male $> 0,05$), education ($F= 0,096$; $P = ,984 > 0,05$) and department worked ($F= 0,087$; $P = ,987 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results also revealed statistically significant differences between adaptability culture on participants' age ($F= 2,426$; $p=,034 < 0,05$). 31-40 years participants showed the lowest mean score ($\mu_{31_40} = 3,02 \pm 0,85$) compared the highest mean scores of less than 20 years participants ($\mu_{<20\text{yrs}} = 3,52 \pm 0,61$). For tenure ($F = 3,821$; $p = ,004 < 0,05$), adaptability culture

mean scores for 7-10 years revealed the lowest level mean ($\mu_{7-10\text{ yrs}} = 2,96 \pm 0,98$) while highest level highlighted less than 1 year ($\mu_{>1} = 3,36 \pm 0,77$). The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on adaptability culture ($F = 5,800$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15\text{ yrs}} = 2,93 \pm 0,81$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest 1-5 years experience ($\mu_{1-5} = 3,34 \pm 0,79$). Also, the participants were differentiated terms of position ($F=2,482$; $p=0,043 < 0,05$). First level managers mean scores were the lowest ($\mu_{\text{first_level}} = 3,04 \pm 0,84$) while top management scores showed the highest level mean ($\mu_{\text{top_man}} = 3,45 \pm 0,63$).

Mission Culture

Likert response interval for mission culture for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,229 and standard deviation 0,839. In general, this result indicates that respondents showed medium acceptance for their organization mission culture traits.

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between mission culture and gender ($F= 1,723$; $P = ,91$ female ,193 male $> 0,05$), education ($F= 0,06$; $P = ,993 > 0,05$), position ($F= 1,874$; $P = ,113 > 0,05$), department worked ($F= 0,334$; $P = ,855 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results also revealed statistically significant differences between mission culture on participants' age ($F= 3,107$ $p=,009 < 0,05$). 31-40 years participants showed the lowest mean score ($\mu_{31-40} = 3,05 \pm 0,90$) compared the highest mean scores of less than 20 years participants ($\mu_{<20\text{ yrs}} = 3,63 \pm 0,56$). Regarding tenure ($F=3,616$; $p=,006 < 0,05$), mission culture mean scores for more than 1 year revealed the highest level mean ($\mu_{>10\text{ yrs}} = 3,42 \pm 0,81$) while lowest level highlighted 7-10 years participants ($\mu_{7-10} = 2,99 \pm 0,81$). The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on mission culture ($F = 7,476$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15\text{ yrs}} = 2,94 \pm 0,82$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest 1-5 years experience ($\mu_{1-5} = 3,40 \pm 0,80$).

Demographic Characteristics According Psychological Empowerment Scale

Likert response interval for psychological empowerment for total 646 respondents is computed as mean 4,287 and standard deviation 0,565. In general, this result indicates that respondents showed high acceptance for their feelings for psychological empowerment. The assessment for sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment gives more accurate information for evaluating this rough figure: MEA- 4,467 (very high acceptance), COM- 4,530 (very high acceptance), SLDT – 3,863 (high acceptance).

The analyses show that there is no statistically significant difference between psychological empowerment and gender ($F= 4,150$; $P = ,647$ female and $,650$ male $> 0,05$), age ($F= 0,508$; $P = ,770 > 0,05$), education ($F= 0,571$; $P = ,684 > 0,05$), tenure ($F= 0,404$; $P = ,806 > 0,05$), total work experience ($F= ,964$; $P = ,427 > 0,05$), Table 14 lists the results.

It is observed that there is a statistically significant mean difference in position and department control variables: position ($F= 2,136$; $P = ,075 > 0,05$) and department ($F= 2,4113$ $P = ,0787 < 0,05$). PE mean scores for top management revealed the highest level mean ($\mu_{\text{top_management}} = 4,42 \pm 0,42$) while lowest level highlighted first level manager ($\mu_{\text{first_level_mngs}} = 4,18 \pm 0,81$). Also, the participants were differentiated in terms of departments worked. Participants from Accounting and finance department's mean score was the lowest $\mu_{\text{act_dept}} = 4,11 \pm 0,56$) while sales and marketing group mean scores showed the highest level mean $\mu_{\text{s_m}} = 4,35 \pm 0,63$).

Table 14: Demographic Characteristics of Psychological Empowerment Scale

Group	N	Mean	SD	F	P
Gender				4,150	P > 0,05
female	345	4,2966	0,52530		0,647
male	301	4,2762	0,60915		0,650
Age				0,508	0,770 P > 0,05
<20 yrs	19	4,26	0,52		
21-30 yrs	283	4,32	0,59		
31-40 yrs	178	4,26	0,60		
41-50 yrs	107	4,29	0,47		
51-60 yrs	52	4,21	0,55		
>61 yrs	7	4,24	0,33		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		
Education				0,571	0,684 P > 0,05
primary school	12	4,43	0,38		
high school	186	4,32	0,68		
university	365	4,27	0,53		
master	67	4,26	0,47		
PhD	16	4,33	0,47		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		
Tenure				0,404	0,806 P > 0,05
less than 1 year	163	4,32	0,58		
1-3 yrs	195	4,30	0,57		
4-6 yrs	109	4,26	0,62		
7-10 yrs	58	4,31	0,47		
>10 yrs	121	4,25	0,53		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		
Total work experience				0,964	0,427 P > 0,05
1-5 yrs	238	4,33	0,55		
6-10 yrs	103	4,26	0,67		
11-15 yrs	100	4,21	0,59		
16-20 yrs	79	4,29	0,52		
>21 yrs	126	4,28	0,50		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		
Position				2,136	0,075 P > 0,05
staff	323	4,32	0,53		
expert	99	4,23	0,59		
first level manager	61	4,18	0,81		
middle level manager	108	4,23	0,53		
top management	55	4,42	0,42		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		
Department				2,113	0,078 P > 0,05
S & M	118	4,35	0,63		
Accounting and Finance	49	4,11	0,56		
Technical - IT	48	4,25	0,60		
Service	382	4,31	0,54		
AR-GE	49	4,20	0,55		
Total	646	4,29	0,57		

Demographic Characteristics According Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale

Likert response interval for OCRBs, total 646 respondents is computed as mean 3,603 and standard deviation 0,579. In general, this result indicates that respondents showed medium acceptance for their beliefs regarding organizational change beliefs. The assessment for sub-dimensions of OCRBs give more accurate information for evaluating this rough figure: DIS- 3,969 (high acceptance), APP- 3,835 (high acceptance), EV – 3,838 (high acceptance, PSc – 3,105 (medium acceptance) and PSm – 3,267 (medium acceptance).

One-way ANOVA analysis reveals that there is no statistically significant difference between organizational change recipients' beliefs and gender ($F= 9,491$; $P = ,770$ female, $,773$ male $> 0,05$), age ($F= 1,312$; $P = ,257 > 0,05$) and education ($F= 1,954$; $P = ,100 > 0,05$).

ANOVA results also revealed statistically significant difference regarding tenure, OCRBs mean scores for 7-10 years revealed the lowest level mean ($\mu_{7-10\text{ yrs}} = 3,357 \pm 0,73$) while highest level highlighted less than one year participants $\mu_{\text{less_one Yrs}} = 3,67 \pm 0,58$. The participants with total working experiences showed statistically significant differences on OCRBs ($F = 3,966$; $p = 0,003 < 0,05$). 11-15 yrs ($\mu_{11-15\text{ yrs}} = 3,45 \pm 0,68$) as being the lowest mean score was different than the highest over 21 years experience ($\mu_{\text{higher_21}} = 3,70 \pm 0,52$). In addition, the participants were differentiated in terms of departments worked. AR-GE department mean scores were the lowest ($\mu_{\text{arge_dept}} = 3,44 \pm 0,60$) while sales and marketing department mean scores showed the highest level mean ($\mu_{s_m} = 3,78 \pm 0,61$). Lastly position lowest mean score of first level managers ($\mu_{\text{first_level_mngs}} = 3,54 \pm 0,69$) were different than top management highest mean scores ($\mu_{\text{top_management}} = 3,90 \pm 0,35$). Table 15 lists the results.

Table 15: Demographic Characteristics of Organizational Change Recipients' Beliefs Scale

Group	N	Mean	SD	F	P
Gender					
				9,491	P > 0,05
female	345	3,597	0,519		0,770
male	301	3,610	0,644		0,773
Age					
				1,312	0,257 P > 0,05
<20 yrs	19	3,538	0,360		
21-30 yrs	283	3,613	0,565		
31-40 yrs	178	3,526	0,664		
41-50 yrs	107	3,695	0,516		
51-60 yrs	52	3,654	0,512		
>61 yrs	7	3,561	0,691		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		
Education					
				1,954	0,100 P > 0,05
primary school	12	3,502	1,026		
high school	186	3,514	0,627		
university	365	3,634	0,544		
master	67	3,658	0,535		
PhD	16	3,771	0,481		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		
Tenure					
				4,284	0,002 P < 0,05
less than 1 year	163	3,674	0,575		
1-3 yrs	195	3,669	0,549		
4-6 yrs	109	3,575	0,456		
7-10 yrs	58	3,357	0,728		
>10 yrs	121	3,546	0,623		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		
Total work experience					
				3,966	0,003 P < 0,05
1-5 yrs	238	3,666	0,518		
6-10 yrs	103	3,529	0,623		
11-15 yrs	100	3,445	0,677		
16-20 yrs	79	3,563	0,609		
>21 yrs	126	3,696	0,522		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		
Position					
				4,760	0,001 P < 0,05
staff	323	3,549	0,609		
expert	99	3,634	0,517		
first level manager	61	3,544	0,687		
middle level manager	108	3,617	0,530		
top management	55	3,904	0,354		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		
Department					
				4,310	0,002 P < 0,05
S & M	118	3,784	0,609		
Accounting and Finance	49	3,622	0,514		
Technical - IT	48	3,593	0,708		
Service	382	3,567	0,547		
AR-GE	49	3,442	0,602		
Total	646	3,603	0,580		

In summary, it can be concluded that psychological empowerment scale showed less variation according to demographic variables. Psychological empowerment demonstrated different

understanding from employees' working departments and ranks for first level managers and top management. Organizational change recipients' beliefs varied according to tenure, work experience, position and department while organizational culture showed variance according to age, tenure, total work experience and position. Although the differences were not considerably high, managers should expect various accepting behaviors from employees in the light of their demography.

3.5.4. Correlation Analysis

Before regression analyses, correlations between sub-dimensions and scales were analyzed in this section for understanding the degree and direction of relationships among variables free from their being dependent or independent variables. Pearson correlation coefficient shows this relations and varies between -1 and +1 in which correlation coefficient close to -1 and 1 shows strong relations positive or negative and correlation coefficient close to zero indicates weak correlation. Durmuş, Yurtkoru and Çinko (2013) stratified in general Pearson correlation coefficient to indicate:

Less than 0,50 weak correlation

Between 0, 50 and 0, 7 mediocre correlation

Higher than 0, 70 strong correlation

Table 16 depicts the relationships of main variables and their sub-dimensions with their mean and standard variations values.

Table 16: Descriptive and Correlational Analyses for Scales and sub-scales

NO	Variable	Mean	Standard Deviation	OC	INV	CON	ADP	MIS	PE	MEA	COM	SLDT	OCRBs	DIS	APP	EV	PSc	PSm
1	OC	3,16	0,79	1														
2	INV	3,14	0,86	,911**	1													
3	CON	3,10	0,89	,951**	,849**	1												
4	ADP	3,17	0,82	,929**	,771**	,840**	1											
5	MIS	3,23	0,84	,930**	,765**	,844**	,855**	1										
6	PE	4,29	0,57	,239**	,243**	,201**	,217**	,230**	1									
7	MEA	4,47	0,67	,095*	,103**	0,067	0,075	,109**	,787**	1								
8	COM	4,53	0,60	0,017	0,033	-0,001	0,008	0,024	,811**	,695**	1							
9	SLDT	3,86	0,90	,370**	,360**	,332**	,349**	,337**	,759**	,274**	,342**	1						
10	OCRBs	3,60	0,58	,445**	,408**	,416**	,423**	,408**	,252**	,225**	,174**	,191**	1					
11	DIS	3,97	0,83	-,168**	-,149**	-,182**	-,137**	-,155**	,101*	,178**	,174**	-,059	,553**	1				
12	APP	3,84	0,76	,223**	,199**	,190**	,226**	,216**	,224**	,225**	,193**	,126**	,821**	,449**	1			
13	EV	3,84	0,79	,312**	,290**	,272**	,318**	,284**	,236**	,239**	,181**	,146**	,782**	,362**	,781**	1		
14	PSc	3,11	0,90	,515**	,508**	,522**	,437**	,446**	,143**	,093*	0,048	,169**	,655**	0,060	,355**	,317**	1	
15	PSm	3,27	0,91	,603**	,514**	,580**	,574**	,575**	,176**	0,068	0,028	,264**	,666**	,098*	,341**	,328**	,468**	1

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

According to the results, the variables show weak correlation except for correlation between OCRBs' sub dimension of PSm and PSc and OC and sub-cultures. These relations are at mediocre level. For a better understanding, Table 17 depicts the correlation results with all sub-dimensions.

Table 17: Correlations between Organizational Culture, Organizational Change Recipients' Belief and Psychological Empowerment

	OCRBs	DIS	APP	EV	PSc	PSm	PE	MEA	COM	SLDT
	r						r			
OC	,445**	-,168**	,223**	,312**	,515**	,603**	,239**	,095*	0,02	,370**
INV	,408**	-,149**	,199**	,290**	,508**	,514**	,243**	,103**	0,03	,360**
EMP	,344**	-,150**	,155**	,228**	,480**	,430**	,205**	,095*	0,02	,304**
TOR	,353**	-,136**	,171**	,276**	,439**	,433**	,231**	,116**	0,07	,306**
CAD	,407**	-,123**	,211**	,288**	,460**	,526**	,230**	,078*	0,02	,364**
CON	,416**	-,182**	,190**	,272**	,522**	,580**	,201**	0,07	0,00	,332**
CVL	,378**	-,171**	,169**	,241**	,423**	,592**	,149**	0,02	-0,05	,302**
AGR	,379**	-,173**	,162**	,254**	,500**	,514**	,186**	0,06	0,01	,300**
CI	,388**	-,154**	,198**	,251**	,505**	,494**	,219**	,099*	0,04	,311**
ADP	,423**	-,137**	,226**	,318**	,437**	,574**	,217**	0,07	0,01	,349**
CRC	,399**	-,128**	,199**	,293**	,415**	,558**	,202**	0,05	0,01	,338**
CF	,350**	-,081*	,200**	,290**	,352**	,424**	,185**	,096*	0,05	,247**
OL	,365**	-,149**	,204**	,262**	,385**	,520**	,188**	0,06	-0,03	,329**
MIS	,408**	-,155**	,216**	,284**	,446**	,575**	,230**	,109**	0,02	,337**
SDI	,335**	-,157**	,175**	,232**	,375**	,492**	,161**	0,06	-0,02	,272**
GO	,393**	-,141**	,201**	,265**	,462**	,527**	,240**	,123**	0,05	,329**
VIS	,393**	-,122**	,214**	,276**	,360**	,548**	,218**	,110**	0,02	,313**

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

* . Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

Correlation between OC and OCRBs

The results show that organizational culture is positively and weakly related to OCRBs ($r=0,445$; $p<0,01$) In general, the correlation coefficients for sub-cultures follows OC's tendency at the 0,01 significance level; for INV ($r=0,408$), CON ($r=0,416$), ADP ($r=0,423$) and MIS ($r=0,408$). OC and its sub-cultures are negatively and very weakly correlated with DIS at the 0,01 significance level for OC ($r=-0,168$), INV ($r=-0,149$), CON ($r=-0,182$), ADP ($r=-0,137$) and MIS ($r=-0,155$). The significant negative correlations are observed only for discrepancy and all organizational cultures. It signifies that employees' beliefs about the need for change is negatively correlated with organizational culture. OC and its sub-cultures are positively and very weakly correlated with APP at the 0,01 significance level for OC ($r=0,223$), INV ($r=0,199$), CON ($r=0,190$), ADP ($r=0,226$) and MIS ($r=0,216$). It seems that employees do not highly value the change process or its appropriateness or it weakly affects their change beliefs. OC and its sub-cultures are positively and weakly correlated with EV at the 0,01 significance level for OC ($r=0,312$), INV ($r=0,290$), CON ($r=0,272$), ADP ($r=0,318$) and MIS ($r=0,284$). It seems that employees do not highly value the change process or its appropriateness or it weakly affects their change beliefs. Efficacy beliefs refer to both employees' competence on organization and themselves, valence refers to benefits out of organizational change. EV seems to be more effective than employees' discrepancy and appropriateness beliefs although it still signifies weak correlation. What seems to count best for employees change beliefs more importantly are principal support from colleagues and management. Both show positive and mediocre correlation for all culture types. For PSc, the correlations are OC ($r=0,515$), INV ($r=0,508$), CON ($r=0,522$), ADP ($r=0,437$) and MIS ($r=0,446$). Principal support from colleagues for adaptability and mission culture stand weaker than involvement and consistency cultures. Management's principal support seems to be the most important belief for all culture types. The correlations between OCs and PSm are OC ($r=0,603$), INV ($r=0,514$), CON ($r=0,580$), ADP ($r=0,574$) and MIS ($r=0,575$). Thus, according to correlation analysis, it can be concluded that all change beliefs are statistically significant, but employees values them from top to bottom respectively: PSm, PSc, EV, APP and lastly DIS.

Correlations between OC and PE

The results show that organizational culture is positively and weakly related to PE ($r = 0,239$; $p < 0,01$). However, this correlation is much weaker than OC and OCRBS. PE and sub-cultures correlation observed as for INV ($r = 0,243$), CON ($r = 0,201$), ADP ($r = 0,217$) and MIS ($r = 0,230$). In general, PE's sub-dimension competence is not correlated at all with any culture types. The mean of COM is quite high (4,53) among respondents signaling that they find themselves highly competent to do their jobs meaning organizational culture does not affect employees' feelings of competence. Meaning shows mixed results for organizational culture. Overall OC is weakly correlated at 0,05 significance level, the correlation coefficients for sub-cultures CON and ADP are not statistically significant and INV ($r = 0,103$) and MIS ($r = 0,109$) are statistically significant at 0,01 significance level but very weakly. It can be concluded that for involvement and mission cultures, employees consider the meaning of their jobs seriously. Interestingly, SLDT showed the highest correlation at the 0,01 significance level with OC ($r = 0,370$); for INV ($r = 0,360$), CON ($r = 0,332$), ADP ($r = 0,349$) and MIS ($r = 0,377$). It simply means those employees' beliefs for their autonomy in doing their jobs highly matters for all organizational culture types.

Correlation between PE and OCRBs

PE is positively and weakly correlated with OCRBs ($r = 0,252$) at the 0,01 significance level. PE's sub-dimensions follow the same tendency: MEA ($r = 0,225$), COM ($r = 0,174$) and SLDT ($r = 0,191$). DIS and PE is at the 0,05 significance level, weakly correlated ($r = 0,101$). DIS and MEA ($r = 0,178$), COM ($r = 0,174$) and SLDT is not statistically significant. Employees' need for change beliefs are weakly correlated if it is meaningful and employees feel competent on themselves and their organization. Employees' beliefs for change process are weakly correlated if they value it MEA ($r = 0,225$), if competent COM ($r = 0,193$) and if they have autonomy to do the work SLDT ($r = 0,126$). Overall PE and APP correlation is ($r = 0,224$). Similar tendency prevails for EV and PE ($r = 0,236$), MEA ($r = 0,239$), COM ($r = 0,181$) and SLDT ($r = 0,146$). PSc and PE is very weakly correlated ($r = 0,143$) also valid for MEA ($r = 0,099$; 0,05 significance level) and SLDT ($r = 0,169$). COM and PSc is not statistically significant. PSm is weakly correlated with PE ($r = 0,176$) and SLDT ($r = 0,264$). PSm is not correlated with MEA and COM. Principal support seems to play

non-significant role in shaping change recipients' beliefs. Psychological empowerment via its sub-dimensions seem to play slightly important role shaping employees' efficacy and valence belief, appropriateness beliefs for change process and change need.

APPENDIX F submits the detailed correlation analysis for sub sub-dimensions of organizational culture types.

3.5.5. Regression Analysis

For testing a partial mediation, the relationship between OC and OCRBs (H1), also the relationship between OC on PE (H2) and lastly the relationship between PE on OCRBs (H3) should show statistically significant relationship.

Firstly, hypothesis one searched the regression of organizational culture and OCRBs. The regression of OC on OCRBs was significant ($F=158,634$; $p=,000<0,05$). The data revealed that 19,8% of the variance on OCRB can be predicted by OC ($R^2=,198$) and that the respondents' level of OC increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta=0,445$). Table 18 depicts the regression of OC on OCRBs. (Standardized β coefficients)

Table 18: Regression Analysis of OC on OCRBs

Independent Variable	β	t	p
Constant	2,573	30,502	0,000
Organizational Culture	0,445	12,595	0,000
F	158,634		
Model (p)	0,000		
R	0,445		
R^2	0,198		

Hypothesis 2 focused on the regression between organizational culture and psychological empowerment. The regression of organizational culture with psychological empowerment was significant ($F= 39,108$; $p= 0,000< 0,05$). Organizational culture predicted 5,7% variance

on psychological empowerment ($R^2 = 0,057$) and the respondents' level of involvement culture increased the level of psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,239$). Table 19 depicts the results.

Table 19 Regression Analysis of OC on PE

Independent Variable	β	t	p
Constant	3,746	42,006	0,000
Organizational Culture	0,239	6,254	0,000
F	39,108		
Model (p)	0,000		
R	0,239		
R^2	0,057		

The hypothesis three searched the regression of psychological empowerment on OCRBs. The regression of psychological empowerment on OCRBs was statistically significant ($F = 43,625$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). The data reveals that 6,3% of the variance on OCRB can be predicted by PE ($R^2 = 0,063$) and that the respondents' level of PE increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta = 0,252$). Table 20 depicts the regression of PE on OCRBs.

Table 20: Regression Analysis of PE on OCRBs

Independent Variable	β	t	p
Constant	2,496	14,766	0,000
PE	0,252	6,605	0,000
F	43,625		
Model (p)	0,000		
R	0,252		
R^2	0,063		

Lastly, the mediation model for organizational culture, multiple regression analyses were done to understand the relationship between organizational culture and psychological empowerment with organizational change recipients' beliefs. The result showed statistically significant match ($F = 90,732$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). Organizational culture and psychological

empowerment were among the predictors of OCRBs ($R^2 = 0,22$). The respondents' level of organizational culture increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta = 0,408$) and psychological empowerment increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta = 0,154$). Table 21 depicts the mediation regression results.

Table 21: Regression Analysis Testing OC and PE Interaction with OCRBs

	DV	IV	F	p	β	s.e.	t	p	R ²	Durbin-Watson	VIF
H1	OCRBs	OC	158,634	0,000	0,445	0,026	12,595	0,000	0,198	1,884	1
H2	PE	OC	39,108	0,000	0,239	0,027	6,254	0,000	0,057	1,849	1

Mediation DV											
H4	OCRBs	OC	90,732	0,000	0,408	0,026	11,365	0,000	0,22	1,869	1,061
		PE			0,154	0,037	4,303	0,000			

ΔR^2 0,022

Table 21 summarizes that the standardized regression coefficients between OC and OCRBs decreased slightly when PE mediated the relationship leading to an increase on explained variance on OCRBs from 19,8% to 22%. It was observed that all other conditions were also satisfied. The path between independent and dependent variables were positive and significant, same as for paths between independent variable, mediator, and mediator to dependent variable. Although it is not an significant amount, the empirical evidence is consistent with hypothesis 4, that the relationship between organizational culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs was partially mediated by psychological empowerment.

Although this rough finding is important, it is not enough to understand deep meaning of this result. It is necessary to investigate each organizational cultural traits separately, since change efforts will manipulate different aspects of organizational culture to assure desired ends. In the second round, regression analyses were applied to involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission cultures separately with the sub-dimensions of PE and OCBRs. In the third round, regression analyses will be applied to sub dimensions of organizational culture forms but for avoiding complication, results will be submitted as tables in Appendice.

Involvement Culture

Hypothesis 4.1 concentrated on the mediating role of psychological empowerment in association with involvement culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs. It is hypothesized that psychological empowerment can help explain the relation between involvement culture and organizational change recipients' beliefs. Four testing it, as the first step, hypothesis 1.1 searches the regression of involvement culture and OCRBs. The regression of involvement culture on OCRBs is significant ($F=182,360$; $p=,000<0,05$). The data reveals that 16, 6% of the variance in OCRB can be predicted by INV ($R^2=,166$) and that the respondents' level of INV increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta=0,408$). Table 22 represents statistical regression results.

Table 22: Regression Analyses of INV on OCRBs and its sub-components

Involvement Culture	constant			INV - IV			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p	β	t	p			
OCRBs H1.1	2,736	34,471	0,000	0,408	11,330	0,000	128,360	0,000	0,166
DIS	4,425	35,839	0,000	-0,149	-3,829	0,000	14,658	0,000	0,022
APP	3,279	29,244	0,000	0,199	5,15	0,000	26,524	0,000	0,04
EV	3,003	26,636	0,000	0,29	7,678	0,000	58,947	0,000	0,082
PSc	1,425	12,235	0,000	0,508	14,959	0,000	223,759	0,000	0,258
PSm	1,550	13,246	0,000	0,514	15,218	0,000	231,594	0,000	0,264

Regression analyses revealed significant relationships between INV culture and components of OCRBs: discrepancy ($F=14,658$; $p=,000<0,05$); appropriateness ($F=26,524$; $p=,000<0,05$); efficacy-valence ($F=58,947$; $p=,000<0,05$); principal support colleagues ($F=223,759$; $p=,000<0,05$) and principal support management ($F=231,594$; $p=,000<0,05$). Involvement culture predicted 2, 2% variance in discrepancy belief; 4% variance in appropriateness belief; 8, 2% variance in efficacy-valence beliefs; 25, 8% variance in principal support colleagues beliefs; and 26, 4% variance in principal support management beliefs. It was observed that involvement culture had a strong role on shaping employees' change beliefs on PSc and PSm more than discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy – valence beliefs. (Table 22)

Hypothesis 2.1 focuses on the regression between involvement culture and psychological empowerment. Consequently, it is claimed that there is a relationship between meaning and involvement culture; competence and involvement culture; and self-determination and involvement culture. The regression of involvement culture with psychological empowerment is significant ($F = 40,431$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). Involvement culture predicted 5,9% variance on psychological empowerment ($R^2 = 0,059$) and the respondents' level of involvement culture increased the level of psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,243$). Table 23 depicts the result.

Table 23 Regression Analysis of Involvement Culture on PE

Involvement Culture ---> PE	INV (IV)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
PE H2.1	0,243	6,359	0,000	40,431	0,000	0,059
Meaning	0,103	2,628	0,009	6,907	0,009	0,011
Competence	0,033	0,846	0,398	0,715	0,398	0,010
Self-determination	0,360	9,801	0,000	96,054	0,000	0,130

Regression analyses show that statistically significant relationship between involvement culture and PE components prevail except for regression between involvement culture and competence ($p = 0,398 > 0,05$). PE components meaning ($F = 6,907$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$) and self-determination ($F = 96,054$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$) Involvement culture explain the variance on meaning sub-factor by 1,1%, while it explains 13% variance on self-determination. Involvement culture has no role on triggering employees' competence beliefs, only slightly on meaning deriving from it. (Table 23)

(Below part analyses PE and OCRBs' sub-dimensions regressions for all culture types. Tables were submitted on Appendix H)

The hypothesis 3 searches the regression of psychological empowerment on OCRBs. The regression of psychological empowerment on OCRBs was statistically significant ($F = 43,625$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). The data explained 6,3% of the variance on OCRB.

Regression analyses revealed statistically significant relationships between PE component meaning and OCRBs ($F = 34,347$; $p < 0,05$) with variance explained by 5,1%. Meaning regression

with PSm ($F = 2,987$; $p = ,084 > 0,05$) was not satisfactorily assured. Although statistically significant, meaning – PSc regression ($p = ,018 < ,05$) could explained 0,9% variance on PSc. Regression of meaning with DIS ($F = 21,056$; $p < ,05$), APP ($F = 34,365$; $p < ,05$), EV ($F = 39,122$; $p < ,05$) explained variances respectively by 5,1%, 3,2% and 5,1%.

Regression analyses of PE competence sub dimension with OCRBS was varied ($F = 20,034$; $p < ,05$; $R^2 = 3\%$) but could not be statistically verified for PSc ($F = 1,485$; $p = ,223 > ,05$) and PSm ($F = 0,498$; $p = ,481 > ,05$). However, competence regression analysis with DIS ($F = 20,180$; $p > ,05$), APP ($F = 25,044$; $p < ,05$) and EV ($F = 21,867$; $p > ,05$) were statistically significant with explaining power of percentage, 3%, 3,7% and 3,3% respectively.

The regression of self-determination with OCRBs revealed statistically significant result ($F = 24,450$; $p < ,05$). It explained variance by 3,7% on OCRBs. Similarly, APP ($F = 10,317$; $p > ,05$), EV ($F = 14,006$; $p < ,05$) and PSc ($F = 18,924$; $p > ,05$) and PSm ($F = 48,296$; $p > ,05$) statistically significant with explained variances 1,6%, 2,1%, 2,9% and 7% respectively. However, discrepancy regression with SLDT was not significant ($F = 2,24$; $p = ,135 > ,05$). **Appendix H** depicts the detail of these analyses.

In the last step of mediation model for involvement culture, multiple regression analyses were conducted to understand the relationship between involvement culture and psychological empowerment with organizational change recipients' beliefs. The result shows significant match ($F = 75,906$; $p = ,000 < ,05$). Involvement culture and psychological empowerment are among the predictors of OCRBs ($R^2 = 0,191$). The respondents' level of involvement culture ($\beta = 0,368$) and psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,162$) increased the level of OCRBs. Compared to direct regression of INV to OCRBs, PE mediation increased the variance explained to 19,1% from 16,6% (H1.1).

Mediation of PE with OCRBs' sub-dimensions with INV shows that PE mediation increased DIS explaining variance from 2,2% to 4,2%; for APP from 4% to 7,2%; for EV from 8,4% to 11,3%. PE mediation for PSc and PSm were not statistically significant (p values PSc $> ,552$ and PSm $> ,117$). Thus, it can be concluded that INV and OCRBs' sub-dimensions PSc and PSm were not mediated by PE. Table 24 depicts the mediation regression results for involvement culture.

Table 24: Regression Analysis Testing INV and PE Interaction with OCRBs

	DV	IV	F	p	Std β	s.e.	t	p	R ²	Durbin- Watson	VIF
H1.1	OCRBs	INV	128,36	0,000	0,408	0,024	11,33	0,000	0,166	1,853	1
H2.1	PE	INV	40,431	0,000	0,243	0,025	6,359	0,000	0,059	1,853	1
H4.1	Mediation OCRBs										
	OCRBs	INV	75,906	0,000	0,368	0,025	10,096	0,000	0,191	1,839	1,063
		PE			0,162	0,037	4,441	0,000			
	ΔR ²		0,025								

DIS	INV	14,658	0,000	-0,15	0,038	-3,829	0,000	0,022	2,087	1
Mediation DIS										
DIS	INV	14,195	0,000	0,185	0,039	-4,641	0,000	0,042	2,093	1,063
	PE			0,146	0,059	3,667	0,000			
ΔR ²		0,02								
APP	INV	26,524	0,000	0,199	0,034	5,15	0,000	0,04	1,801	1
Mediation APP										
APP	INV	25,079	0,000	0,154	0,035	3,920	0,000	0,072	1,772	1,063
	PE			0,187	0,053	4,768	0,000			
ΔR ²		0,032								
EV	INV	58,947	0,000	0,29	0,035	7,678	0,000	0,084	1,744	1
Mediation EV										
EV	INV	40,969	0,000	0,247	0,035	6,445	0,000	0,113	1,724	1,063
	PE			0,176	0,053	4,599	0,000			
ΔR ²		0,029								
PSc	INV	223,759	0,000	0,508	0,036	14,959	0,000	0,258	1,92	1
PE	INV	40,431	0,000	0,243	0,025	6,359	0,000	0,059	1,853	1
Mediation PSc										
PSc	INV	111,944	0,000	0,503	0,037	14,358	0,000	0,258	1,92	1,063
	PE			0,021	0,056	0,595	0,552			
ΔR ²		0								
PSm	INV	231,594	0,000	0,514	0,036	15,218	0,000	0,264	1,882	1
PE	INV	40,431	0,000	0,243	0,025	6,359	0,000	0,059	1,853	1
Mediation PSm										
PSm	INV	117,291	0,000	0,501	0,037	14,397	0,000	0,267	1,88	1,063
	PE			0,055	0,056	1,569	0,117			
ΔR ²		0,003								

For a deeper understanding of mediation analysis for involvement culture, regression analyses were conducted to depict the mediation relationship between INV and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Appendix I submits the related tables. There are statistically significant relationships between involvement culture and PE's components with OCRBs' components. F and model p values are all significant, however INV and meaning with PSm (F=115,752; p=0,657>0,05 and β = 0,015), INV and competence with PSc (F=112,270; p=0,360>0,05 and β

= 0,031), INV and self-determination with PSc ($F=111,837$; $p=0,659>0,05$ and $\beta = -0,016$), INV and SLDT with APP ($F=14,409$; $p=0,135>0,05$ and $\beta = 0,062$), INV and competence with PSm ($F=115,685$; $p=0,752>0,05$ and $\beta = 0,011$) and INV and self-determination with DIS ($F=7,328$; $p=0,887>0,05$ and $\beta = -0,006$) and INV and SLDT with EV ($F=30,190$; $p=0,238>0,05$ and $\beta = 0,048$) are above the acceptance limit ($p>0,05$). For PE's sub-dimensions mediation results please see Appendix I.

In summary, mediation effect of PE components on PSc and PSm were not significant, but INV and meaning with PSc was verified ($F=112,670$; $p < 0,05$ and $\beta = 0,041$). PE components explained an increased variance with involvement culture in OCRBs in comparison with H1 results. Involvement culture direct regression with DIS for the variance explained was 2, 2% ($R^2= 0,022$), with the mediation effect of meaning, competence and self-determination, the total variance R^2 on DIS are respectively 0, 06, 0,054 and 0,022. Similarly, explained variance ($R^2=0,082$) on INV culture on EV was increased with meaning mediation to 0,128; with competence mediation to 0,113. The variance explained ($R^2=0, 04$) on INV culture on APP was increased with meaning mediation to 0,082; with competence mediation to 0,075.

Appendix N, O and P contain the details of involvement culture's sub-dimensions regression statistics.

Consistency Culture

Hypothesis 1.2 searches the regression of consistency culture and OCRBs. The regression of consistency culture on OCRBs is significant ($F=134,764$; $p=, 000<0, 05$). The data shows that 17, 3 % of the variance in OCRB can be predicted by CON ($R^2=, 173$) and that the respondents' level of INV increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta=0,416$). Table 25 depicts the regression of CON on OCRBs.

Table 25: Regression Analysis of CON on OCRBs and its components

Consistency Culture	constant			CON - IV			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p	β	t	p			
OCRBs H1.2	2,762	36,623	0,000	0,416	11,609	0,000	134,764	0,000	0,173
DIS	4,499	38,404	0,000	-0,182	-4,704	0,000	22,132	0,000	0,033
APP	3,329	31,088	0,000	0,19	4,919	0,000	24,2	0,000	0,036
EV	3,093	28,6	0,000	0,272	7,166	0,000	51,346	0,000	0,074
PSc	1,463	13,302	0,000	0,522	15,528	0,000	241,116	0,000	0,272
PSm	1,426	13,446	0,000	0,58	18,704	0,000	326,652	0,000	0,337

Regression analyses revealed significant relationships between CON culture and components of OCRBs: discrepancy ($F=22,132$; $p = ,000<0,05$); appropriateness ($F= 24,200$; $p= ,000<0,05$); efficacy-valence ($F=51,346$; $p= ,000<0,05$); principal support colleagues ($F=241,116$; $p= ,000<0,05$); principal support management ($F=326,652$; $p= ,000<0,05$). Involvement culture predicted 3, 3% variance in discrepancy belief; 3, 6% variance in appropriateness belief; 7, 4% variance in efficacy-valence beliefs; 27, 2% variance in principal support colleagues beliefs; and 33, 7% variance in principal support management beliefs. (Table 25).

Hypothesis 2.2 focuses on the regression between consistency culture and psychological empowerment. Apparently, it is assumed that there is a relationship between meaning and consistency culture; competence and consistency culture; and self-determination and consistency culture. The regression of consistency culture with psychological empowerment is significant ($F= 27,177$; $p= 0,000< 0, 05$). Consistency culture predicted 4, 0 % variance in psychological empowerment ($R^2 = 0, 04$) and the respondents' level of consistency culture increased the level of psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,201$). Table 26 depicts the result.

Table 26: Regression Analysis of Consistency Culture on PE and its components

Consistency Culture ---> PE	CON (IV)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
PE H2.2	0,201	5,213	0,000	27,177	0,000	0,040
<i>Meaning</i>	0,067	1,696	0,090	2,876	0,090	0,004
<i>Competence</i>	-0,001	-0,034	0,973	0,001	0,973	0,000
<i>Self-determination</i>	0,332	8,919	0,000	79,542	0,000	0,110

Regression analyses showed that statistically significant relationship between consistency culture and self-determination ($F=79,542$; $p=0,000<0.05$) prevailed. The regression between consistency culture and competence ($F= 0,001$; $p=, 973> 0, 05$) and meaning ($F= 2,876$; $p=0, 09>0, 05$) showed statistically unverified result. While consistency culture could explain the variance on PE by 4%, only self-determination explains 11% more than it with no effect from meaning and competence. Thus, for this sample data, SLDT represents PE for consistency culture. (Table 26)

In the last step of mediation model for consistency culture (H4.2), multiple regression analyses were realized to understand the relationship between consistency culture and psychological empowerment with organizational change recipients' beliefs. The result shows significant match ($F = 81,646$; $p=, 000<, 05$). Consistency culture and psychological empowerment were among the predictors of OCRBs ($R^2= 0,203$). The respondents' level of consistency culture ($\beta = 0,381$) and psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,175$) increased the level of OCRBs. Compared to direct regression of INV to OCRBs, PE mediation increased the variance explained to 20, 3% from 17, 3% (H1.1).

Mediation of PE with OCRBs' sub-dimensions with CON shows that PE mediation increased DIS explaining variance from 3, 3% to 5, 3%; for APP from 3,6% to 7, 2%; for EV from 7, 4% to 10, 8%. PE mediation for PSc and PSm were not statistically significant (p values PSc $>, 249$ and PSm $>, 058$). Thus, it can be concluded that CON and OCRBs' sub-dimensions PSc and Pm were not mediated by PE. Table 27 depicts the mediation regression results for consistency culture.

Table 27: Regression Analysis Testing CON and PE Interaction with OCRBs

	DV	IV	F	p	Std β	s.e.	t	p	R ²	Durbin- Watson	VIF
H1.2	OCRBs	CON	134,764	0,000	0,416	0,023	11,609	0,000	0,173	1,899	1
H2.2	PE	CON	27,177	0,000	0,201	0,025	5,213	0,000	0,04	1,843	1
H4.2	For Mediation DV	IV									
	OCRBs	CON	81,646	0,000	0,381	0,023	10,590	0,000	0,203	1,883	1,042
		PE			0,175	0,037	4,875	0,000			
	Δ R ²			0,03							

DIS	CON	22,132	0,000	-0,18	0,036	-4,704	0,000	0,033	2,072	1	
Mediation DIS	IV										
DIS	CON	17,989	0,000	-0,21	0,037	-5,390	0,000	0,053	2,076	1,042	
	PE			0,144	0,058	3,663	0,000				
Δ R ²			0,02								
APP	CON	24,2	0,000	0,19	0,033	4,919	0,000	0,036	1,817	1	
Mediation APP	IV										
APP	CON	25,007	0,000	0,151	0,033	3,903	0,000	0,072	1,785	1,042	
	PE			0,194	0,052	4,992	0,000				
Δ R ²			0,036								
EV	CON	51,345	0,000	0,272	0,034	7,166	0,000	0,074	1,767	1	
Mediation EV	IV										
EV	CON	38,977	0,000	0,234	0,053	6,147	0,000	0,108	1,744	1,042	
	PE			0,199	0,053	4,972	0,000	0,108	1,744		
Δ R ²			0,034								
PSc	CON	241,116	0,000	0,522	0,034	15,528	0,000	0,272	1,948	1	
Mediation PSc	IV										
PSc	CON	121,286	0,000	0,513	0,035	14,982	0,000	0,274	1,949	1,042	
	PE			0,04	0,055	1,154	0,249				
Δ R ²			0,002								
PSm	CON	326,652	0,000	0,59	0,033	18,074	0,000	0,337	1,931	1	
Mediation Pm	IV										
PSm	CON	165,796	0,000	0,568	0,034	17,357	0,000	0,34	1,928	1,042	
	PE			0,062	0,053	1,901	0,058				
Δ R ²			0,003								

For a deeper understanding of mediation analysis for consistency culture, regression analyses were conducted to depict the mediation relationship between CON and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Appendix J shows related tables. There are statistically significant relationships between consistency culture and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Although F and model p values are all significant, not all connections were verified. The statistically significant regressions are CON ($\beta = -,195$) and meaning ($\beta = -,191$) with DIS ($F=24,020$; $p<0,05$), CON($\beta = ,182$) and competence ($\beta = ,174$) with DIS ($F=28,537$; $p<,05$), CON ($\beta = ,176$) and meaning ($\beta = ,213$), CON ($\beta = ,191$) and competence($\beta = ,194$) with appropriateness ($F=25,598$; $p>,05$), CON ($\beta = ,257$) and meaning with EV ($F=44,084$; $p>0,05$), CON ($\beta = ,272$) and competence ($\beta = ,182$) with EV ($F=38,441$; $p=,<05$) and lastly CON ($\beta = ,553$) and self-determination ($\beta = ,081$) with PSm ($F=167,338$; $p<,05$). Thus, remaining

hypotheses were not statistically supported. For detailed statistical analysis please see Appendix J.

In summary for CON, mediation effect of PE components on PSc and PSm were not significant, but only employees' beliefs of SLDT plays a role on principal support management. Self-determination did not play a mediation role between consistency culture on employees' discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy-valence beliefs for organizational change. PE components explained an increased variance with consistency culture on OCRBs in comparison with H1 results. Consistency culture direct regression with DIS for the variance explained was 3, 3% ($R^2 = 0,033$), with the mediation effect of meaning, competence and self-determination, the total variance R^2 on DIS are respectively 0, 07, 0,064 and 0,033. Similarly, explained variance ($R^2 = 0,074$) on CON culture on EV was increased with meaning mediation to 0,123; with competence mediation to 0,107. The variance explained ($R^2 = 0,036$) on CON culture on APP was increased with meaning mediation to 0,082; with competence mediation to 0,074.

For the detailed documentation for Consistency cultures' sub dimensions regression, please see statistics submitted on Appendix R, S, and T.

Adaptability Culture

Hypothesis 1.3 searches the regression of adaptability culture and OCRBs. The regression of adaptability culture on OCRBs is significant ($F = 140,243$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). The data shows that 17,9 % of the variance on OCRB can be predicted by ADP ($R^2 = 0,179$) and that the respondents' level of INV increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta = 0,423$). Table 28 depicts the regression of ADP on OCRBs.

Table 28: Regression Analysis of ADP on OCRBs and its components

Adaptability Culture	constant			ADP - IV			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p	β	t	p			
OCRBs H1.3	2,649	31,845	0,000	0,423	11,838	0,000	140,143	0,000	0,179
DIS	4,412	33,77	0,000	-0,137	-3,502	0,000	12,267	0,000	0,019
APP	3,165	26,888	0,000	0,226	5,882	0,000	34,603	0,000	0,051
EV	2,865	24,291	0,000	0,318	8,518	0,000	72,561	0,000	0,101
PSc	1,57	12,231	0,000	0,437	12,344	0,000	152,376	0,000	0,191
PSm	1,235	10,464	0,000	0,574	17,787	0,000	316,389	0,000	0,329

Regression analyses revealed significant relationships between ADP culture and components of OCRBs: discrepancy ($F=12,267$; $p = ,000<0,05$); appropriateness ($F= 34,603$; $p= ,000<0,05$); efficacy-valence ($F=72,561$; $p= ,000<0,05$); principal support colleagues ($F=152,376$; $p= ,000<0,05$); principal support management ($F=316,389$; $p= ,000<0,05$). Adaptability culture predicted 1, 9% variance in discrepancy belief; 5, 1% variance in appropriateness belief; 10, 1% variance in efficacy-valence beliefs; 19, 1% variance in principal support colleagues beliefs; and 32, 9% variance in principal support management beliefs. (Table 28).

Hypothesis 2.3 focuses on the regression between adaptability culture and psychological empowerment. Apparently, it is assumed that there is a relationship between meaning and adaptability culture; competence and adaptability culture; and self-determination and ADP culture. The regression of adaptability culture with psychological empowerment is significant ($F= 31,812$; $p= 0,000< 0,05$). Adaptability culture predicted 4, 7 % variance on psychological empowerment ($R^2 = 0,047$) and the respondents' level of adaptability culture increased the level of psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,217$). Table 29 depicts the result.

Table 29: Regression Analysis of Adaptability Culture on PE and its components

Adaptability Culture ---> PE	ADP (IV)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
PE H2.3	0,217	5,640	0,000	31,812	0,000	0,047
Meaning	0,075	1,898	0,059	3,603	0,058	0,006
Competence	0,008	0,197	0,844	0,039	0,844	0,000
Self-determination	0,349	9,46	0,000	89,5	0,000	0,122

Regression analyses verified that statistically significant relationship between adaptability culture and self-determination ($F=89,500$; $p=0,000<0.05$) and meaning ($F= 31,812$; $p <0, 05$). The regression between adaptability culture and competence ($F= 0,039$; $p=, 844> 0, 05$) showed statistically unverified result. While adaptability culture could explain the variance on PE by 4, 7%, self-determination explains 12, 2% and meaning 1%. Thus, for this sample data, adaptability culture and competence relationship was not supported. Table 30 represents PE for adaptability culture.

In the last step of mediation model for adaptability culture (H4.3), multiple regression analyses were realized to understand the relationship between adaptability culture and psychological empowerment with organizational change recipients' beliefs. The result shows significant match ($F = 83,228$; $p=, 000<, 05$). Adaptability culture and psychological empowerment were among the predictors of OCRBs ($R^2= 0,206$). The respondents' level of adaptability culture ($\beta = 0,386$) and psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,168$) increased the level of OCRBs. Compared to direct regression of ADP to OCRBs, PE mediation increased the variance explained to 20, 6% from 17, and 9% (H1.1). Table 30 depicts the mediation regression results.

Mediation of PE with OCRBs' sub-dimensions with ADP shows that PE mediation increased DIS explaining variance from 1, 9% to 3, 7%; for APP from 5,1% to 8, 3%; for EV from 10, 1% to 13,1%. PE mediation for PSc and PSm were not statistically significant (p values PSc $>, 164$ and PSm $>, 100$). Thus, it can be concluded that ADP and OCRBs' sub-dimensions PSc and PSm were not mediated by PE. Table 30 depicts the mediation regression results for adaptability culture.

Table 30: Regression Analysis Testing ADP and PE Interaction with OCRBs

	DV	IV	F	p	Std β	s.e.	t	p	R ²	Durbin- Watson	VIF
H1.3	OCRBs	ADP	140,143	0,000	0,423	0,025	11,838	0,000	0,179	1,876	1
H2.3	PE	ADP	31,812	0,000	0,217	0,027	5640	0,000	0,047	1,837	1
H4.3	For Mediation DV	IV									
	OCRBs	ADP	83,228	0,000	0,386	0,026	10,729	0,000	0,206	1,865	1,049
		PE			168	0,037	4,668	0,000			
	ΔR^2	0,027									
	DIS	ADP	12,267	0,000	-0,14	0,04	-3,502	0,000	0,019	2,072	1
	Mediation DIS	IV									
	DIS	ADP	12,219	0,000	-0,17	0,041	-4,198	0,000	0,037	2,073	1,049
		PE			0,137	0,058	3,459	0,000			
	ΔR^2	0,018									
	APP	ADP	34,603	0,000	0,226	0,036	5,882	0,000	0,051	1,827	1
	Mediation APP	IV									
	APP	ADP	29,154	0,000	0,186	0,036	4,807	0,000	0,083	1,797	1,049
		PE			0,184	0,052	4,748	0,000			
	ΔR^2	0,032									
	EV	ADP	72,561	0,000	0,318	0,036	8,518	0,000	0,101	1,764	1
	Mediation EV	IV									
	EV	ADP	48,267	0,000	0,28	0,036	7,438	0,000	0,131	1,744	1,049
		PE			0,175	0,052	4,653	0,000			
	ΔR^2	0,03									
	PSc	ADP	152,376	0,000	0,437	0,039	12,344	0,000	0,191	1,864	1
	Mediation PSc	IV									
	PSc	ADP	77,268	0,000	0,426	0,04	11,757	0,000	0,194	1,868	1,049
		PE			0,05	0,058	1,392	0,164			
	ΔR^2	0,003									
	PSm	ADP	316,389	0,000	0,574	0,036	17,787	0,000	0,329	1,891	1
	Mediation PSm	IV									
	PSm	ADP	159,975	0,000	0,562	0,037	17,029	0,000	0,332	1,89	1,049
		PE			0,054	0,053	1,648	0,100			
	ΔR^2	0,003									

For a deeper understanding of mediation analysis for adaptability culture, regression analyses were applied to understand the mediation relationship between ADP and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Appendix K shows the related tables. There are statistically significant relationships between adaptability culture and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Although F and model p values are all significant, not all connections were verified. The statistically significant regressions are ADP ($\beta = -,151$) and meaning ($\beta = ,189$) with DIS ($F=18,454$; $p<0,05$), ADP ($\beta = -,139$) and competence ($\beta = ,175$) with DIS ($F=16,725$; $p<,05$), ADP ($\beta = ,210$) and meaning ($\beta = ,209$) with appropriateness ($F=33,590$; $p<,05$), ADP ($\beta = ,224$) and competence ($\beta = ,192$) with appropriateness ($F=30,925$; $p>,05$), ADP ($\beta = ,302$)

and meaning ($\beta = ,217$) with EV ($F=55,845$; $p >0,05$), ADP ($\beta = ,317$) and competence ($\beta = ,179$) with EV ($F=49,404$; $p=, <05$) and lastly ADP ($\beta = ,549$) and self-determination ($\beta = ,072$) with PSm ($F=161,269$; $p < ,05$). Thus, remaining hypotheses were not statistically supported ($p >, 05$). For detailed report, please see Appendix K.

In summary for ADP, mediation effect of PE components on PSc and PSm were not significant, but only employees' beliefs of SLDT plays a role on principal support management. Self-determination did not play a mediation role between adaptability culture on employees' discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy-valence beliefs for organizational change. PE components explained an increased variance with adaptability culture on OCRBs in comparison with H1 results. Adaptability culture direct regression with DIS for the variance explained was 1, 9% ($R^2= 0,019$), with the mediation effect of meaning, competence and self-determination, the total variance R^2 on DIS are respectively 0,054, 0,049 and 0,019. Similarly, explained variance ($R^2=0, 0101$) on ADP culture on EV was increased with meaning mediation to 0,148; with competence mediation to 0,133. The variance explained ($R^2=0,051$) on ADP culture on APP was increased with meaning mediation to 0,095; with competence mediation to 0,088.

For Adaptability culture's sub-dimensions mediation, please see Appendix U, V, and W.

Mission Culture

Hypothesis 1.4 searched the regression of mission culture and OCRBs. The regression of mission culture on OCRBs was significant ($F=128,950$; $p=, 000 <0, 05$). The data shows that 16, 7 % of the variance on OCRB could be predicted by MIS ($R^2=, 167$) and that the respondents' level of MIS increased the level of OCRBs ($\beta=0,408$). Table 31 depicts the regression of MIS on OCRBs.

Table 31: Regression Analysis of MIS on OCRBs

Mission Culture	constant			MIS - IV			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p	β	t	p			
OCRBs H1.4	2,692	32,459	0,000	0,408	11,356	0,000	128,95	0,000	0,167
DIS	4,465	34,624	0,000	-0,155	-3,974	0,000	15,79	0,000	0,024
APP	3,201	27,415	0,000	0,216	6,618	0,000	31,556	0,000	0,047
EV	2,981	24,244	0,000	0,284	7,505	0,000	56,318	0,000	0,079
PSc	1,558	12,318	0,000	0,446	12,641	0,000	159,805	0,000	0,199
PSm	1,255	10,752	0,000	0,575	17,818	0,000	317,496	0,000	0,330

Regression analyses revealed significant relationships between MIS culture and components of OCRBs: discrepancy ($F=15,790$; $p = ,000<0,05$); appropriateness ($F= 31,556$; $p= ,000<0,05$); efficacy-valence ($F=56,318$; $p= ,000<0,05$); principal support colleagues ($F=159,805$; $p= ,000<0,05$); and principal support management ($F=317,496$; $p= ,000<0,05$). Mission culture predicted 2, 4 % variance in discrepancy belief; 4, 7% variance in appropriateness belief; 7, 9% variance in efficacy-valence beliefs; 19, 9% variance in principal support colleagues beliefs; and 33, 3% variance in principal support management beliefs. Table 31 represents statistical regression results.

Hypothesis 2.4 focuses on the regression between mission culture and psychological empowerment. It was assumed that there was a relationship between meaning and mission culture; competence and mission culture; and self-determination and mission culture. The regression of mission culture with psychological empowerment is significant ($F= 35,961$; $p= 0,000< 0, 05$). Mission culture predicted 5, 3 % variance in psychological empowerment ($R^2 = 0,053$) and the respondents' level of mission culture increased the level of psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,230$). Table 32 depicts the results.

Table 32: Regression Analysis of Mission Culture on PE and its components

Mission Culture ---> PE	MIS (IV)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
PE H2.4	0,23	5,997	0,000	35,961	0,000	0,053
Meaning	0,109	2,77	0,000	7,674	0,006	0,012
Competence	0,024	0,615	0,539	0,378	0,539	0,001
Self-determination	0,337	9,099	0,000	82,785	0,000	0,114

Regression analyses showed that statistically significant relationship between mission culture and PE components prevailed except for regression between mission culture and competence ($p = 0,539 > 0,05$). PE components meaning ($F = 7,674$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$) and self-determination ($F = 82,785$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$), Mission culture explained the variance on meaning sub-factor by 1, 2%, while it explains 11, 4% variance on self-determination (Table 32).

In the last step of mediation model for mission culture (H4.4), multiple regression analyses were applied to understand the relationship between mission culture and psychological empowerment with organizational change recipients' beliefs. The result shows significant match ($F = 76,972$; $p = 0,000 < 0,05$). Mission culture and psychological empowerment were among the predictors of OCRBs ($R^2 = 0,193$). The respondents' level of mission culture ($\beta = 0,370$) and psychological empowerment ($\beta = 0,167$) increased the level of OCRBs. Compared to direct regression of MIS to OCRBs, PE mediation increased the variance explained to 19, 3% from 16, and 7% (H1.1). Table 33 depicts the mediation regression results.

Mediation of PE with OCRBs' sub-dimensions with MIS shows that PE mediation increased DIS explaining variance from 2, 4% to 4, 4%; for APP from 4,7% to 7, 9%; for EV from 8% to 11,1%. PE mediation for PSc and PSm were not statistically significant (p values PSc $> 0,239$ and PSm $> 0,159$). Thus, it can be concluded that ADP and OCRBs' sub-dimensions PSc and PSm were not mediated by PE. (Table 33)

Table 33: Regression Analysis Testing MIS and PE Interaction with OCRBs

	DV	IV	F	p	Std β	s.e.	t	p	R ²	Durbin- Watson	VIF
H1.4	OCRBs	MIS	128,95	0,000	0,408	0,025	11,356	0,000	0,167	1,864	1
H2.4	PE	MIS	35,961	0,000	0,23	0,026	5,997	0,000	0,053	1,846	1
H4.4	Mediation OCRBs	IV									
	OCRBs	MIS	76,972	0,000	0,37	0,025	10,168	0,000	0,193	1,851	1,056
		PE			0,167	0,037	4,582	0,000			
	ΔR ²			0,026							

DIS	MIS	15,79	0,000	-0,16	0,039	-3,974	0,000	0,024	2,075		
Mediation DIS	IV										
DIS	MIS	14,669	0,000	-0,19	0,039	-4,741	0,000	0,044	2,078	1,056	
	PE			0,144	0,037	3,64	0,000				
ΔR ²			0,02								
APP	MIS	31,556	0,000	0,216	0,035	5,618	0,000	0,047	1,808	1	
Mediation APP	IV										
APP	MIS	27,5	0,000	0,174	0,035	4,469	0,000	0,079	1,779	1,056	
	PE			0,184	0,052	4,732	0,000				
ΔR ²			0,032								
EV	MIS	56,318	0,000	0,284	0,035	7,505	0,000	0,08	1,749		
Mediation EV	IV										
EV	MIS	40,237	0,000	0,242	0,036	6,337	0,000	0,111	1,729	1,056	
	PE			0,18	0,053	4,722	0,000				
ΔR ²			0,031								
PSc	MIS	159,805	0,000	0,446	0,038	12,641	0,000	0,199	1,883	1	
Mediation PSm	IV										
PSc	MIS	80,647	0,000	0,436	0,039	12,035	0,000	0,201	1,885	1,056	
	PE			0,043	0,058	1,179	0,239				
ΔR ²			0,002								
PSm	MIS	317,496	0,000	0,575	0,035	17,818	0,000	0,33		1	
Mediation PSc	IV										
PSm	MIS	159,987	0,000	0,564	0,0356	17,030	0,000	0,332	1,916	1,056	
	PE			0,047	0,053	1,41	0,159				
ΔR ²			0,002								

For a deeper understanding of mediation analysis for mission culture, regression analyses for the mediation relationship between MIS and PE's components with OCRBs' components yielded that there were statistically significant relationships between mission culture and PE's components with OCRBs' components. Appendix L shows the related tables. Although F and model p values are all significant, not all connections were verified. The statistically significant regressions are MIS ($\beta = -,176$) and meaning ($\beta = ,197$) with DIS ($F=21,360$; $p<0,05$), MIS ($\beta = -,159$) and competence ($\beta = ,178$) with DIS ($F=18,947$; $p<,05$), MIS ($\beta = ,194$) and meaning ($\beta = ,204$) with appropriateness ($F=30,963$; $p<,05$), MIS ($\beta = ,212$) and competence ($\beta = ,188$) with appropriateness ($F=28,782$; $p>,05$), MIS ($\beta = ,261$) and meaning ($\beta = ,211$) with EV ($F=45,687$;

$p > 0,05$), MIS ($\beta = ,279$) and competence ($\beta = ,174$) with EV ($F=40,069$; $p=,<05$) and lastly MIS ($\beta = ,548$) and self-determination ($\beta = ,079$) with PSm ($F=162,519$; $p< ,05$). Thus, remaining hypotheses were not statistically supported ($p>, 05$). For details of these statistics, please see Appendix L.

In summary for MIS, mediation effect of PE components on PSc and PSm were not significant, but only employees' beliefs of SLDT plays a role on principal support management. Self-determination did not play a mediation role between mission culture on employees' discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy-valence beliefs and principal support colleagues for organizational change. PE components explained an increased variance with mission culture on OCRBs in comparison with H1 results. Mission culture direct regression with DIS for the variance explained was 2, 4% ($R^2= 0,024$), with the mediation effect of meaning, competence and self-determination, the total variance R^2 on DIS are respectively 0,062, 0,056 and 0,024. Similarly, explained variance ($R^2=0,079$) on MIS culture on EV was increased with meaning mediation to 0,124; with competence mediation to 0,111. The variance explained ($R^2=0,047$) on MIS culture on APP was increased with meaning mediation to 0,088; with competence mediation to 0,082. (Table 33)

For mission culture sub-dimensions mediation, please see Appendix X, Y, and Z.

Below Table 34 summarizes the hypotheses' statistical support situations

Table 34: Summary of Hypotheses with Details of Sub-dimensions of the Scales

	Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
IV --> DV	H1 supported			
OCRBs	H1.1 supported	H1.2 supported	H1.3 supported	H1.4 supported
DIS	supported	supported	supported	supported
APP	supported	supported	supported	supported
EV	supported	supported	supported	supported
PSc	supported	supported	supported	supported
PSm	supported	supported	supported	supported
	Involvement (1)	Consistency (2)	Adaptability (3)	Mission (4)
IV --> M	H2 supported			
PE	H2.1 supported	H2.2 supported	H2.3 supported	H2.4 supported
Meaning	supported	<i>not supported</i>	supported	supported
Competence	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
Self-determination	supported	supported	supported	supported
	Meaning	Competence	Self-determination	
M --> DV	H3 supported			H3.4 supported
OCRBs	H3.1 supported	H3.2 supported	H3.3 supported	
DIS	supported	supported	<i>not supported</i>	
APP	supported	supported	supported	
EV	supported	supported	supported	
PSc	supported	<i>not supported</i>	supported	
PSm	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	supported	
	Involvement Culture (1)	Consistency Culture (2)	Adaptability Culture (3)	Mission Culture (4)
IV --> M --> DV	H4 supported			
OCRBs PE	H4.1 supported	H4.2 supported	H4.3 supported	H4.4 supported
DIS	PE	supported	supported	supported
	MEA	supported	supported	supported
	COM	supported	supported	supported
	SLDT	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
APP	PE	supported	supported	supported
	MEA	supported	supported	supported
	COM	supported	supported	supported
	SLDT	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
EV	PE	supported	supported	supported
	MEA	supported	supported	supported
	COM	supported	supported	supported
	SLDT	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
PSm	PE	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	MEA	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	COM	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	SLDT	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
PSc	PE	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	MEA	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	COM	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>	<i>not supported</i>
	SLDT	supported	supported	supported

According to mediation regression results, it can be concluded in general that psychological empowerment has an impact in explaining employees' beliefs on discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy – valence beliefs for all culture types.

Psychological empowerment with a regard how employees feel competent

and deriving a meaning help shaping change recipients' beliefs. Self-determination except for PSm does not play a mediation role between organizational culture types and DIS, APP, EV and PSc.

Structural Equation Modeling Analyses (SEM)

SEM that works in a multi-regression way is a bundle of statistical techniques that test the relationships between two or more variables directly or indirectly. Variables are in two forms: measured variables meaning directly observed (representing data set) or latent variables – unobserved and not directly observed ones. Latent variables are linked to hypothetical constructs or factors as exploratory variables that are assumed to explain not directly observable latent variables. Moreover, SEM takes into consideration the residual or error terms associated with independent and dependent variables. Thus, compared to other statistical analysis techniques, it claims to give clearer results. Residual error represents the unexplained variance by the item that the related variable is expected to measure (Kline, 2016). SEM combines factor analysis and path analysis into a comprehensive statistical methodology (Kaplan, 2009). It also refers to causal modeling or analysis, analysis of covariance structures, path analysis in strictly confirmatory characteristics. The general SEM model consists of two sections: measurement section combines observed variables to latent variables by confirmatory factor analysis and structural part links latent variables to each other by systems of simultaneous equations (Kaplan, 2009). The structural model is tested for the direct, indirect, mediating or moderating effects among the latent and observed variables by using maximum likelihood estimation method for a successful reliable result (Kaplan, 2009). The model settled at the beginning of the evaluation is analyzed by confirmatory factor analysis and then accepted or rejected depending on the correspondence to the data. (Kline, 2016). The model is confirmed applying goodness of fit indices (GOF). Since there does not exist one single statistically significant test to verify the correctness of the model, multiple indices must be used simultaneously for verification. However, model misspecification, sample size, estimation method, non-normality of sample size affect the reliability of some fit indices (Schermerle-Engel, Moosbrugger, Muller, 2003; Hu and Bentler, 1998)

Chi—square Test is the sole GOF measure that is connected with significance test. Other GOF measures show more descriptive nature (Schermelle-Engel et al., 2003). The χ^2 test determines the dissimilarity between the covariance matrix for population and model covariance matrix after satisfaction of data normality. Since χ^2 is sensitive to sample size, its ratio to degrees of freedom gives results that are more reliable. Values of χ^2 / df (CMIN/df as AMOS labeled) less than 3 shows good fit while CMIN /df <5 is considered as acceptable fit.

RMSEA (Root Mean Square Error of Approximation): It is the difference between observed inputs and estimated matrices considering degree of freedom. It demonstrates how fit the model is with population covariance. Values <0,05 is regarded as good fit, values less than 0,08 as an acceptable fit and less than 0,10 as acceptable mediocre fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003).

CFI (Comparative Fit Index): It analyzes the model fit by determining the difference between the data and the proposed model taking into consideration degree of freedom and sample size. CFI values greater than 0,95 is regarded as good fit, greater than 0,90 as an acceptable fit.

GFI (Goodness of Fit Index): It is an alternative fit model to chi-square test (Hooper, et al., 2008) and tests variance proportion with model population covariance considering how good the model is if there was no model (Jöreskog and Sörbom, 1995). GFI values greater than 0,95 is regarded as good fit, greater than 0,90 or 0,85 as an acceptable fit (Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003). Nevertheless, relatively low GFI values could point out the proposed model could explain partly the total variance and there could be more influencing data possible.

SRMR (Standardized Root Mean Square Residual): It measures mean absolute correlation residual on the basis of overall discrepancy for correlations for observed and predicted matrices. SRMR values less than 0,05 is regarded as good fit (Bentler and Hu, 1998) and less than 0,10 as an acceptable fit (Hu and Bentler, 1998; Schermelleh-Engel et al., 2003)

SEM analyses were conducted for testing the holistic models for each organizational culture traits. For determining these relations for possible PE mediation, three models were established. Model 1 shows the direct line between organizational cultures traits –

independent variable- and OCRBs –dependent variable-. Model 2 assumes that organizational culture traits could trigger employees’ psychological empowerment through their dimensions and eventually this effect would increase organizational change recipients’ beliefs positively toward their support for organizational change. The third model represents the overall model testing for possible mediation of psychological empowerment between organizational culture and OCRBs. Figure 22 represents the conceptual framework of SEM analysis model steps. Figure 23 depicts the illustration of SEM analysis of the research model.

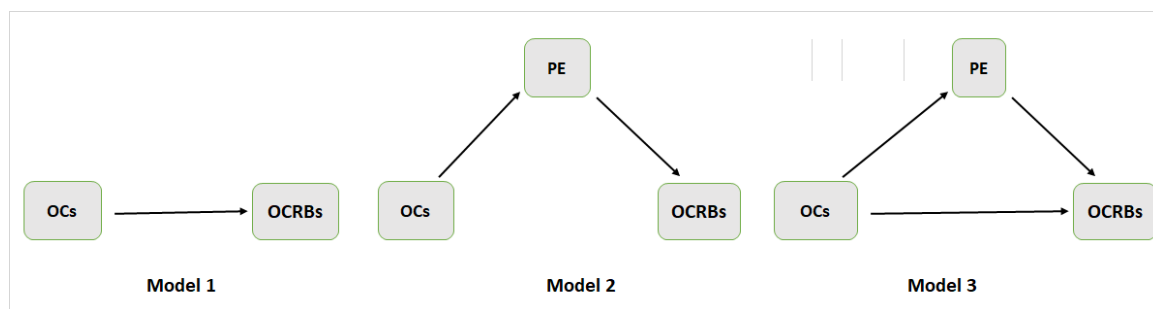


Figure 22: Structural Equation Modeling

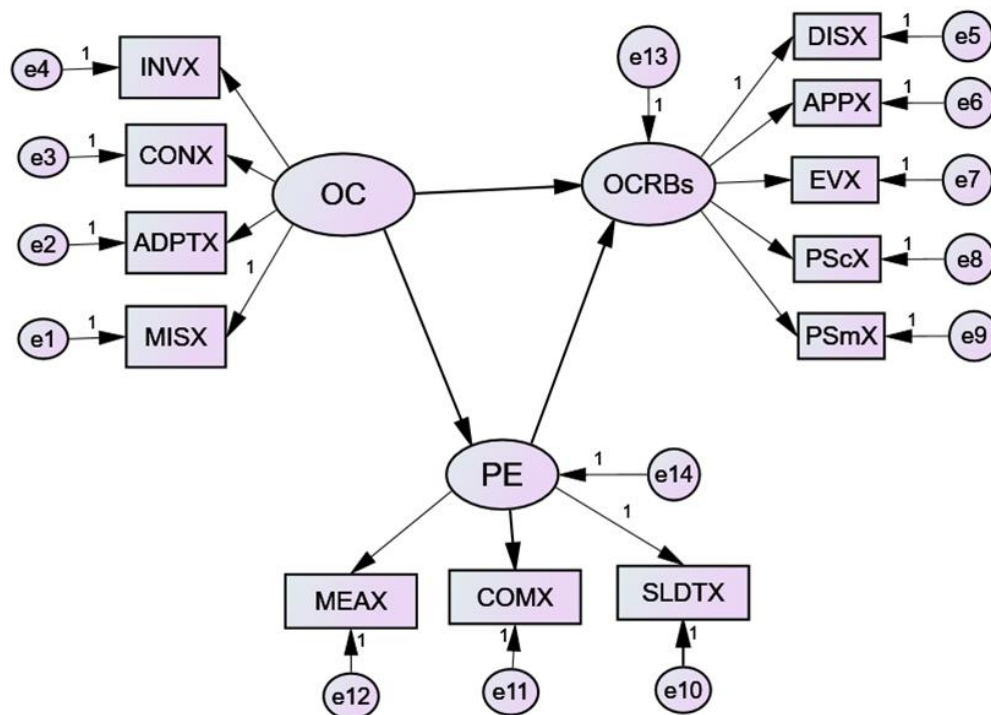


Figure 23: Illustration of SEM Research Model

The structural model 1 for organizational culture together with its sub-dimensions on OCRBs estimated a significant impact on OCRBs ($\beta=0,363$; $p=0,001<0,05$). The goodness of fit indices for Model 1 demonstrate an acceptable fit ($\chi^2 / df = 3,515$; CFI = 0,955; RMSEA = 0,062; GFI = 0,909; SRMR = 0,0978).

Model 2 also indicated statistically significant estimation and p values for OC – PE and PE – OCRBs, respectively ($\beta=0,10$; $0,001<0,05$ and $0,24$; $0,001<0,05$). The goodness of fit indices for Model 2 drew an acceptable fit ($\chi^2 / df = 2,859$; CFI = 0,951; RMSEA = 0,054; GFI = 0,889; SRMR = 0,0958).

The model 3 showed statistically satisfactory fit to the sample data ($\chi^2 / df = 2,926$; CFI = 0,950; RMSEA = 0,055; GFI = 0,892; SRMR = 0,0964). P values for OC – PE ($p=0,001<0,05$; $\beta=0,128$), PE – OCRBs ($p=0,013<0,05$; $\beta=0,236$) and OC – OCRBs ($p=0,001<0,05$; $\beta=0,366$) were statistically significant. Thus, it can be concluded that PE partially mediated the relationship between organizational culture and OCRBs. Overall model despite the weak estimation power of PE increased the variance explained to 13% from Model 1's to 21% explained variance for the mediation model 3. Table 35 lists the SEM analyses for three models.

Table 35: SEM Regression Analysis for Main Hypotheses

Model 1			β	P	R ²	χ^2	χ^2/df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
OC	--->	OCRBs	0,363	***	0,13	833,148	3,515	0,955	0,909	0,062	0,0978

Model 2											
OC	--->	PE	0,10	0,034	0,07	1366,664	2,859	0,951	0,889	0,054	0,0958
PE	---->	OCRBs	0,24	***							

Model 3 - Mediation											
OC	--->	PE	0,128	***	0,02	1381,211	2,926	0,95	0,892	0,055	0,0964
OC	--->	OCRBs	0,236	0,013	0,21						
PE	--->	OCRBs	0,366	***							

*** p < ,001

The sub-dimensions of organizational culture were analyzed in SEM.

Involvement culture

The structural model 1 for involvement culture on OCRBs estimated a significant impact on OCRBs ($\beta=0,301$; $p=0,001 < 0,05$). Model 2 also indicated statistically significant estimation and p values for INV – PE and PE – OCRBs, respectively ($\beta=0,145$; $0,001$ and $\beta=0,28$; $0,006 < 0,05$). The structural model of involvement culture for Model 3 showed satisfactory fit to the sample data ($\chi^2 / df = 2,583$; CFI = 0,948; RMSEA = 0,05; GFI = 0,881; SRMR = 0,0936). P values for PE and INV ($\beta=0,12$; $0,001 < 0,05$), INV and OCRBs ($\beta=0,3$; $0,001 < 0,05$) and PE and OCRBs ($\beta=0,25$; $0,017 < 0,05$) were statistically significant. Partial mediation effect of PE increased the variance explained to 9% from Model 1 to 16% in mediation model. Table 36 sub-cultures' SEM results lists the involvement culture SEM regression results with all fit indices.

Consistency Culture

The structural model 1 for consistency culture on OCRBs estimated a significant impact on OCRBs ($\beta=0,269$; $p=0,001 < 0,05$). However, Model 2 did not indicate a statistically significant estimation and p values for CON – PE ($\beta=0,09$; $p=0,062 > 0,05$) despite p value for PE – OCRBs relationship was statistically significant ($\beta=0,28$; $0,001 < 0,05$). The model 3 for consistency culture model 3 was not statistically significant because of high p values observed for PE and OCRBs was $0,069 > 0,05$. Thus, since p values are the major determinant of the model fit, despite mostly acceptable fit indices values, the mediation role of PE was not statistically assured. Table 36 lists the SEM analyses for three models for consistency culture.

Adaptability Culture

The structural model 1 for adaptability culture on OCRBs estimated a significant impact on OCRBs ($\beta=0,328$; $p=0,001 < 0,05$). Model 2 also indicated statistically significant estimation and p values for ADP – PE and PE – OCRBs, respectively ($\beta=0,096$; $0,046 < 0,05$) and ($\beta=0,286$; $0,001 < 0,05$). However, the structural model of adaptability culture Model 3 showed non-significant p value for PE and OCRBs ($0,051 > 0,05$) and all other p values were $0,001 < 0,05$ in model 3. Similarly, to consistency culture, because of non-significant p-value

observed in the model, it could not be considered a mediation effect despite acceptable fit values. Table 36 lists the SEM analyses for three models for adaptability culture.

Mission Culture

The structural model 1 for mission culture on OCRBs estimated a significant impact on OCRBs ($\beta=0,29$; $p=0,001<0,05$). Model 2 also indicated statistically significant estimation and p values for MIS – PE and PE – OCRBs, respectively ($\beta=,137$; $0,001<0,05$ and $\beta=0,28$; $0,008<0,05$). The structural model of mission culture Model 3 showed satisfactory fit to the sample data ($\chi^2 / df = 2,649$; CFI = 0,948; RMSEA = 0,051; GFI = 0,884; SRMR = 0,0977). P values for PE and MIS ($\beta= 0,123$; $0,001<0,05$), MIS and OCRBs ($\beta= 0,298$; $0,001<0,05$) and PE and OCRBs ($\beta= 0,24$; $0,017<0,05$) were statistically significant. Thus, it can be concluded that PE partially mediated the relationship between mission culture and OCRBs. Overall model despite the weak estimation power of PE increased the variance explained to 8,4% from Model 1 to 16% in the model 3. Table 36 lists the SEM analyses for three models for mission culture.

Table 36: Sub-cultures' SEM Results

Model 1			Standard Estimate	P	R ²	X ²	x ² /df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
INV	---	OCRBs	0,301	***	0,09	1041,999	3,101	0,949	0,893	0,057	0,0937

Model 2											
INV	---	PE	0,145	***	0,08	1518,591	2,65	0,947	0,884	0,051	0,1087
PE	---	OCRBs	0,285	0,006							

Model 3 - Mediation											
INV	---	PE	0,12	***	0,02	1567,890	2,583	0,948	0,881	0,05	0,0936
INV	---	OCRBs	0,3	***	0,16						
PE	---	OCRBs	0,24	0,017							

*** p < ,001

Model 1			Standard Estimate	P	R ²	X ²	x ² /df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
CON	---	OCRBs	0,269	***	0,07	1092,986	3,526	0,944	0,884	0,063	0,1011

Model 2											
CON	---	PE	0,09	0,062	0,08	1867,64	3,22	0,931	0,849	0,059	0,1323
PE	---	OCRBs	0,28	***							

Model 3 - Mediation											
CON	---	PE	0,08	***	0,001	1642,355	2,871	0,943	0,873	0,054	0,1031
CON	---	OCRBs	0,28	***	0,16						
PE	---	OCRBs	0,25	0,069							

*** p < ,001

Model 1			Standard Estimate	P	R ²	X ²	x ² /df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
ADP	---	OCRBs	0,328	***	0,108	811,414	2,617	0,961	0,912	0,05	0,0822

Model 2											
ADP	---	PE	0,096	0,046	0,079	1630,02	2,81	0,94	0,866	0,053	0,1233
PE	---	OCRBs	0,286	***							

Model 3 - Mediation											
ADP	---	PE	0,071	***	0,01	1380,327	2,43	0,954	0,89	0,047	0,0888
ADP	---	OCRBs	0,307	***	0,198						
PE	---	OCRBs	0,254	0,051							

*** p < ,001

Model 1			Standard Estimate	P	R ²	X ²	x ² /df	CFI	GFI	RMSEA	SRMR
MIS	---	OCRBs	0,29	***	0,084	945,58	3,05	0,953	0,901	0,056	0,0882

Model 2											
MIS	---	PE	0,137	***	0,078	1558,145	2,719	0,945	0,883	0,052	0,115
PE	---	OCRBs	0,28	0,008							

Model 3 - Mediation											
MIS	---	PE	0,123	***	0,02	1515,315	2,649	0,948	0,884	0,051	0,0977
MIS	---	OCRBs	0,298	***	0,16						
PE	---	OCRBs	0,24	0,017							

*** p < ,001

In general, SEM analyses for involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission culture showed that organizational cultures emphasis on psychological empowerment was not high according the sample dataset. When this connection showed a statistically significant power, psychological empowerment played a partial mediation role such as in involvement culture and mission culture. However, it can be safely stated that psychological empowerment is one of the major estimator of employees' change beliefs. Free from being dominant on any organizational culture dimension, psychological empowerment of employees, namely their feelings of competence on themselves and the meaning of change efforts help them regulate their beliefs of organizational change positively.



4. Discussion and Conclusion

4.1. Findings of the research

The dissertation searched the mediating role of psychological empowerment on the basis of four organizational culture dimensions with employees' organizational change beliefs which is assumed to be one of the basic success factor in case of consideration of it for change endeavors. Organizational culture is normally unique for each company. However, the study aimed to get "a general perception" of employees from various organizations. For securing the reliability or reduce the variation it focused on health sector and private sector hospital groups. Thus, the informants in this sense could be considered homogenous. Each hospital group had their own unique organizational characteristics. Nevertheless, all of them were growing in all over Turkey increasing their contribution as percentage to general health care industry. Rapid technological developments and severe competition among the industry players, increase in expectation of patients. Capital movements among shareholders and large amount of investments impede owners, leaders and managers to deal with change satisfactorily for shareholders, investors, patients, community and government forces. In terms of organizational changes, health sector provided huge experience for the informants.

The demographic characteristics of the informants representing the majority 53,4% was female, the age group 21-30 represented 43,8% and 31-40 represented 27,6%, 56,5% was university graduates; they had 1-3 years tenure in their organizations with 1-5 years total work experience 36,8% and 19,5% with more than 21 years' experience; 50% held the staff position, 16,7% represented middle level managers and 59,1% worked on service departments and 18,3% worked on sales and marketing department. Demographic differences created some variations according to survey Instruments. However, it showed a similar tendency for organizational culture sub-dimensions. The Table 37 below shows these differences.

Table 37: Differences According to Demographic Characteristics

	age	gender	education	tenure	work experience	position	department
OC	X			X	X	X	
INV	X			X	X	X	
CON	X			X	X	X	
ADP	X			X	X	X	
MIS	X			X	X	X	
PE						X	X
OCRBs				X	X	X	X

X: difference observed

The informants' responses for assessing their organizational culture types showed a consistent difference structure. Gender, education and department worked did not cause to a variation but age, tenure, total work experience and position seem to be evaluated differently by the informants.

Interestingly, psychological empowerment showed less variation; only position and department worked caused some differences for employees' feelings of meaning, competence and self-determination (Top management rated highly than first level managers for evaluating PE level). The informants found their jobs meaningful for them, they feel competent in doing their jobs; their ranking according to Likert scale showed very high acceptance (MEA mean = 4, 47 and COM mean = 4,530). Self-determination on the other hand showed high acceptance (SLDT mean = 3, 86)

The informants' responses for assessing organizational change related beliefs showed that gender, age and education did not cause a difference. However, all other demographics showed differences among respondents, indicating that working time for current organization, total work experience, position and department worked should be taken into consideration while evaluating organizational change beliefs for employees' readiness for change. The assessment of Likert scale ranking for sub-dimension of OCRBs showed that discrepancy (DIS = 3,969), appropriateness (APP = 3, 83), efficacy and valence (EV = 3, 84) beliefs' measurements were very highly accepted by the informants and principal support management and colleagues were highly accepted (PSm mean = 3, 27; PSc mean = 3,105). It

means for the informants that need for change, the appropriateness of change process, feelings of competence for employees and the organization were very highly rated by them while principal support from management and colleagues were less than DIS, APP and EV beliefs. Slightly lower values for principal support management and principal support colleagues could indicate change endeavors could not get support from management and colleagues as high as perceived need for change, method of implications and efficacy feelings and outcomes out of organizational change.

Factorability and reliability analyses of survey instruments showed strong fit with KMO and Cronbach's Alpha values in which each culture types and OCRBs scales values were higher than 0,9 while PE values were between 0,862 and 0,877. CFA analyses were applied to first-order and second-order survey instruments because the dissertation operationalized both forms in SPSS and AMOS SEM analyses. All showed strong fit with the goodness of fit indices (χ^2 and p values < 0, 05, χ^2/df , CFI, GFI, RMSEA, SRMR). OCRBs scale was applied to a Turkish study firstly with this study and its sub-dimension slightly changed in the adaptation. Efficacy and Valence sub-dimensions as separate ones integrated in one dimension in the dissertation's sample studies and labeled as EV. Principal support dimension was separated into two, labeled as PS management and PS colleagues. Psychological empowerment scale showed strong fit with first-order form with four sub-dimensions, but second-order form p values showed higher p values > 0, 05 statistical significance. Thus, impact dimension with its low factor loading was eliminated from the scale. The scale showed strong fit with GOF indices and its explaining power remained the same.

The first hypothesis of this dissertation searched the relationship between organizational culture and employees' organizational change beliefs. Organizational culture demonstrates a combination of four culture traits where involvement culture refers to its emphasis on its employees through empowerment, team orientation and capability development. Consistency cultures refers to rules and procedures with core values, agreement and coordination and integration. Adaptability culture with its emphasis on creativity and change, customer focus and organizational learning aims to adopt to external environmental demands. Lastly mission culture with strategic directions, goals and vision sub-scales focuses on competing effectively with the external environment and adopting these demands into its

internal structures. Thus, all these cultural traits with varying degrees help shaping organization's unique cultural forms. Since this dissertation did not work on one specific organization, it aimed to decipher each cultural forms role in shaping or directing employees' change beliefs for their readiness for change or more broadly for all change periods as a measurement tool of employees' reaction to organizational change. Thus, the study researched each cultural trait to see its role separately in SPSS firstly for a detailed regression analyses with all major sub-dimensions and later a holistic analysis on AMOS SEM again for each culture types.

On the other hand, dependent variable of the study consisted of five sub-scales for measuring employees' change beliefs. Discrepancy beliefs refers whether employees assess the need for change – the gap between desired state of organizational situation and the actual situation. Appropriateness is the belief if employees see the procedures or processes for change correct and if they approve the process steps. Efficacy and valence are the beliefs if employees value themselves positively to handle the change individually and link this to organizational competence to successfully manage the change and therefore to benefit personally from these change endeavors. Principal support management and colleagues are more external to employees' beliefs since they evaluate if management and co-workers or change agents and idea agents are supporting the change in a serious and appropriate manner.

Since dominant culture of an organization could function differently than other dominant culture types, the first hypothesis was operationalized for overall organization culture regression with OCRBs and later each culture type was worked on separately to see the differences if any. Hypothesis one claiming organizational culture's positive relationship with OCRBs was supported ($\beta = .445$; $R^2 = 19,8$). The results showed that involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission cultures all supported the hypothesis one positively, meaning that cultures have an explaining power on employees' beliefs for organizational change (R^2 for INV = 16,6%; CON = 17,3%; ADP = 17,9% and MIS = 16,7%). These findings are appropriate with the finding of similar studies Tsilit and Kismonu (2019), Haffar et. al (2014), Jeong et al. (2019) and party with Olafsen et al., (2020) and Joo et al., (2019).

Discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs, principal support management and colleagues are affected by organizational cultures. However, explaining power for these sub-dimensions of OCRBs differed. The beliefs about the principal support management was the highest important dimension that help employees form their change beliefs. The second one was co-workers support toward change. So free from other sub-dimensions, leaders or change agents have a dominant role on organizational change and co-workers deeply affect this relationship. Efficacy and valence was the third criterion observed to be important on organizational change. Employees' own self-efficacy and their thoughts about the competence of their organization for change form this important criterion as an effective change belief. The fourth important belief was appropriateness, meaning that the way organizational change is implemented matters for the employees in case of lack of this belief; employees would not exert efforts positively toward change. The fifth important belief was observed to be discrepancy.

The second hypothesis claiming the existing of a relationship between organizational culture traits and psychological empowerment yielded mixed and weak results despite overall hypothesis was conformed. Involvement culture ($R^2= 5,9$); consistency culture ($R^2 = 4,0$); adaptability culture ($R^2= 4,7$) and mission culture ($R^2= 5,3$) affected psychological empowerment positively and all were statistically significant. Despite the scarcity of search on this issue, the existing studies also reported supporting results (Ahadi et al., 2011; Jeong et al., 2019; Ergün, 2018; Bolat et al., 2016; Balçık and Ordu, 2018). Many studies did not report explained variance of organizational culture types on psychological empowerment. However, relatively low beta coefficients were quite similar to dissertation results (exception for variance explained; Ahadi et al. (2011) reported 40 percent explained variance of OC on PE). Involvement culture could affect PE more than other cultures like Ergün (2018) and Bolat et al., (2016) reported. However, all sub-dimensions of psychological empowerment were not affected by organizational culture types. No organizational culture types could affect competence dimension. This outcome is mostly in harmony with some studies (Ahadi et al., 200; Balçık and Ordu, 2018; Bolat et al., 2016). However, self-determination showed completely different reaction. All cultural types positively affected SLDT. Correlation analysis had shown very weak correlations with all survey instruments for PE. However, correlation for SLDT with organizational culture types was higher than meaning and competence sub-

dimension (correlation around 0,332 and 0,370). This finding is parallel to the results reported by Polat et. al (2016) and Balçık and Ordu (2018).

When all data have been assessed altogether, the results indicate that organizational culture is not a strong predictor of psychological empowerment, but organizational culture traits have more significant role for forming employees' autonomy feelings in doing their jobs. This could be due to self-determination beliefs could only be formed as far as organizations provide conditions and opportunities for employees to organize their ways of executing their jobs as self-determination questions indicate (I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job, I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job). Organizational culture traits contribute to meaning feelings of employees, but not as much as self-determination. On the other hand, competence by nature as survey instrument demonstrates is somehow organization free feature of specification or relatively less dependent to it. It shows more individual characteristics (I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities).

Hypothesis three searched the role of psychological empowerment on OCRBs. SPSS analyses resulted that psychological empowerment shares an amount of prediction power on overall employees' change beliefs ($\beta = ,25$) similar to results reported in limited number of studies (Lizar et al., Morin et. al, 2015; Seibert et al., 2011 and Çelik and Atik, 2020). When results analyzed considering PE's sub-dimensions, it was observed that meaning and competence showed similarity where both dimensions affected EV, APP and DIS more than PSm and PSc that were insignificant; except for MEA and PSc relationship. It could be assumed that meaning making (e.g. The work I do is meaningful to me) affects principal support for colleagues (e.g. Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change). SLDT, on the other hand, showed a different tendency while it affected PSm, APP, PSc and EV in importance rank, SLDT and DIS relationship was insignificant. This could be understood like employees' feelings for autonomy in doing their jobs did not affects their beliefs of need for organizational change but SLDT affects the way change was implemented, employees' self-efficacy and change outcomes, principal support from management and colleagues. Similar studies showed both varied and supporting results. Morin et al. (2015) in their longitudinal study of Canadian health care organizations reported statistically significant relationships among change beliefs

(necessity–DIS, legitimacy–APP and support – PS), psychological empowerment and affective commitment to change. Similarly, Çelik and Atik (2020) indicated meaning, competence and self-determination's significant determination power –beta coefficients respectively ,065; ,130 and ,425 on cognitive beliefs of employees (i.e. Armenakis and Harris (2009) classified five change beliefs under cognitive assessment of organizational change). Furthermore, because of scant research on this particular issue, related concepts with OCRBs were searched for understanding PE active role in various concepts. In this respect, Joo, Bozer and Ready's study (2019) searching for PE on employee engagement in South Korea - USA reported supporting results for PE sub-dimensions role of determining employee engagement (beta = MEA / ,34; COM / ,24; SLDT / ,07 and IMP / ,10). Similarly, Jha (2011) in the study of PE's role on organizational commitment in Indian IT sector reported that PE and its sub-dimension significantly regressed with organizational commitment explaining 13,5 percent variance $\beta = ,37$. (beta resp. MEA, COM, SLDT and IMP on organizational commitment ,288; ,078; ,201; ,367).

For hypothesis three, it can be concluded that meaning and competence dimensions help employees form their discrepancy, appropriateness and efficacy and valence beliefs about organizational change in a way that if they feel that organizational change is meaningful and employee's potential and competence is enough to challenge the change, employees meaning making beliefs and self-efficacy feelings will strengthen their beliefs for change need, the effectiveness of change process that organization will handle the issue potentially well and employees with their efficacy could make this happen and at the end, there will be positive outcomes for employees. On the other hand, autonomy feelings seem to be related with principal support management ($R^2 = 7\%$) and principal support colleagues ($R^2 = 2, 9\%$). It could be assumed that autonomy feelings could be implemented only with appropriate organizational structure with management support. In SEM analyses for involvement, consistency, adaptability and mission cultures for holistic models, overall psychological empowerment strongly affected employees' change beliefs. Estimations of PE on OCRBs for INV, CON, ADP and MIS are respectively 0, 24; 0, 25; 0, 254; 0, 24. These standard estimation rates signify as strong relations as observed on organizational culture traits and OCRBs. It can be safely concluded that psychological empowerment is among the predictors of OBRBs.

The last hypothesis searched the psychological empowerment mediation role between organizational culture traits and employees' change beliefs. This claim was tested firstly via SPSS for a deeper understanding of survey instruments and their sub-dimensions role in this mediation. Second was done via AMOS SEM analyses computing only overall variables under one model for each organizational culture. It was observed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the relationship between organizational culture and OCRBs. It increased the variance 2,2 percent compared to direct regression between OC and OCRBs.

SPSS analyses showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the involvement culture and employees' organizational change beliefs (H1.1: $R^2 = 16,6$ / H4.1: $R^2 = 19,1$). Although it is not a big effect, considering many organizational change parameters and its humanistic nature, this mediation matters. In general, it can be concluded that employees change need beliefs (discrepancy), and the appropriateness of change process for employees and employees' self-efficacy beliefs and outcome expectation from change efforts are partially mediated by PE through meaning and competence sub-dimensions not by self-determination. Involvement culture fosters employee empowerment, team orientation and capability development for internal integration to handle external environment. Thus, for organizations in the process of organizational change through involvement culture, employees' competence feelings and assessment of organizational change as meaningful would trigger discrepancy, appropriateness, and efficacy and valence beliefs positively. Psychologically empowered employees would welcome change efforts enthusiastically than who were not. Discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs are mostly related with inner state of employees (Menon, 2004; Morin et. al, 2015). Thus, psychological empowerment effective on individual level matches well with these beliefs. Autonomy or self-determination by nature depends upon mutually to individual and organizational content, or simply leadership as observed in the sample dataset. Self-determination only partially mediates involvement culture and principal support management. Apart from self-determination, psychological empowerment and competence and meaning sub-dimensions have no mediating role between involvement culture and principal support management and principal support colleagues. This is more direct relationship between involvement culture and PSm and PSc. Co-workers as idea agents contribute directly shaping support toward organizational change ($\beta=0,508$; $R^2 = 25,8$). Management or leaders as change agents have a

direct role forming employees change beliefs for PSm ($\beta=0,514$; $R^2 = 26,4\%$). Naturally, leadership style for fostering involvement culture should emphasize on teamwork, improving interpersonal relations and communication, capability development in a compassion and caring manner (Cameron et. al, 2006). The holistic model tested in SEM for involvement culture also yielded similar result for a partial mediation. The fitness-of-goodness indices simultaneously were significant.

SPSS analyses for consistency culture showed that psychological empowerment partially mediated the consistency culture and employees' organizational change beliefs (H1.2: $R^2 = 17, 3$ / H4.2: $R^2 = 20, 3$). In general, it can be concluded that partial mediation effect could be observed between discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs of employees and psychological empowerment through its sub-dimensions of meaning and competence. Self-determination had no mediating effect except for principal support management. Similar to involvement culture, principal support management and principal support colleagues are affected directly by consistency culture. Colleagues contribute directly shaping support beliefs toward organizational change ($\beta=0,522$; $R^2 = 27, 2$). Management or leaders as change agents have a direct role forming employees change beliefs for PSm ($\beta=0,580$; $R^2 = 33,7\%$). Consistency culture handles external adaptation through organizational control and stability by exerting rules and procedures. Leadership who has to foster consistency culture through core values, general agreement on organizational issues and strong coordination and integration among organizational units should emphasize on rational analysis, information clarity, high leadership reliability, well defined processes and effective measurement and appraisal rules (Cameron et al. 2006). On the other hand, AMOS SEM analysis for consistency culture model did not produce acceptable p values, $p > (0, 05)$. Although goodness of fit values were mostly under acceptable limits and the variance explained significantly increased, because of p value's result, it could not be mentioned satisfactorily for a partial mediation of psychological empowerment.

Adaptability culture from SPSS analyses indicated that psychological empowerment partially mediated the adaptability culture and employees' organizational change beliefs (H1.3: $R^2 = 17, 3$ / H4.3: $R^2 = 20, 3$). In general, it can be concluded that partial mediation effect could be seen between discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs of employees and

psychological empowerment through its sub-dimensions of meaning and competence. Self-determination again had no mediating effect except for principal support management. Similar to involvement and consistency cultures, principal support management and principal support colleagues are affected directly by adaptability culture. Co-workers play a role in forming principal support colleagues toward organizational change ($\beta=0,437$; $R^2 = 19,1$). Management or leaders as change agents have a direct role shaping employees change beliefs for PSm ($\beta=0,574$; $R^2 = 32,9\%$). Adaptability culture handles external adaptation through flexibility and readiness by emphasizing on growth and resource allocation. Management should improve adaptability culture through core values creativity and change, customer focus and organizational learning. Since leadership is the basic mechanism to increase employees principal support beliefs, for fostering adaptability characteristics, management should support employees towards innovation and entrepreneurship, should create a visionary future portrait for the organization and agility (Cameron et al. 2006). On the other hand, AMOS SEM analysis for adaptability culture model did not show significant p values, $p > (0,05)$. Despite mostly acceptable GOF indices and the variance and high variance explanation, because of p value's result, the model for adaptability culture could not be supported fully.

Mission culture followed exactly the same path such as involvement culture in both SPSS and AMOS SEM analyses. Mission culture model in SEM was significantly supported. Mission culture leaders should emphasize on strategic direction, goals and objectives and vision for fostering mission culture by leading the organizations through competitiveness, strong customer relations (patient relations for the current dataset), demanding on fast responses and timely decisions for customer returns, hard work and naturally achievement such as sales and profit growth (Cameron et al. 2014).

Thus, out of detailed SPSS analyses, SEM model could be verified for main hypotheses. Consistency culture and adaptability culture were not statistically significant because of the just on the limit p values, involvement and mission cultures showed a significant fit. Considering the private health sector's structure in terms of achievement demands from organization side and caring and collaborating demands from highly educated employees, this combination could figure out general characteristic culture of a health care institution and the contradiction between two sides.

4.2. Discussion

Change is the everlasting phenomena in human lives. By nature to some degree, strain can be unavoidable and it would be expectable that some people would not highly welcome change. Nevertheless, change is inevitable since organizational life is under heavy pressures from the external environment by macroeconomic forces, both local and global competition, technological changes, growing need for innovation, ever-growing customer demands. On the other hand, leaders, managers and employees under pressure from external forces have to cope with the demands effectively to create quality products and services, increase productivity, satisfy internal needs, and develop employee engagement for organizational sustainability. Many change efforts under popular quality management systems – TQM, reengineering, downsizing, mergers to put into force as a response to this challenge failed increasing further burdens on organizations. The remedy to solving these problems seems to be concentrating on inner state of organizations and activating employee engagement. In this respect, the construct of organizational culture provides the necessary formulation for external adaptation and internal integration. Since all change efforts for a desired state connotes culture change or emphasize on fostering soil by providing structure, human resource policies, and appropriate resource allocation to support the desired ends. Thus, it is evident that employees' commitment to change is a way to successful implementation and their motivation toward organization change is the key that change agents could operationalize internally to answer forces pushing toward achievement. Managers might think intensively the impact of change on employees and how they would appraise it. Management communication is crucially important and should be planned considering these effects. It is obvious that communication help decrease uncertainty and ambiguity feeling. Active involvement of employees in the change period, open and fair communication about the reason of change need and new vision, managerial support, clear expectations from employees in the new organizational environment are steps for employees' readiness for change.

The dissertation has been contended based on interplay between organizational culture, employees' beliefs toward organizational change and psychological empowerment. Organizational culture as a contextual factor has been assumed to provide the soil to spring employees' readiness to change in the light of five beliefs: discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy, valence and principal support management and principal support colleagues. Although organizational culture represents only one part of the organizational context, it is evident by conceptual construct of it that underlying beliefs and values and organizational practices set the foundation of employees' behaviors and attitudes toward organizational events. Thus, change efforts consciously or unconsciously tend to change these organizational practices by triggering underlying assumptions and values. Denison and his friends' organizational culture studies connected it with organizational effectiveness. These studies and many other studies provided worldwide support for effectiveness and organizational culture relationship and further studies reported that organizational culture is closely linked to all organizational issues. Relatively few studies searched organizational culture and employees change readiness. However, as the source of employee behaviors and attitudes, it was rational to assume that organizational culture would have a role on change readiness beliefs. The study provided support that organizational culture plays a major role in directly shaping employees' change readiness beliefs. It is important to note that this role is huge in shaping and directing employees' principal support beliefs from management and colleagues' sides. Nevertheless, it is apparent from the point view that organizational culture consists of four sub-cultural forms namely involvement culture, consistency culture, adaptability culture and mission culture each representing or focusing on different external adaptation and internal integration issues. Change efforts would consider manipulating cultural traits to organizational development that will necessitate implying different leadership styles appropriate to dominant cultural trait specification. Change leadership should consider this difference. An organizational change toward a hierarchical culture would need an emphasis on task leadership or toward an adaptability; culture would entail more visionary form of leadership leaning on vision for future, urging creative thinking, facilitating organizational learning and so on. Such an attentive style of leadership practices will increase employees and their co-workers principal support beliefs to actively involve and work for change initiatives.

Discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs carry attributes that are more individual characteristics in organizational change. Organizational culture's effect on these beliefs is limited compared to principal support. However, their role in preparing employees' readiness to change contributes directly to the success of organizational change efforts. The results of the dissertation assert that psychological empowerment plays a triggering role to manipulate discrepancy, appropriateness, efficacy and valence beliefs. In general, psychological empowerment is a powerful approach to be considered in change periods to improve employees' attributes to meaning, competence, self-determination since existing of these feelings in inner state leads employees to form supportive attitudes and behaviors toward organizational change. Organizational culture traits did not show strong determination effect on psychological empowerment although it was significant. However, this should not end up with underestimation of psychological empowerment role. It simply implies that organizational culture is not the most powerful contextual antecedent of organizational culture. The contextual antecedents of psychological empowerment were listed for high-performance managerial practices, socio-political support, leadership and work design characteristics. Additionally, positive self-evaluation, personal self-efficacy and human capital as individual characteristics help forming psychological empowerment (Seibert et. al, 2011). Thus, these factors are not fully or appropriately included in the formulation of organizational culture survey despite the connotation to these factors are also the important antecedents of differing organizational culture forms. Additionally, this study did not consider structural empowerment in the overall model. However, socio-structural empowerment through its core elements (e.g. access to information and resources, socio-political support) was linked to psychological empowerment determination (Spreitzer, 2008). The dissertation did not include structural empowerment in the research model. This could be a major limitation in the study for globally assessing role of empowerment. However, it can be concluded that employee empowerment for organizational change cannot be achieved only by structural empowerment. Employees' feeling of competence, self-determination and meaning out of their jobs help them feel psychologically empowered. Such an empowerment combination would mean the human-side consideration for organizational change endeavors.

Employee autonomy or self-determination dimension of psychological empowerment formed the bridge role between organizational culture traits and principal support management that is the basic deviation from general conclusion. Self-determination's partial mediation in the current study indicates that this dimension has an important motivation effect for employees' feeling of principal support. Keeping in mind that this study was held in health sector with highly educated staff, leaders should consider an open space for employees to organize their jobs since self-determination practiced in workplace consequently leads to higher organizational commitment and less job strain. SEM analysis conformed that psychological empowerment partially mediates the relationship between involvement and mission culture and employees' change beliefs. Such a combination of focus generates a stark contrast between these two organizational culture traits. Since survey data indicated high meaning and competence, self-determination would seem to be an attractive HR initiative to overcome stark contrast for the sake of employees' high support toward change and creativity as workplace practices. Such a contrast could even cause to better performance and fruitful competition.

Although it has been claimed that effective organizations are those that successfully manage four organizational cultures effectively, it requires time, money and strict commitment to development to realize this claim. To take each sub-dimension into a balanced structure appropriate level for the urgent organizational needs would be a good point to start change. For most of organizational world, organizational culture is still a blurry concept. Its role in organizational lives seems not to be understood. This is partly because the definition of it with underlying assumptions and values. Managers should make the connections between their daily practices and what unconscious underlying beliefs and their consequences in organizational life.

4.3. Managerial Implications

Organizational culture studies mostly searched its role on organizational effectiveness. The worldwide support to this relationship entails the importance of organizational culture awareness toward unavoidable change efforts. Change efforts mostly related with culture change through desired behaviors. However, organization culture cannot be observed

materially easily and prevails under espoused beliefs and assumptions. Thus, acceptance and awareness of this phenomenon by the change agents would shed light on what to change on management and employee minds first. Otherwise, all change efforts would stuck on surface level success if happens and would not last long, since strong cultural resistance would not help internalize new organizational reality into organizational practices. Organizational inertia is hidden in prevailing culture echoing in employee assumptions. Management major responsibility is to be aware and alert to this cultural burden in all steps of organizational change. Although organizational culture seems to be a foggy area, an intention to understand it through an unbiased inspection with change recipients would give the hints to change agents or consultants about it. Nevertheless, there is always risk that management could be an important source to prevailing assumptions and ongoing unfruitful organizational practices. The study clearly identified the role of management on organizational change. Such an unfavorable management attitude could help develop negative beliefs by employees if they observe change is not supported by management or the gap between what management ask from employees and what they do in requested demands. "Walking the talk – doing what is asked" by the management is the crucial breakeven point in change endeavors, since positive perception of management demands by idea champions, opinion leaders or respected peers and colleagues is affected by it and principal support colleagues is as important as management support.

Consistent leadership attitudes toward desired behavior change would help decrease questions in change recipients' minds. A change request towards innovation culture will differ from a change initiative toward control culture. Innovation culture bolsters with leading efforts toward encouraging employees for new ideas, creativity, flexibility, open communication, agility and less control on employees. On the other hand, an initiative towards consistency culture necessitates a leadership with careful problems analysis, clear goals and policies, ensuring accuracy, focus on eliminating mistakes, well-defined processes and measurement. Leadership should match leadership style appropriate to change requirements.

Employees' strains out of uncertainty and ambiguity is unavoidable and management today is not omnipotent to create a problem-free organizational life. But, what could be possible to

empower employees or at least a certain part of them to become responsible for organizational decisions and provide them with clear goals accompanied by clear directions. Depending on the organizational requirement, empowered employees would not perceive powerless on their organizational destiny and encouraging them to be a responsible part of organizational change – life- processes would increase the chance of success of organizational events. Fostering organizational structures toward empowerment requires being aware of what employees feel about their competence to do their jobs, if they find their jobs meaningful and have a say how to do this job. Although this study observed high competence and meaning characteristics of employees, in many cases employees are resistant to change, or more clearly to threats out of new requirements and risks leading to loss of control their jobs and afraid lack of or insufficient self-efficacy feelings to cope with change demands. Thus, management had better detect this risk earlier to overcome such feelings with organizational trainings and any other HR practices. Meanwhile considering diverse employee responses normal because of diverse individualistic traits and many other human issues, management should insist on being aware of employee competence feelings and provide solutions adopting persuasive communication, ensuring active participation of employees on problem detecting – solving and decision making processes and provide examples how others overcame problems and so on. A sincere employee-centric approach to this problem could create and propose many other options appropriate on specific organization basis. Such an approach could be completed only if employees accept and act accordingly since empowerment has two sides to be considered. Active involvement employees into organizational events will ease employees' beliefs toward change and their awareness of new organizational needs, methods to realize them. Such an approach would shape employees what to accept out of change efforts and put their data into process by defining organizational and individual efficacy and remove any inconsistency if any through open communication. Organizational trust naturally plays a dominant role to bolster such mutual communication between employees and organization. Employee-centric approach is organizational preference. Such an approach mandates organizations to adopt appropriate practices to hear employees' voices.

Change leaders should concern for psychological state of empowerment as much as they considered need for change. Mental and emotional readiness of employees during all organizational change steps make processes smoother. In this study, self-determination

seemed to be relatively weak point of empowerment. Providing employees with the option to arrange their jobs under organization limits would strengthen employees and help them prosper individually defined ways to succeed organizational ends. Competence could take this role for other organizations. Managers should equip themselves to understand psychological needs of employees to get employees real support. Measurement of psychological empowerment could be provided by sincere communication with employees or respected representatives.

Changing an organization into a desired cultural form and fostering employees' behavior and attitudes through empowerment necessitate a holistic evaluation of organizational strategy and structure, leadership style and high performance organizational practices with control and reward mechanisms. Only when these constituents are operationalized altogether culture change could be achieved and employees' positive perceptions could be embedded into organizational culture in such a harmony whatever organizational culture trait is would trigger empowerment.

4.4. Limitations and Future Research

The study has a few limitations. Organizational culture was measured by short version of the original scale. Although adopted version into Turkish had all verification, original scale could provide a deeper insight. Secondly, organizational culture is unique for all organizations. The study by its construct was realized for private health care sector. Individual company implementation could explain phenomenon more precisely for commenting the results. Thirdly, empowerment construct can not be limited only to psychological empowerment. The early studies on empowerment referred mostly to structural empowerment on macro form. Later studies involved and developed on psychological empowerment and contended that structure empowerment, organizational wise structural and practices was considered to be the antecedent of psychological empowerment. This study did not measure structural empowerment. Thus, this point is an important limitation since the study could not determine if employees were provided with information, opportunity and resources that help them form psychological states toward empowerment.

Organizational culture was found to be a weak predictor of psychological empowerment in the current dataset. However, this result cannot be generalized. Psychological empowerment concept still provides areas to develop, especially in different national cultures. National culture and its effect on psychological empowerment could be an insightful research topic and its joint evaluation with organizational culture. Furthermore, psychological empowerment role on employees' change readiness under different samples could help further development of the concept. This study considered health care sector, however individual company research could highlight variables' role on specific organization. Also longitudinal research of an organization under change initiatives in before, implementation and institutionalization processes could help understanding of employees' change beliefs on time continuum with management reactions and its development into a practical application of current survey instruments.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Dissertation Questionnaire

QUESTIONNAIRE					
1. Cinsiyetiniz	(1) Kadın	(2) Erkek			
2. Yaşınız	(1) 20 ve altı (5) 51- 60	(2) 21 - 30 (6) 61 ve üstü	(3) 31 - 40	(4) 41 - 50	
3. Eğitim Durumunuz	(1) ilkokul / ortaokul (4) Yüksek Lisans	(2) Lise (5) Doktora	(3) Üniversite		
4. Mevcut işyerindeki çalışma süreniz	(1) 1 yıldan az	(2) 1-3 yıl	(3) 4-6 yıl	(4) 7-9 yıl	(5) 10 yıldan fazla
5. Toplam çalışma süreniz	(1) 1-5 yıl	(2) 6-10 yıl	(3) 11-15 yıl	(4) 16-20 yıl	(5) 21 yıl ve üzeri
6. Göreviniz	(1) Eleman Stajyer Doktor, Pratisyen Hekim, Hemşire (2) Uzman doktor (3) Amir, Şef, Ustabaşı (4) Orta kademe yöneticisi (5) Üst düzey yönetici				
7. Çalıştığınız departman	(1) Satış pazarlama (2) Muhasebe-finans (3) AR-GE (4) Hizmet (satınalma, hukuk, satış sonrası hizmetler, danışmanlık vb) (5) Teknik – Bilgi işlem				

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum	katılmıyorum	kararsızım	katılıyorum	kesinlikle katılıyorum
8. Şirketimizde bir değişim uygulayarak performansımızı iyileştirmemiz gerekiyor	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
9. Operasyonlarımızı geliştirmek için değişime ihtiyaç bulunmaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
10. Operasyonlarımızda değişiklikler yaparak etkinliğimizi geliştirmemiz gerekiyor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
11. Bu şirkette iş yapış tarzımızı geliştirmemiz gerekiyor	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
12. Şirketimizde yaptığımız bazı uygulamaların yapılış tarzını değiştirmemiz gerekiyor	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
13. Bu organizasyondaki üst düzey yöneticiler söylemlerine uygun şekilde davranırlar	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
14. Yöneticim bu değişimi destekliyor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
15. Yöneticim bu değişimi desteklemem için beni teşvik ediyor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
16. Üst düzey yöneticiler bu değişimi destekliyor	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
17. Meslektaşlarımızın çoğu sunulan örgütsel değişimi benimsiyor.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
18. Meslektaşlarımızın çoğu bu değişimi gerçekleştirmeye kendilerini adadılar	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
19. Uygulamakta olduğumuz değişim işletmemiz için doğru bir karardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
20. Operasyonlarımızdaki değişim, şirketimizin performansını geliştirecektir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
21. Bu örgütsel değişimin, organizasyonumuz için en iyi seçenek olduğu ortaya çıkacaktır	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
22. Önerilen örgütsel değişikliğin operasyonlarımız üzerinde olumlu etkisi olacağına inanıyorum	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
23. Bu değişim hakkında düşündüğümde, organizasyonumuz için uygun olduğunu fark ediyorum	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
24. İşimdeki bu değişimle birlikte, daha fazla kendimi gerçekleştirme (potansiyelimi kullanma) deneyimi kazanacağım	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
25. Bu değişimden sonra işimden daha çok para kazanacağım	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
26. Değişim bana fayda sağlayacak.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
27. Değişim sonrası görev tanımımdaki güncelleme, başarı duygularımı arttıracaktır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
28. Bu değişimi işimde uygulayabilirim	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
29. Önerilen organizasyonel değişim ile, iş sorumluluklarımı başarıyla yerine getirebilirim	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
30. Değişimi başarıyla uygulayabileceğimize inanıyorum	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
31. Bu değişikliği başarıyla uygulama şirketel yetkinliğine sahibiz	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum	katılmıyorum	kararsızım	katılıyorum	kesinlikle katılıyorum
32. Çalışanların çoğunluğu yaptıkları işle bütünleşmişlerdir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
33. Çalışanlar arasında yeterli ölçüde bilgi paylaşımı olduğundan, gerektiğinde herkes istenilen bilgiye ulaşabilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
34. İş planları yapılırken, tüm çalışanlar karar verme sürecine belli ölçüde dahil edilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
35. Farklı bölümler (departmanlar) arasında işbirliği yapılamamaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
36. Takım çalışması yapılması, bütün iş faaliyetlerinde esas alınmaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
37. Tüm çalışanlar kendi görevleri ile işletmenin amaçları arasındaki ilişkiyi kavramıştır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
38. Çalışanlara kendi işlerini planlamaları için gerekli yetki verilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
39.. Çalışanlarımızın iş-görme kapasiteleri sürekli bir gelişim göstermektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
40. Çalışanların iş-görme becerilerini artırmak için gereken her şey yapılmaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
41. Yöneticiler söylediklerini uygulamaktadırlar.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
42. İş-görme yöntemlerimize yol gösteren net ve tutarlı bir değerler sistemimiz vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
43. İşlerin yürütülmesinde davranışlarımızı yönlendiren ve doğru ile yanlışın ayırt edilmesini sağlayan (etik) değerler yoktur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
44. İş faaliyetlerinde bir anlaşmazlık meydana geldiğinde, her bir çalışan tatmin edici bir çözüm bulmak için çok gayret göstermektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
45. Bu iş yerinde güçlü bir işletme kültürü vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
46. Problematik konularda dahi kolayca bir görüş birliği sağlanabilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
47. Çalışanlarımız işletmenin farklı bölümlerinde de olsalar iş faaliyetleri açısından ortak bir bakış açısını paylaşabilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
48. İşletmenin farklı bölümleri tarafından yürütülen projeler kolayca koordine edilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
49. Başka bölümden bir kişiyle çalışmak, adeta farklı bir işletmeden birisiyle çalışmak gibidir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum	katılmıyorum	kararsızım	katılıyorum	kesinlikle katılıyorum
50. İş-görme tarzımız oldukça esnek ve değişime açıktır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
51. Rakip firmaların faaliyetleri ve iş alanındaki değişimlere bağlı olarak yönetim, uygun stratejiler geliştirilebilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
52. İş alanımızdaki yenilik ve gelişimler, yönetim tarafından izlenmekte ve uygulanmaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
53. Müşterilerin istek ve önerileri, iş faaliyetlerinde sıklıkla değişiklikler yapılmasına yol açabilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
54. Tüm çalışanlar, müşterilerimizin istek ve ihtiyaçlarını anlamağa özen göstermektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
55. Müşteri istemleri (talepleri) iş faaliyetlerimizde genellikle dikkate alınmamaktadır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
56. Herhangi bir başarısızlıkla karşılaşıldığında bu, yönetim tarafından, gelişim ve öğrenme için bir fırsat olarak değerlendirilir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
57. Yenilikçilik ve yapılan işlerde risk almak, yönetimde istenmekte ve ödüllendirilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
58. Çalışanların işleriyle ilgili olarak öğrenmeleri (yeni bilgiler edinmesi) önemli bir amaçtır	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
59. Uzun-dönemli bir iş programı ve belli bir gelişim planımız mevcuttur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
60. Çalışanların yaptıkları işlere yön verebilecek net, açık bir işletme misyonumuz vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
61. İşletmenin geleceğine yönelik olarak belirlenmiş stratejik bir iş-planlaması yoktur.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
62. İşletmenin faaliyet amaçlarına ilişkin olarak çalışanlar arasında tam bir uzlaşma vardır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
63. Yöneticiler, işletmemizin temel hedefleri doğrultusunda hareket edebilmektedirler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
64. Çalışanlar, uzun dönemde işletmenin başarılı olabilmesi için yapılması gerekenleri bilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
65. Çalışanlar, geleceğe yönelik olarak belirlenmiş olan işletme vizyonunu paylaşmaktan uzaktır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
66. Yöneticilerimiz uzun-dönemli bir bakış açısına sahiptirler.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
67. Kısa-dönemli iş-talepleri, vizyonumuzdan ödün vermeden karşılaşılabilmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

	kesinlikle katılmıyorum	katılmıyorum	kararsızım	katılıyorum	kesinlikle katılıyorum
68. Yaptığım iş benim için çok önemlidir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
69. İş yapmak için verdiğim uğraş benim için kişisel olarak anlamlıdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
70. Yaptığım iş benim için anlamlıdır.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
71. İşimi yapma yeteneğim konusunda kendimden eminim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
72. İşteki faaliyetleri yerine getirecek kapasitede olduğuma inanıyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
73. İş yapmak için gereken becerileri edindim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
74. İşimi nasıl yapacağımın kararını vermek için büyük ölçüde serbestiye sahibim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
75. İş nasıl yapacağıma dair kendi başıma karar verebilirim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
76. İşimi nasıl yapacağıma dair büyük ölçüde özgürlüğüm ve fırsatım var.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
77. Çalıştığım bölümde iş aktivitelerini büyük ölçüde etkiliyorum.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
78. Çalıştığım bölümde iş süreçlerini büyük ölçüde ben kontrol ederim.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)
79. Çalıştığım bölümdeki iş aktivitelerinde önemli ölçüde hüküm/sözüm geçmektedir.	(1)	(2)	(3)	(4)	(5)

APPENDIX B1 Denison's Organizational Culture Scale (Original) in English

- The short version used items marked in italic.

Involvement Culture

Empowerment

- (1) *Most employees are highly involved in their work*
- (2) Decisions are usually made at the level where the best information is available
- (3) *Information is widely shared so that everyone can get the information he or she needs when it is needed*
- (4) Everyone believes that he or she can have a positive impact
- (5) *Business planning is ongoing and involves everyone in the process to some degree*

Team orientation

- (1) *Cooperation across different parts of the organization is actively encouraged*
- (2) People work like they are part of a team
- (3) Teamwork is used to get work done
- (4) *Teams are our primary building blocks*
- (5) *Work is organized so that each person can see the relationship between his or her job and the goals of the organization*

Capability development

- (1) *Authority is delegated so that people can act on their own*
- (2) *The "bench strength" (capability of people) is constantly improving*
- (3) *There is continuous investment in the skills of employees*
- (4) The capabilities of people are viewed as an important source of competitive advantage
- (5) Problems often arise because we do not have the skills necessary to do the job (R)

Consistency Culture

Core values

- (1) *The leaders and managers "practice what they preach"*
- (2) *There is a characteristic management style and a distinct set of management practices*
- (3) *There is a clear and consistent set of values that governs the way we do business*
- (4) Ignoring core values will get you in trouble
- (5) There is an ethical code that guides our behavior and tells us right from wrong

Agreement

- (1) When disagreements occur, we work hard to achieve "win-win" solutions
- (2) *There is a "strong" culture*
- (3) *It is easy to reach consensus, even on difficult issues*
- (4) We often have trouble reaching agreement on key issues (R)
- (5) There is a clear agreement about the right way and the wrong way to do things

Coordination and integration

- (1) Our approach in doing business is very consistent and predictable
- (2) *People from different parts of the organization share a common perspective*
- (3) *It is easy to coordinate projects across different parts of the company*
- (4) *Working with someone from another part of this organization is like working with someone from a different organization (R)*
- (5) There is a good alignment of goals across levels

Adaptability Culture

Creating change

- (1) *The way things are done is very flexible and easy to change*
- (2) *We respond well to competitors and other changes in the business environment*
- (3) *New and improved ways to do work are continually adopted*
- (4) *Attempts to create change usually meet with resistance (R)*
- (5) *Different parts of the organization often cooperate to create change*

Customer focus

- (1) *Customer comments and recommendations often lead to changes*
- (2) *Customer input directly influences our decisions*
- (3) *All members have a deep understanding of customer wants and needs*
- (4) *The interests of the customer often get ignored in our decisions (R)*
- (5) *We encourage direct contact with customers by our people*

Organizational learning

- (1) *We view failure as an opportunity for learning and improvement*
- (2) *Innovation and risk taking are encouraged and rewarded*
- (3) *Lots of things “fall between the cracks” (R)*
- (4) *Learning is an important objective in our day-to-day work*
- (5) *We make certain that the “right hand knows what the left hand is doing”*

Mission Culture

Strategic Direction and Intent

- (1) *There is a long-term purpose and direction*
- (2) *Our strategy leads other organizations to change the way they compete in the industry*
- (3) *There is a clear mission that gives meaning and direction to our work*
- (4) *There is a clear strategy for the future*
- (5) *Our strategic direction is unclear (R)*

Goals and objectives

- (1) *There is widespread agreement about goals*
- (2) *Leaders set goals that are ambitious, but realistic*
- (3) *The leadership has “gone on record” about the objectives we are trying to meet*
- (4) *We continuously track our progress against our stated goals*
- (5) *People understand what needs to be done for us to succeed in the long run*

Vision

- (1) *We have a shared vision of what the organization will be like in the future*
- (2) *Leaders have a long-term viewpoint*
- (3) *Short-term thinking often compromises our long-term vision (R)*
- (4) *Our vision creates excitement and motivation for our employees*
- (5) *We are able to meet short-term demands without compromising our long-term vision*

APPENDIX B2 Denison's Organizational Culture Scale Turkish

ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE

abb.

INV Involvement

EMP Empowerment

- IE1 1. Çalışanların çoğunluğu yaptıkları işle bütünleşmişlerdir.
- IE2 2. Çalışanlar arasında yeterli ölçüde bilgi paylaşımı olduğundan, gerektiğinde herkes istenilen bilgiye ulaşabilmektedir.
- IE3 3. İş planları yapılırken, tüm çalışanlar karar verme sürecine belli ölçüde dahil edilmektedir.

TOR Team Orientation

- IT1 4. Farklı bölümler (departmanlar) arasında işbirliği yapılamamaktadır. **Rev.Qu.**
- IT2 5. Takım çalışması yapılması, bütün iş faaliyetlerinde esas alınmaktadır.
- IT3 6. Tüm çalışanlar kendi görevleri ile işletmenin amaçları arasındaki ilişkiyi kavramıştır.

CAD Capability Development

- IC1 7. Çalışanlara kendi işlerini planlamaları için gerekli yetki verilmektedir.
- IC2 8. Çalışanlarımızın iş-görme kapasiteleri sürekli bir gelişim göstermektedir.
- IC3 9. Çalışanların iş-görme becerilerini artırmak için gereken her şey yapılmaktadır.

CON Consistency

CVL Core Values

- CV1 10. Yöneticiler söylediklerini uygulamaktadırlar.
- CV2 11. İş-görme yöntemlerimize yol gösteren net ve tutarlı bir değerler sistemimiz vardır.
- CV3 12. İşlerin yürütülmesinde davranışlarımızı yönlendiren ve doğru ile yanlışın ayırt edilmesini sağlayan (etik) değerler yoktur. **Rev.Qu.**

AGR Agreement

- CA1 13. İş faaliyetlerinde bir anlaşmazlık meydana geldiğinde, her bir çalışan tatmin edici bir çözüm bulmak için çok gayret göstermektedir.
- CA2 14. Bu iş yerinde güçlü bir işletme kültürü vardır.
- CA3 15. Problematik konularda dahi kolayca bir görüş birliği sağlanabilmektedir.

CI Coordination and Integration

- CI1 16. Çalışanlarımız işletmenin farklı bölümlerinde de olsalar iş faaliyetleri açısından ortak bir bakış açısını paylaşabilmektedir.
- CI2 17. İşletmenin farklı bölümleri tarafından yürütülen projeler kolayca koordine edilmektedir.
- CI3 18. Başka bölümden bir kişiyle çalışmak, adeta farklı bir işletmeden birisiyle çalışmak gibidir. **Rev.Qu.**

ADP **Adaptability**

CRC **Creativity - Change**

- AC1 19. İş-görme tarzımız oldukça esnek ve değişime açıktır.
- AC2 20. Rakip firmaların faaliyetleri ve iş alanındaki değişimlere bağlı olarak yönetim, uygun stratejiler geliştirilebilmektedir.
- AC3 21. İş alanımızdaki yenilik ve gelişimler, yönetim tarafından izlenmekte ve uygulanmaktadır.

CF **Customer Focus**

- AF1 22. Müşterilerin istek ve önerileri, iş faaliyetlerinde sıklıkla değişiklikler yapılmasına yol açabilmektedir.
- AF2 23. Tüm çalışanlar, müşterilerimizin istek ve ihtiyaçlarını anlamağa özen göstermektedir.
- AF3 24. *Müşteri istemleri (talepleri) iş faaliyetlerimizde genellikle dikkate alınmamaktadır. Rev.Qu.*

OL **Organizational Learning**

- AO1 25. Herhangi bir başarısızlıkla karşılaşıldığında bu, yönetim tarafından, gelişim ve öğrenme için bir fırsat olarak değerlendirilir.
- AO2 26. Yenilikçilik ve yapılan işlerde risk almak, yönetimce istenmekte ve ödüllendirilmektedir.
- AO3 27. Çalışanların işleriyle ilgili olarak öğrenmeleri (yeni bilgiler edinmesi) önemli bir amaçtır.

MIS **Mission**

SDI **Strategic Direction and Intent**

- MS1 28. Uzun-dönemli bir iş programı ve belli bir gelişim planımız mevcuttur.
- MS2 29. Çalışanların yaptıkları işlere yön verebilecek net, açık bir işletme misyonumuz vardır.
- MS3 30. *İşletmenin geleceğine yönelik olarak belirlenmiş stratejik bir iş-planlaması yoktur. Rev.Qu.*

GO **Goals and Objectives**

- MG1 31. İşletmenin faaliyet amaçlarına ilişkin olarak çalışanlar arasında tam bir uzlaşma vardır.
- MG2 32. Yöneticiler, işletmemizin temel hedefleri doğrultusunda hareket edebilmektedirler.
- MG3 33. Çalışanlar, uzun dönemde işletmenin başarılı olabilmesi için yapılması gerekenleri bilmektedir.

VIS **Vision**

- MV1 34. *Çalışanlar, geleceğe yönelik olarak belirlenmiş olan işletme vizyonunu paylaşmaktan uzaktır. RQ*
- MV2 35. Yöneticilerimiz uzun-dönemli bir bakış açısına sahiptirler.
- MV3 36. Kısa-dönemli iş-talepleri, vizyonumuzdan ödün vermeden karşılaşılabilmektedir.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT - SPEITZER

MEA **Meaning**

- Mn1 The work I do is very important to me.
- Mn2 My job activities are personally meaningful to me.
- Mn3 The work I do is meaningful to me.

COM **Competence**

- Cm1 I am confident about my ability to do my job.
- Cm2 I am self-assured about my capabilities to perform my work activities.
- Cm3 I have mastered the skills necessary for my job.

SLDT **Self-determination**

- SD1 I have significant autonomy in determining how I do my job.
- SD2 I can decide on my own how to go about doing my work.
- SD3 I have considerable opportunity for independence and freedom in how I do my job.

IMP **Impact**

- Im1 My impact on what happens in my department is large.
- Im2 I have a great deal of control over what happens in my department.
- Im3 I have significant influence over what happens in my department.

PSYCHOLOGICAL EMPOWERMENT - SPEITZER

MEA Meaning

- Mn1 1. Yaptığım iş benim için önemlidir.
Mn2 2. İşimde yaptıklarım benim için anlamlıdır.
Mn3 3. Yaptığım iş benim için anlamlıdır.

COM Competence

- Cm1 4. İşimi yapma yeteneğim konusunda kendimden eminim.
Cm2 5. İşteki faaliyetleri yerine getirecek kapasitede olduğuma inanıyorum.
Cm3 6. İş yapmak için gereken becerileri edindim.

SLDT Self-determination

- SD1 7. İşimi nasıl yapacağıma karar verirken önemli ölçüde yetkim var.
SD2 8. İş nasıl yapacağıma dair kendi başıma karar verebilirim.
SD3 9. İşimi nasıl yapacağıma dair önemli ölçüde bağımsızlık ve özgürlük olanağım var.

IMP Impact

- Im1 10. Çalıştığım bölümde olanlara etkim büyük.
Im2 11. Çalıştığım bölümde olanları büyük ölçüde ben kontrol ederim.
Im3 12. Çalıştığım bölümde olanlar üzerinde önemli ölçüde hükmüm geçmektedir

APPENDIX D1: Armenakis et al's Organizational Change Recipients' Scale English

Discrepancy

We need to improve our performance by implementing an organizational change
A change is needed to improve our operations
We need to improve our effectiveness by changing our operations
We need to improve the way we operate in this organization
We need to change the way we do some things in this organization

Principal Support

The top leaders in this organization are "walking the talk"
My immediate manager is in favor of this change
My immediate manager encourages me to support the change
The top leaders support this change

Most of my respected peers embrace the proposed organizational change
The majority of my respected peers are dedicated to making this change work

Appropriateness

The change that we are implementing is correct for our situation
The change in our operations will improve the performance of our organization
This organizational change will prove to be best for our situation
I believe the proposed organizational change will have a favorable effect on operations
When I think about this change, I realize it is appropriate for our organization

Valence

With this change in my job, I will experience more self-fulfillment
I will earn higher pay from my job after this change
This change will benefit me
The change in my job assignments will increase my feelings of accomplishment

Efficacy

I can implement this change in my job
I am capable of successfully performing my job duties with the proposed organizational change
I believe we can successfully implement this change
We have the capability to successfully implement this change

ORGANIZATIONAL CHANGE RECIPIENTS' BELIEFS - ARMENAKIS

DIS Discrepancy

- D25a 1. Şirketimizde bir değişim uygulayarak performansımızı iyileştirmemiz gerekiyor.
D20a 2. Operasyonlarımızı geliştirmek için değişime ihtiyaç bulunmaktadır.
D15a 3. Operasyonlarımızda değişiklikler yaparak etkinliğimizi geliştirmemiz gerekiyor.
D10a 4. Bu şirkette iş yapış tarzımızı geliştirmemiz gerekiyor.
D5a 5. Şirketimizde yaptığımız bazı uygulamaların yapılış tarzını değiştirmemiz gerekiyor.

PS Perceived Support

- PS7a 6. Şirketimizdeki üst düzey yöneticiler söylemlerine uygun şekilde davranırlar.
PS22a 7. Yöneticim bu değişimi destekliyor.
PS26a 8. Yöneticim bu değişimi desteklemem için beni teşvik ediyor.
PS12a 9. Üst düzey yöneticiler bu değişimi destekliyor.
PS2a 10. Meslektaşlarımın çoğu sunulan örgütsel değişimi benimsiyor.
PS17a 11. Meslektaşlarımın çoğu bu değişimi gerçekleştirmeye kendilerini adadılar.

APP Appopriatness

- A13a 12. Uygulamakta olduğumuz değişim işletmemiz için doğru bir karardır.
A8a 13. Operasyonlarımızdaki değişim, şirketimizin performansını geliştirecektir.
A23a 14. Bu örgütsel değişimin, şirketimiz için en iyi seçenek olduğu ortaya çıkacaktır.
15. Önerilen örgütsel değişikliğin operasyonlarımız üzerinde olumlu etkisi olacağına inanıyorum.
A3a
A18a 16. Bu değişim hakkında düşündüğümde, şirketimiz için uygun olduğunu fark ediyorum.

V Valence

17. İşimdeki bu değişimle birlikte, daha fazla kendimi gerçekleştirme (potansiyelimi kullanma) deneyimi kazanacağım.
V6a
V11a 18. Bu değişimden sonra işimden daha çok para kazanacağım.
V1a 19. Değişim bana fayda sağlayacak.
V16a 20. Değişim sonrası görev tanımımdaki güncelleme, başarı duygularımı arttıracaktır.

E Efficacy

- E9a 21. Bu değişimi işimde uygulayabilirim.
E14a 22. Önerilen organizasyonel değişim ile, iş sorumluluklarımı başarıyla yerine getirebilirim.
E19a 23. Bu değişimi başarıyla uygulayabileceğimize inanıyorum.
E24a 24. Bu değişikliği başarıyla uygulamak için şirketsel yetkinliğine sahibiz.

APPENDIX E Organizational Culture Scale Reliability Analysis Results

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Involvement Culture	0,922	61,116	0,908
IC2	0,827		
IC1	0,813		
IT3	0,812		
IE3	0,797		
IC3	0,790		
IT2	0,753		
IE2	0,743		
IE1	0,711		

Approx. Chi-Square = 4215,973

df = 28

significant $p < 0,000$

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Adaptability Culture	0,916	54,333	0,878
AC3	0,848		
AC2	0,801		
AO1	0,760		
AO2	0,747		
AC1	0,745		
AF1	0,702		
AF2	0,699		
AO3	0,561		

Approx. Chi-Square = 3238,137

df = 28

significant $p < 0,000$

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Consistency Culture	0,920	69,534	0,926
CA3	0,874		
CA2	0,862		
CI2	0,850		
CV2	0,838		
CI1	0,836		
CA1	0,788		
CV1	0,786		

Approx. Chi-Square = 4755,688

df = 21

significant $p < 0,000$

	KMO	Variance Explained	Cronbach's Alpha
Mission Culture	0,907	64,343	0,907
MV2	0,848		
MS2	0,847		
MG2	0,844		
MS1	0,808		
MG1	0,777		
MV3	0,749		
MG3	0,734		

Approx. Chi-Square = 3895,719

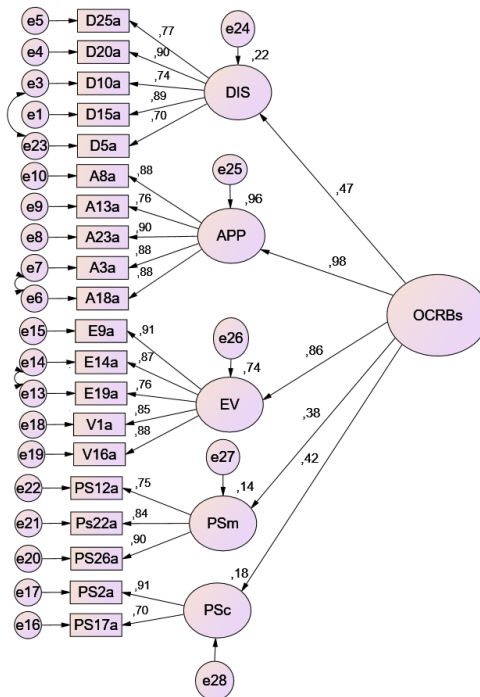
df = 21

significant $p < 0,000$

APPENDIX F Second Order CFA Analysis of OCRBs with Standardized Regression Weights

Efficacy & Valence -EV	standard estimate	p
V16a	0,876	***
E9a	0,905	***
E14a	0,874	***
E19a	0,764	***
V1a	0,851	***
Discrepancy - DIS		
D15a	0,889	***
D20a	0,896	***
D25a	0,773	***
D10a	0,735	***
D5a	0,700	***
Appropriateness - APP		
A23a	0,899	***
A8a	0,876	***
A3a	0,879	***
A13a	0,758	***
A18a	0,884	***
Principal Support Management - PSm		
PS26a	0,899	***
Ps22a	0,844	***
PS12a	0,752	***
Principal Support Colleagues - PSc		
PS17a	0,697	***
PS2a	0,913	***

*** p<0,001



Second-Order CFA analysis of OCRBs

APPENDIX G Correlation Analysis with all sub-scales

NO	Variable	Mean	Std. Deviation	OC	INV	EMP	TOR	CAD	CON	CVL	AGR	CI	ADT	CRC	CF	OL	MIS	SDI	GO	VIS	PE	MEA	COM	SLDT	OCRBS	DIS	APP	EV	PSC	PSm
1	OC	3.16	0.79	1																										
2	INV	3.14	0.86	.911	1																									
3	EMP	3.11	0.92	.812	.913	1																								
4	TOR	3.30	0.93	.780	.877	.715	1																							
5	CAD	3.06	0.97	.875	.927	.744	.745	1																						
6	CON	3.10	0.89	.951	.849	.749	.728	.822	1																					
7	CVL	3.03	1.02	.862	.770	.663	.635	.777	.884	1																				
8	AGR	3.10	0.94	.892	.795	.702	.689	.765	.953	.761	1																			
9	CI	3.16	0.96	.854	.761	.688	.669	.711	.899	.681	.806	1																		
10	ADP	3.17	0.82	.929	.771	.677	.632	.768	.840	.780	.779	.749	1																	
11	CRC	3.21	0.89	.873	.715	.623	.588	.717	.794	.731	.739	.710	.936	1																
12	CF	3.35	0.88	.761	.656	.593	.554	.627	.669	.594	.622	.623	.833	.685	1															
13	OL	2.94	0.99	.817	.668	.578	.533	.683	.750	.728	.690	.642	.872	.734	.581	1														
14	MIS	3.23	0.84	.930	.765	.677	.660	.735	.844	.772	.784	.761	.855	.811	.680	.758	1													
15	SDI	3.15	1.02	.817	.665	.587	.541	.663	.729	.703	.673	.625	.762	.723	.587	.695	.888	1												
16	GO	3.27	0.86	.891	.764	.690	.687	.704	.823	.705	.772	.782	.798	.753	.663	.689	.931	.721	1											
17	VIS	3.24	0.92	.812	.631	.543	.541	.625	.731	.695	.674	.639	.763	.731	.591	.683	.901	.716	.770	1										
18	PE	4.29	0.57	.239	.243	.205	.231	.230	.201	.149	.186	.219	.217	.202	.185	.188	.230	.161	.240	.218	1									
19	MEA	4.47	0.67	.095	.103	.095	.116	.078	.067	0.023	0.063	.099	0.075	0.053	.096	0.058	.109	.058	.123	.110	.787	1								
20	COM	4.53	0.60	0.017	0.033	0.018	0.065	0.019	-0.001	-0.055	0.007	0.043	0.008	0.005	0.046	-0.026	0.024	-0.015	0.050	0.025	.811	.695	1							
21	SLDT	3.86	0.90	.370	.360	.304	.306	.364	.332	.302	.300	.311	.349	.338	.247	.329	.337	.272	.329	.313	.759	.274	.342	1						
22	OCRBS	3.60	0.58	.445	.408	.344	.353	.407	.416	.378	.379	.388	.423	.399	.350	.365	.408	.335	.393	.380	.252	.225	.174	.191	1					
23	DIS	3.97	0.83	-.168	-.149	-.150	-.136	-.123	-.182	-.171	.173	.154	.137	.128	-.081	-.149	-.155	-.157	-.141	-.122	.101	.178	.174	-.059	.553	1				
24	APP	3.84	0.76	.223	.199	.155	.171	.211	.190	.169	.162	.198	.226	.199	.200	.204	.216	.175	.201	.214	.224	.225	.193	.126	.821	.449	1			
25	EV	3.84	0.79	.312	.290	.228	.276	.288	.272	.241	.254	.251	.318	.293	.290	.262	.284	.232	.265	.276	.236	.239	.181	.146	.782	.362	.781	1		
26	PSc	3.11	0.90	.515	.508	.480	.439	.460	.522	.423	.500	.505	.437	.415	.352	.385	.446	.375	.462	.360	.143	.093	0.048	.169	.655	0.060	.355	.317	1	
27	PSm	3.27	0.91	.603	.514	.430	.433	.526	.580	.592	.514	.494	.574	.558	.424	.520	.575	.492	.527	.548	.176	0.068	0.028	.264	.666	.098	.341	.328	.468	1

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

*, Correlation is significant at the 0.05 level (2-tailed).

APPENDIX H PE and OCRBs sub-dimensions' Regression Analyses (same for INV, CON, ADP and MIS)

PE ----> OCRBs	MEA (M)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
OCRBs	0,225	5,871	0,000	34,347	0,000	0,051
DIS	0,178	4,589	0,000	21,056	0,000	0,032
APP	0,225	5,862	0,000	34,365	0,000	0,051
EV	0,239	6,255	0,000	39,122	0,000	0,057
PSc	0,093	2,362	0,018	5,581	0,018	0,009
<i>P_{Sm}</i>	0,068	1,728	0,084	2,987	0,084	0,005

PE ----> OCRBs	COM (M)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
OCRBs	0,174	4,476	0,000	20,034	0,000	0,030
DIS	0,174	4,492	0,000	20,18	0,000	0,030
APP	0,193	5,004	0,000	25,044	0,000	0,037
EV	0,181	4,875	0,000	21,867	0,000	0,033
PSc	0,038	1,219	0,223	1,485	0,223	0,002
<i>P_{Sm}</i>	0,028	0,706	0,481	0,498	0,481	0,001

PE ----> OCRBs	SLDT (M)			F	Model (p)	R ²
	β	t	p			
OCRBs	0,191	4,945	0,000	24,450	0,000	0,037
DIS	-0,059	-1,498	0,135	2,245	0,135	0,003
APP	0,126	3,212	0,001	10,317	0,001	0,016
EV	0,146	3,742	0,000	14,006	0,000	0,021
PSc	0,169	4,35	0,000	18,924	0,000	0,029
<i>P_{Sm}</i>	0,264	6,95	0,000	48,296	0,000	0,070

APPENDIX I PE's sub-dimensions mediation for Involvement Culture

INV --> PE --> OCBs			INV - IV			(M)			REGRESSION (H4.1)			R ²
OCBs	PE	H4.1	β	t	p	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²	
			0,368	10,096	0,000	0,162	4,441	0,000	75,906	0,000	0,191	H1.1 0,166
DIS	MEA		-0,169	-4,405	0,000	0,195	5,083	0,000	20,528	0,000	0,060	0,022
DIS	COM		-0,155	-4,044	0,000	0,179	4,678	0,000	18,507	0,000	0,054	
DIS	SLDT		-0,147	-3,517	0,000	-0,006	-0,143	0,887	7,328	0,001	0,022	
APP	MEA		0,178	4,675	0,000	0,207	5,443	0,000	28,665	0,000	0,082	0,040
APP	COM		0,193	5,075	0,000	0,187	4,928	0,000	25,883	0,000	0,075	
APP	SLDT		0,177	4,269	0,000	0,062	1,498	0,135	14,409	0,000	0,043	
EV	MEA		0,268	7,233	0,000	0,212	5,719	0,000	47,281	0,000	0,128	0,082
EV	COM		0,284	7,64	0,000	0,172	4,622	0,000	41,086	0,000	0,113	
EV	SLDT		0,262	6,739	0,000	0,048	1,182	0,238	30,190	0,000	0,086	
PSc	MEA		0,504	14,761	0,000	0,041	1,196	0,000	112,670	0,000	0,260	0,258
PSc	COM		0,507	14,918	0,000	0,031	0,915	0,360	112,270	0,000	0,259	
PSc	SLDT		0,514	14,104	0,000	-0,016	-0,441	0,659	111,837	0,000	0,258	
PSm	MEA		0,513	15,082	0,000	0,015	0,445	0,657	115,752	0,000	0,265	0,264
PSm	COM		0,514	15,189	0,000	0,011	0,316	0,752	115,685	0,000	0,265	
PSm	SLDT		0,482	13,35	0,000	0,091	2,511	0,012	119,904	0,000	0,272	

APPENDIX J PE' sub-dimensions regression with OCRBs' sub, dimensions for Consistency

Culture

CON --> PE --> OCRBs			CON - IV			(M)			REGRESSION (H4.2)			H1.2	R ²
OCRBs	PE	H4.2	β	t	p	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²		
			0,381	10,590	0,000	0,175	4,865	0,000	81,646	0,000	20,3		17,3
DIS	MEA		-0,195	- 5,115	0,000	0,191	5,008	0,000	24,020	0,000	7,0		3,3
DIS	COM		0,182	- 4,770	0,000	0,174	4,561	0,000	21,808	0,000	6,4		
DIS	SLDT		-0,183	- 4,449	0,000	0,002	0,041	0,967	11,050	0,000	3,3		
APP	MEA		0,176	4,649	0,000	0,213	5,632	0,000	28,537	0,000	8,2		3,6
APP	COM		0,191	5,021	0,000	0,194	5,104	0,000	25,598	0,000	7,4		
APP	SLDT		0,167	4,080	0,000	0,070	1,714	0,087	13,606	0,000	4,1		
EV	MEA		0,257	6,941	0,000	0,222	6,003	0,000	45,084	0,000	12,3		7,4
EV	COM		0,272	7,297	0,000	0,182	4,871	0,000	38,441	0,000	10,7		
EV	SLDT		0,251	6,250	0,000	0,063	1,561	0,119	26,949	0,000	7,7		
PSc	MEA		0,518	15,402	0,000	0,058	1,729	0,084	122,425	0,000	27,6		27,2
PSc	COM		0,522	15,543	0,000	0,049	1,449	0,148	121,813	0,000	27,5		
PSc	SLDT		0,523	14,681	0,000	-0,005	- 0,129	0,897	120,382	0,000	27,2		
PSm	MEA		0,578	17,970	0,000	0,029	0,914	0,361	163,701	0,000	33,7		33,7
PSm	COM		0,580	18,072	0,000	0,029	0,890	0,374	163,669	0,000	33,7		
PSm	SLDT		0,553	16,324	0,000	0,081	2,379	0,018	167,338	0,000	34,2		

Appendix K PE's sub-dimensions mediation analysis for Adaptability Culture

ADP --> PE --> OCBs			ADP - IV			(M)			REGRESSION (H4.3)			H1.3	R ²
OCBs	PE	H4.3	β	t	p	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²		
			0,386	10,729	0,000	0,168	4,668	0,000	83,228	0,000	20,6		17,9
DIS	MEA		-0,151	- 3,922	0,000	0,189	4,919	0,000	18,454	0,000	5,4		1,9
DIS	COM		-0,139	- 3,591	0,000	0,175	4,561	0,000	16,725	0,000	4,9		
DIS	SLDT		-0,132	- 3,173	0,002	-0,013	- 0,305	0,760	6,171	0,002	1,9		
APP	MEA		0,210	5,586	0,000	0,209	5,565	0,000	33,590	0,000	9,5		5,1
APP	COM		0,224	5,955	0,000	0,192	5,090	0,000	30,925	0,000	8,8		
APP	SLDT		0,207	5,061	0,000	0,053	1,299	0,195	18,163	0,000	5,3		
EV	MEA		0,302	8,275	0,000	0,217	5,939	0,000	55,845	0,000	14,8		10,1
EV	COM		0,317	8,629	0,000	0,179	4,867	0,000	49,404	0,000	13,3		
EV	SLDT		0,304	7,635	0,000	0,040	0,992	0,321	36,772	0,000	10,3		
PSc	MEA		0,433	12,201	0,000	0,060	1,702	0,089	77,862	0,000	19,5		19,1
PSc	COM		0,437	12,340	0,000	0,045	1,258	0,209	77,049	0,000	19,3		
PSc	SLDT		0,431	11,390	0,000	0,018	0,486	0,627	76,216	0,000	19,2		
PSm	MEA		0,572	17,674	0,000	0,025	0,781	0,435	158,403	0,000	33,0		32,9
PSm	COM		0,574	17,775	0,000	0,023	0,723	0,470	158,338	0,000	33,0		
PSm	SLDT		0,549	15,974	0,000	0,072	2,110	0,035	161,269	0,000	33,4		

Appendix L PE's sub-dimensions mediation analysis for Mission Culture

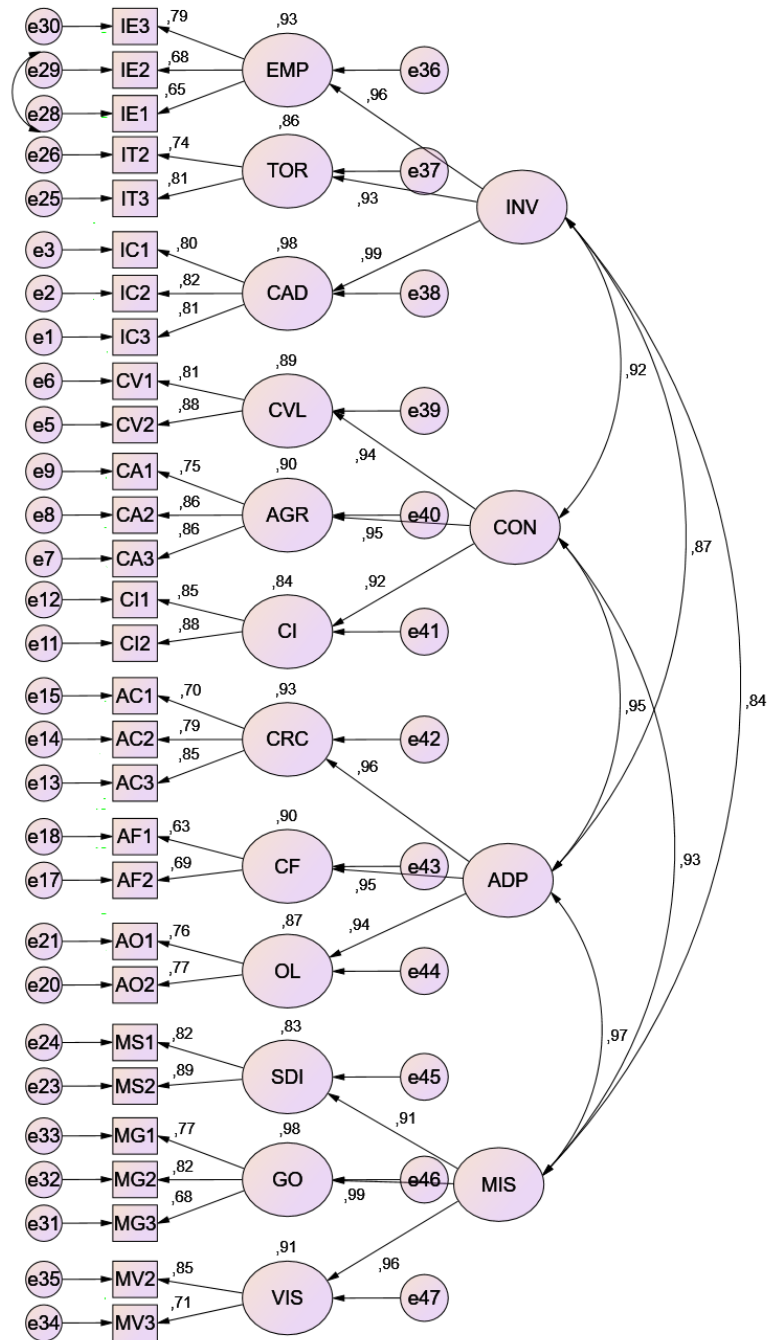
MIS --> PE --> OCRBs			MIS - IV			(M)			REGRESSION (H4.4)			H1.4	R ²
OCRBs	PE	H4.4	β	t	p	β	t	p	F	Model (p)	R ²		
			0,37	10,168	0,000	0,167	4,582	0,000	76,972	0,000	19,3		16,7
DIS	MEA		-0,176	- 4,584	0,000	0,197	5,129	0,000	21,360	0,000	6,2		2,4
DIS	COM		-0,159	- 4,148	0,000	0,178	4,647	0,000	18,947	0,000	5,6		
DIS	SLDT		-0,152	- 3,676	0,002	-0,008	- 0,183	0,855	7,900	0,000	2,4		
APP	MEA		0,194	5,120	0,000	0,204	5,385	0,000	30,963	0,000	8,8		4,7
APP	COM		0,212	5,598	0,000	0,188	4,984	0,000	28,782	0,000	8,2		
APP	SLDT		0,196	4,802	0,000	0,059	1,454	0,146	16,863	0,000	5,0		
EV	MEA		0,261	7,022	0,000	0,211	5,685	0,000	45,687	0,000	12,4		7,9
EV	COM		0,279	7,510	0,000	0,174	4,689	0,000	40,069	0,000	11,1		
EV	SLDT		0,264	6,593	0,000	0,057	1,412	0,158	29,199	0,000	8,3		
PSc	MEA		0,441	12,435	0,000	0,045	1,264	0,207	80,776	0,000	20,1		16,9
PSc	COM		0,445	12,613	0,000	0,037	1,054	0,292	80,472	0,000	20,0		
PSc	SLDT		0,439	11,706	0,000	0,021	0,556	0,578	79,972	0,000	19,9		
Psm	MEA		0,574	17,681	0,000	0,006	0,174	0,862	158,524	0,000	33,0		33,0
Psm	COM		0,574	17,792	0,000	0,014	0,430	0,667	158,640	0,000	33,0		
Psm	SLDT		0,548	16,047	0,000	0,079	2,320	0,021	162,519	0,000	33,6		

APPENDIX M/1 CFA Second-order Organizational Culture Scale

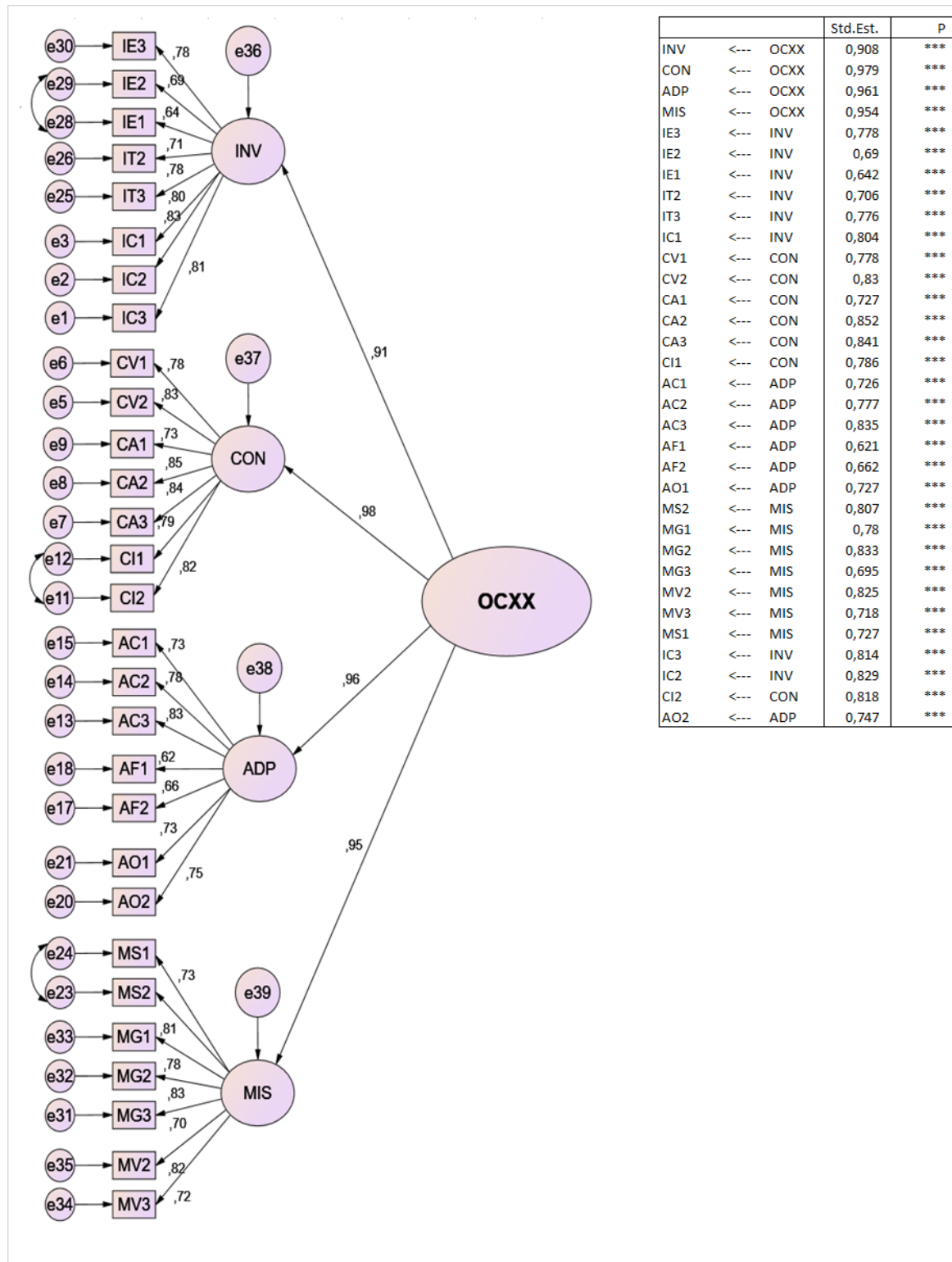
	Standard Estimate	p			
INV	0,917	***			
CON	0,993	***			
ADP	0,971	***			
MIS	0,95	***			
involvement culture (INV)			Adaptability culture (ADP)		
<i>empowerment - EMP</i>	0,962	***	<i>creativity and change - CRC</i>	0,963	***
IE1	0,663	***	AC3	0,854	***
IE2	0,718	***	AC2	0,794	***
IE3	0,805	***	AC1	0,729	***
<i>team orientation - TOR</i>	0,945	***	<i>customer focus - CF</i>	0,945	***
IT3	0,819	***	AF2	0,705	***
IT2	0,739	***	AF1	0,645	***
<i>capability development - CAD</i>	0,977	***	<i>organizational learning - OL</i>	0,956	***
IC3	0,824	***	AO2	0,776	***
IC2	0,842	***	AO1	0,755	***
IC1	0,811	***			
consistency culture (CON)			mission culture (MIS)		
<i>core values - CVL</i>	0,936	***	<i>strategic direction and intend - SDI</i>	0,892	***
CV2	0,879	***	MS2	0,893	***
CV1	0,82	***	MS1	0,808	***
<i>agreement - AGR</i>	0,959	***	<i>goals and objectives - GO</i>	1,016	***
CA3	0,864	***	MG3	0,69	***
CA2	0,869	***	MG2	0,826	***
CA1	0,742	***	MG1	0,791	***
<i>coordination and integration - CI</i>	0,911	***	<i>vision - VIS</i>	0,961	***
CI2	0,903	***	MV3	0,736	***
CI1	0,861	***	MV2	0,866	***

*** p<0,001

APPENDIX M/2 CFA Second-order Organizational Culture Scale figure



APPENDIX M/3 CFA Second-order Organizational Culture Scale figure without culture dimensions' sub-traits



$\chi^2 = 1495,609$; $\chi^2 / df = 4,042$; CFI = ,923; RMSEA = ,069; SRMR = ,0427

APPENDIX N Involvement Culture - Empowerment (EMP)

H1		model				H4		standardized				
		β	F	p	R ²			β	p	model		
										F	p	R ²
EMP	OCRBS	0,348	132,17	0,000	0,121	EMP	0,31	0,000	96,017	0,000	0,167	
						PE	0,218	0,000		0,000		
EMP	DIS	-0,133	17,222	0	0,018	EMP	-0,159	0,000	31,273	0,000	0,061	
						mean	0,211	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	-0,138	0,000	24,853	0,000	0,049	
						comp	0,178	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	-0,138	0,000	8,785	0,000	0,018	
						sldt	0,02	0,549		0,000		rejected
EMP	APP	0,156	23,971	0	0,024	EMP	0,129	0,000	37,026	0,000	0,072	
						mean	0,219	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	0,151	0,000	27,423	0,000	0,054	
						comp	0,173	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	0,132	0,000	17,222	0,000	0,035	
						sldt	0,105	0,001		0,000		
EMP	EV	0,232	54,718	0,000	0,054	EMP	0,202	0,000	60,311	0,000	0,112	
						mean	0,243	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	0,227	0,000	44,020	0,000	0,084	
						comp	0,174	0,000		0,000		
						EMP	0,204	0,000	34,971	0,000	0,068	
						sldt	0,122	0,000		0,000		
EMP	PSc	0,469	269,998	0	0,220	EMP	0,463	0,000	136,724	0,000	0,222	rejected
						mean	0,049	0,088		0,000		
						EMP	0,468	0,000	135,925	0,000	0,221	rejected
						comp	0,037	0,197		0,000		
						EMP	0,465	0,000	135,026	0,000	0,22	rejected
						sldt	0,015	0,608		0,000		
EMP	PSm	0,426	212,774	0	0,182	EMP	0,422	0,000	107,278	0,000	0,183	rejected
						mean	0,038	0,201		0,000		
						EMP	0,426	0,000	106,612	0,000	0,182	rejected
						comp	0,022	0,459		0,000		
						EMP	0,391	0,000	121,525	0,000	0,203	
						sldt	0,148	0,000		0,000		

APPENDIX O Involvement Culture – team orientation (TOR)

H1		model				H4		standardized				model		
		β	F	p	R ²			β	p	F	p	R ²		
TOR	OCRBS	0,355	138,255	0,000	0,126	TOR		0,312	0,000	95,997	0,000	0,167		
						PE		0,207	0,000		0,000			
TOR	DIS	-0,096	9,004	0,003	0,009	TOR		-0,128	0,000	26,419	0,000	0,052		
						mean		0,219	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		-0,113	0,000	21,4186	0,000	0,0423		
						comp		0,184	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		-0,099	0,003	4,548	0,011	0,009	rejected	
						sldt		0,01	0,753		0,000			
TOR	APP	0,161	25,391	0,000	0,026	TOR		0,128	0,000	36,922	0,000	0,072		
						mean		0,216	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		0,146	0,000	26,600	0,000	0,053		
						comp		0,164	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		0,137	0,000	17,865	0,000	0,036		
						sldt		0,104	0,002		0,000			
TOR	EV	0,262	70,451	0,000	0,069	TOR		0,227	0,000	66,521	0,000	0,122		
						mean		0,234	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		0,248	0,000	49,423	0,000	0,094		
						comp		0,159	0,000		0,000			
						TOR		0,235	0,000	42,208	0,000	0,081		
						sldt		0,115	0,000		0,000			
TOR	PSc	0,427	214,047	0,000	0,183	TOR		0,421	0,000	108,291	0,000	0,185	rejected	
						mean		0,044	0,133		0,000			
						TOR		0,426	0,000	107,046	0,000	0,183	rejected	
						comp		0,014	0,639		0,000			
						TOR		0,421	0,000	107,381	0,000	0,183	rejected	
						sldt		0,026	0,381		0,000			
TOR	PSm	0,427	213,753	0,000	0,182	TOR		0,423	0,000	107,294	0,000	0,183		
						mean		0,027	0,352		0,000			
						TOR		0,427	0,000	106,771	0,000	0,182		
						comp		-0,003	0,924		0,000			
						TOR		0,392	0,000	122,181	0,000	0,203		
						sldt		0,149	0,000		0,000			

APPENDIX P Involvement Culture – capability development (CAD)

H1		model				H4		model			
		β	F	p	R ²			β	p	F	R ²
CAD	OCRBS	0,377	158,229	0,000	0,142	CAD	0,337	0,000	106,929	0,000	0,183
						PE	0,206	0,000	0,000	0,000	
CAD	DIS	-0,129	16,115	0,000	0,017	CAD	-0,148	0,000	29,520	0,000	0,058
						mean	0,205	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	-0,133	0,000	24,040	0,000	0,048
						comp	0,177	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	-0,139	0,000	8,490	0,000	0,017
						sldt	0,031	0,352	0,000	0,000	rejected
CAD	APP	0,170	28,424	0,000	0,029	CAD	0,149	0,000	40,148	0,000	0,077
						mean	0,221	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	0,166	0,000	29,958	0,000	0,059
						comp	0,174	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	0,141	0,000	17,983	0,000	0,036
						sldt	0,091	0,007	0,000	0,000	
CAD	EV	0,251	64,289	0,000	0,063	CAD	0,227	0,000	67,081	0,000	0,123
						mean	0,246	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	0,247	0,000	49,402	0,000	0,094
						comp	0,175	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	0,219	0,000	37,098	0,000	0,072
						sldt	0,100	0,000	0,000	0,000	
CAD	PSc	0,434	221,876	0,000	0,188	CAD	0,427	0,000	114,007	0,000	0,192
						mean	0,066	0,023	0,000	0,000	
						CAD	0,433	0,000	112,064	0,000	0,19
						comp	0,041	0,156	0,000	0,000	rejected
						CAD	0,438	0,000	110,966	0,000	0,188
						sldt	-0,015	0,629	0,000	0,000	rejected
CAD	PSm	0,521	356,571	0,000	0,271	CAD	0,517	0,000	179,623	0,000	0,273
						mean	0,041	0,136	0,000	0,000	rejected
CAD						CAD	0,52	0,000	178,57	0,000	0,272
						comp	0,023	0,408	0,000	0,000	rejected
CAD						CAD	0,494	0,000	183,764	0,000	0,277
						sldt	0,083	0,004	0,000	0,000	

APPENDIX R Consistency Culture – core values (CVL)

H1		model				H4		model			
		β	F	p	R ²		standardized				
							β	p	F	p	R ²
CVL	OCRBS	0,384	165,75	0,000	0,147	CVL	0,349	0,000	113,779	0,000	0,192
						PE	0,214	0,000		0,000	
CVL	DIS	-0,149	21,674	0,000	0,022	CVL	-0,162	0,000	31,900	0,000	0,062
						mean	0,201	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	-0,146	0,000	25,947	0,000	0,051
						comp	0,171	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	-0,161	0,000	11,490	0,000	0,023
						sldt	0,039	0,252		0,000	
CVL	APP	0,188	35,251	0,000	0,035	CVL	0,173	0,000	44,745	0,000	0,086
						mean	0,224	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	0,192	0,000	35,014	0,000	0,068
						comp	0,181	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	0,162	0,000	20,899	0,000	0,042
						sldt	0,084	0,012		0,000	
CVL	EV	0,243	60,308	0,000	0,059	CVL	0,227	0,000	67,060	0,000	0,123
						mean	0,253	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	0,247	0,000	49,409	0,000	0,094
						comp	0,185	0,000		0,000	
						CVL	0,211	0,000	35,328	0,000	0,069
						sldt	0,103	0,002		0,000	
CVL	PSc	0,404	187,361	0,000	0,164	CVL	0,399	0,000	98,065	0,000	0,17
						mean	0,081	0,006		0,000	
						CVL	0,406	0,000	95,948	0,000	0,167
						comp	0,059	0,047		0,000	
						CVL	0,406	0,000	93,596	0,000	0,164
						sldt	-0,005	0,881		0,000	
CVL	PSm	0,583	492,812	0,000	0,340	CVL	0,579	0,000	249,151	0,000	0,342
						mean	0,052	0,047		0,000	
						CVL	0,584	0,000	248,424	0,000	0,342
						comp	0,045	0,083		0,000	
						CVL	0,563	0,000	249,859	0,000	0,343
						sldt	0,061	0,027		0,000	

APPENDIX S Consistency Culture – agreement (AGR)

H1		model				H4		standardized		model		
		β	F	p	R ²			β	p	F	p	R ²
AGR	OCRBS	0,345	129,80	0,000	0,119	AGR		0,310	0,000	95,957	0,000	0,167
						PE		0,221	0,000		0,000	
AGR	DIS	-0,168	27,946	0,000	0,028	AGR		-0,186	0,000	36,445	0,000	0,071
						mean		0,207	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		-0,169	0,000	28,817	0,000	0,059
						comp		0,174	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		-0,178	0,000	14,579	0,000	0,03
						sldt		0,036	0,272		0,000	
AGR	APP	0,133	17,294	0,000	0,018	AGR		0,114	0,000	35,106	0,000	0,068
						mean		0,226	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		0,133	0,000	24,722	0,000	0,049
						comp		0,177	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		0,104	0,002	13,950	0,000	0,028
						sldt		0,107	0,001		0,000	
AGR	EV	0,221	49,217	0,000	0,049	AGR		0,199	0,000	59,896	0,000	0,111
						mean		0,251	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		0,221	0,000	42,457	0,000	0,081
						comp		0,181	0,000		0,000	
						AGR		0,189	0,000	31,510	0,000	0,062
						sldt		0,118	0,000		0,000	
AGR	PSc	0,455	250,488	0,000	0,207	AGR		0,339	0,000	128,666	0,000	0,212
						mean		0,068	0,018		0,000	
						AGR		0,455	0,000	127,078	0,000	0,211
						comp		0,051	0,078		0,000	
						AGR		0,455	0,000	125,113	0,000	0,207
						sldt		-0,001	0,986		0,000	
AGR	PSm	0,494	309,896	0,000	0,244	AGR		0,49	0,000	156,733	0,000	0,247
						mean		0,048	0,087		0,000	
						AGR		0,494	0,000	155,769	0,000	0,248
						comp		0,034	0,223		0,000	
						AGR		0,463	0,000	164,878	0,000	0,256
						sldt		0,113	0,000		0,000	

APPENDIX T Consistency Culture – coordination and integration (CI)

H1						H4			model		
		β	F	p	R ²	standardized					
						β	p		F	p	R ²
CI	OCRBS	0,344	128,91	0,000	0,119	CI	0,316	0,000	93,307	0,000	0,163
						PE	0,213	0,000		0,000	
CI	DIS	-0,146	20,774	0,000	0,021	CI	-0,174	0,000	33,876	0,000	0,066
						mean	0,214	0,000		0,000	
						CI	-0,155	0,000	27,375	0,000	0,054
						comp	0,182	0,000		0,000	
						CI	-0,155	0,000	10,823	0,000	0,022
						sldt	0,031	0,35		0,000	
CI	APP	0,143	19,884	0,000	0,02	CI	0,113	0,000	34,994	0,000	0,068
						mean	0,221	0,000		0,000	
						CI	0,134	0,000	24,866	0,000	0,049
						comp	0,171	0,000		0,000	
						CI	0,113	0,001	14,887	0,000	0,03
						sldt	0,103	0,002		0,000	
CI	EV	0,208	43,157	0,000	0,043	CI	0,175	0,000	54,309	0,000	0,102
						mean	0,245	0,000		0,000	
						CI	0,199	0,000	37,286	0,000	0,072
						comp	0,171	0,000		0,000	
						CI	0,173	0,000	28,676	0,000	0,057
						sldt	0,121	0,000		0,000	
CI	PSc	0,451	243,949	0,000	0,203	CI	0,444	0,000	123,575	0,000	0,205
						mean	0,048	0,097		0,000	
						CI	0,449	0,000	122,479	0,000	0,204
						comp	0,029	0,316		0,000	
						CI	0,451	0,000	121,855	0,000	0,203
						sldt	-0,003	0,909		0,000	
CI	PSm	0,479	284,772	0,000	0,229	CI	0,475	0,000	142,842	0,000	0,23
						mean	0,028	0,201		0,000	
						CI	0,478	0,000	142,336	0,000	0,229
						comp	0,011	0,696		0,000	
						CI	0,446	0,000	152,000	0,000	0,241
						sldt	0,114	0,000		0,000	

APPENDIX U Adaptability Culture – creativity and change (CRC)

H1		model				H4 standardized		model		
		β	F	p	R ²	β	p	F	p	R ²
CRC	OCRBS	0,367	149,06	0,000	0,135	CRC	0,328	103,078	0,000	0,177
						PE	0,21	0,000	0,000	
CRC	DIS	-0,129	16,337	0,000	0,017	CRC	-0,149	29,444	0,000	0,058
						mean	0,204	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	-0,132	23,914	0,000	0,048
						comp	0,176	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	-0,14	8,612	0,000	0,018
						sldt	0,032	0,346	0,000	rejected
CRC	APP	0,179	31,746	0,000	0,032	CRC	0,159	42,021	0,000	0,081
						mean	0,221	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	0,177	32,018	0,000	0,063
						comp	0,175	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	0,151	19,385	0,000	0,039
						sldt	0,087	0,009	0,000	
CRC	EV	0,262	70,328	0,000	0,068	CRC	0,239	70,694	0,000	0,129
						mean	0,247	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	0,259	53,116	0,000	0,1
						comp	0,178	0,000	0,000	
						CRC	0,231	39,783	0,000	0,077
						sldt	0,097	0,003	0,000	
CRC	PSc	0,374	155,868	0,000	0,14	CRC	0,367	81,441	0,000	0,145
						mean	0,075	0,013	0,000	
						CRC	0,373	79,252	0,000	0,142
						comp	0,046	0,121	0,000	rejected
						CRC	0,572	77,874	0,000	0,14
						sldt	0,006	0,849	0,000	rejected
CRC	PSm	0,533	379,306	0,000	0,284	CRC	0,529	191,219	0,000	0,286
						mean	0,44	0,112	0,000	rejected
						CRC	0,532	190,183	0,000	0,284
						comp	0,028	0,307	0,000	rejected
						CRC	0,507	194,706	0,000	0,289
						sldt	0,079	0,006	0,000	

APPENDIX V Adaptability Culture – customer focus (CF)

H1						H4 standardized			model		
		β	F	p	R ²				F	p	R ²
CF	OCRBS	0,324	112,19	0,000	0,105	CF	0,285	0,000	85,910	0,000	0,152
						PE	0,221	0,000	0,000	0,000	
CF	DIS	-0,098	9,351	0,002	0,010	CF	-0,124	0,000	25,913	0,000	0,051
						mean	0,206	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	-0,108	0,000	20,948	0,000	0,042
						comp	0,18	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	-0,1	0,000	4,715	0,000	0,1
						sldt	0,01	0,768	0,000	0,000	rejected
CF	APP	0,182	32,671	0,000	0,033	CF	0,155	0,000	41,163	0,000	0,079
						mean	0,217	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	0,172	0,000	31,100	0,000	0,061
						comp	0,168	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	0,1589	0,000	21,241	0,000	0,043
						sldt	0,1	0,002	0,000	0,000	
CF	EV	0,263	71,400	0,000	0,069	CF	0,234	0,000	68,824	0,000	0,126
						mean	0,239	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	0,254	0,000	51,447	0,000	0,097
						comp	0,167	0,000	0,000	0,000	
						CF	0,237	0,000	42,982	0,000	0,082
						sldt	0,117	0,000	0,000	0,000	
CF	PSc	0,322	110,488	0,000	0,103	CF	0,313	0,000	57,985	0,000	0,108
						mean	0,069	0,025	0,000	0,000	
						CF	0,32	0,000	55,852	0,000	0,105
						comp	0,033	0,275	0,000	0,000	rejected
						CF	0,309	0,000	56,952	0,000	0,106
						sldt	0,056	0,075	0,000	0,000	rejected
CF	PSm	0,414	197,647	0,000	0,171	CF	0,409	0,000	99,857	0,000	0,173
						mean	0,041	0,170	0,000	0,000	rejected
						CF	0,413	0,000	98,817	0,000	0,171
						comp	0,012	0,689	0,000	0,000	rejected
						CF	0,379	0,000	115,333	0,000	0,194
						sldt	0,156	0,000	0,000	0,000	

APPENDIX W Adaptability Culture – organizational learning (OL)

H1						H4			model		
		β	F	p	R ²	standardized			F	p	R ²
						β	p				
OL	OCRBS	0,379	160,591	0,000	0,144	OL	0,345	0,000	111,978	0,000	0,19
						PE	0,217	0,000		0,000	
OL	DIS	-0,13	16,409	0,000	0,017	OL	-0,146	0,000	29,235	0,000	0,058
						mean	0,203	0,000		0,000	
						OL	-0,126	0,000	23,099	0,000	0,046
						comp	0,171	0,000		0,000	
						OL	-0,138	0,000	8,540	0,000	0,018
						sldt	0,028	0,411		0,000	
OL	APP	0,209	43,67	0,000	0,044	OL	0,191	0,000	48,331	0,000	0,092
						mean	0,22	0,000		0,000	
						OL	0,213	0,000	39,818	0,000	0,077
						comp	0,182	0,000		0,000	
						OL	0,185	0,000	25,022	0,000	0,05
						sldt	0,082	0,013		0,000	
OL	EV	0,283	71,323	0,000	0,069	OL	0,243	0,000	71,809	0,000	0,13
						mean	0,248	0,000		0,000	
						OL	0,268	0,000	55,722	0,000	0,104
						comp	0,187	0,000		0,000	
						OL	0,234	0,000	40,931	0,000	0,079
						sldt	0,102	0,000		0,000	
OL	PSc	0,39	171,632	0,000	0,152	OL	0,384	0,000	89,581	0,000	0,158
						mean	0,076	0,011		0,000	
						OL	0,391	0,000	88,165	0,000	0,156
						comp	0,06	0,042		0,000	
						OL	0,386	0,000	85,813	0,000	0,152
						sldt	0,012	0,701		0,000	
OL	PSm	0,527	369,277	0,000	0,278	OL	0,524	0,000	186,571	0,000	0,281
						mean	0,048	0,080		0,000	
						OL	0,529	0,000	186,495	0,000	0,28
						comp	0,047	0,086		0,000	
						OL	0,5	0,000	192,083	0,000	0,286
						sldt	0,095	0,001		0,000	

APPENDIX X Mission Culture – strategic direction and intent (SDI)

H1		model				H4		model			
		β	F	p	R ²		standardized β	p	F	p	R ²
SDI	OCRBS	0,318	107,52	0,000	0,101	SDI	0,283	0,000	85,808	0,000	0,152
						PE	0,229	0,000		0,000	
SDI	DIS	-0,147	21,074	0,000	0,022	SDI	-0,162	0,000	31,843	0,000	0,062
						mean	0,203	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	-0,145	0,000	25,929	0,000	0,051
						comp	0,173	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	-0,155	0,000	10,916	0,000	0,022
						sldt	0,029	0,383		0,000	
SDI	APP	0,151	22,309	0,000	0,023	SDI	0,182	0,000	37,900	0,000	0,073
						mean	0,226	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	0,152	0,000	27,634	0,000	0,055
						comp	0,178	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	0,123	0,000	16,062	0,000	0,032
						sldt	0,102	0,992		0,000	
SDI	EV	0,199	39,338	0,000	0,039	SDI	0,18	0,000	55,467	0,000	0,104
						mean	0,255	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	0,2	0,000	37,512	0,000	0,073
						comp	0,182	0,000		0,000	
						SDI	0,165	0,000	27,361	0,000	0,054
						sldt	0,126	0,000		0,000	
SDI	PSc	0,364	146,03	0,000	0,132	SDI	0,358	0,000	77,071	0,000	0,139
						mean	0,081	0,008		0,000	
						SDI	0,364	0,000	74,791	0,000	0,135
						comp	0,054	0,073		0,000	
						SDI	0,356	0,000	73,426	0,000	0,133
						sldt	0,029	0,358		0,000	
SDI	PSm	0,481	288,662	0,000	0,232	SDI	0,477	0,000	146,636	0,000	0,235
						mean	0,055	0,052		0,000	
						SDI	0,481	0,000	145,370	0,000	0,233
						comp	0,038	0,177		0,000	
						SDI	0,449	0,000	155,124	0,000	0,245
						sldt	0,12	0,000		0,000	

APPENDIX Y Mission Culture – goals and objectives (GO)

H1		model				H4			model		
		β	F	p	R ²		β	p	F	p	R ²
GO	OCRBS	0,363	145,03	0,000	0,131	GO	0,319	0,000	98,282	0,000	0,17
						PE	0,202	0,000		0,000	
GO	DIS	-0,148	21,502	0,000	0,022	GO	-0,18	0,000	35,001	0,000	0,068
						mean	0,217	0,000		0,000	
						GO	-0,157	0,000	27,792	0,000	0,055
						comp	0,182	0,000		0,000	
						GO	-0,158	0,000	11,265	0,000	0,023
						sldt	0,034	0,311		0,000	
GO	APP	0,174	29,86	0,000	0,030	GO	0,142	0,000	38,952	0,000	0,075
						mean	0,215	0,000		0,000	
						GO	0,165	0,000	29871	0,000	0,059
						comp	0,169	0,000		0,000	
						GO	0,147	0,000	18,915	0,000	0,039
						sldt	0,092	0,001		0,000	
GO	EV	0,242	59,840	0,000	0,059	GO	0,207	0,000	61,470	0,000	0,114
						mean	0,237	0,000		0,000	
						GO	0,234	0,000	45,812	0,000	0,087
						comp	0,169	0,000		0,000	
						GO	0,211	0,000	35,713	0,000	0,069
						sldt	0,108	0,001		0,000	
GO	PSc	0,426	212,002	0,000	0,181	GO	0,419	0,000	107,319	0,000	0,183
						mean	0,045	0,126		0,000	
						GO	0,424	0,000	106,540	0,000	0,182
						comp	0,03	0,303		0,000	
						GO	0,428	0,000	105,891	0,000	0,181
						sldt	-0,001	0,981		0,000	
GO	PSm	0,505	328,772	0,000	0,256	GO	0,503	0,000	164,436	0,000	0,256
						mean	0,016	0,201		0,000	
						GO	0,505	0,000	164,295	0,000	0,256
						comp	0,01	0,459		0,000	
						GO	0,476	0,000	172,275	0,000	0,265
						sldt	0,1	0,000		0,000	

APPENDIX Z Mission Culture – vision (VIS)

H1		model				H4		model			
		β	F	p	R ²		β	p	F	p	R ²
VIS	OCRBS	0,363	145,71	0,000	0,132	VIS	0,319	0,000	98,105	0,000	0,17
						PE	0,2	0,000		0,000	
VIS	DIS	-0,105	10,751	0,000	0,011	VIS	-0,134	0,000	27,293	0,000	0,054
						mean	0,209	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	-0,112	0,000	21,384	0,000	0,043
						comp	0,178	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	-0,113	0,001	5,636	0,000	0,012
						sldt	0,025	0,468		0,000	rejected
VIS	APP	0,193	37,17	0,000	0,037	VIS	0,164	0,000	42,704	0,000	0,082
						mean	0,213	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	0,187	0,000	33,985	0,000	0,066
						comp	0,17	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	0,167	0,000	21,586	0,000	0,043
						sldt	0,081	0,016		0,000	
VIS	EV	0,261	69,867	0,000	0,068	VIS	0,228	0,000	67,061	0,000	0,123
						mean	0,237	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	0,254	0,000	51,570	0,000	0,097
						comp	0,171	0,000		0,000	
						VIS	0,23	0,000	39,323	0,000	0,076
						sldt	0,095	0,004		0,000	
VIS	PSc	0,337	122,657	0,000	0,114	VIS	0,328	0,000	63,589	0,000	0,117
						mean	0,062	0,043		0,000	
						VIS	0,335	0,000	62,175	0,000	0,115
						comp	0,039	0,204		0,000	rejected
						VIS	0,332	0,000	61,394	0,000	0,114
						sldt	0,015	0,632		0,000	rejected
VIS	PSm	0,524	363,236	0,000	0,275	VIS	0,522	0,000	181,757	0,000	0,275
						mean	0,019	0,490		0,000	rejected
						VIS	0,524	0,000	181,636	0,000	0,275
						comp	0,015	0,459		0,000	rejected
						VIS	0,499	0,000	186,193	0,000	0,28
						sldt	0,076	0,009		0,000	