

T.C.
DOKUZ EYLÜL UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
DEPARTMENT OF MARITIME BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION
MARITIME BUSINESS ADMINISTRATION PROGRAM
MASTER’S THESIS

PERCEPTIONS OF TOP MANAGERS RELATED TO
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH ON
PRIVATE PORTS IN TURKEY

Çağdaş EMİROĞLU

Supervisor
Assist.Prof.Dr. Didem ÖZER ÇAYLAN

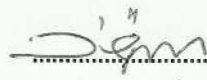
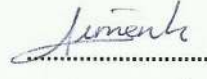
İZMİR-2015

MASTER THESIS/PROJECT
APPROVAL PAGE

University : Dokuz Eylül University
Graduate School : Graduate School of Social Sciences
Name and Surname : ÇAĞDAŞ EMİROĞLU
Title of Thesis : Perceptions of Top Mangers Related to Strategic Leadership: A Research on Private Ports in Turkey

Defence Date : 15.01.2015
Supervisor : Assist.Prof.Dr. Didem ÖZER ÇAYLAN

EXAMINING COMMITTEE MEMBERS

<u>Title, Name and Surname</u>	<u>University</u>	<u>Signature</u>
Assist.Prof.Dr. Didem ÖZER ÇAYLAN	DOKUZ EYLUL UNIVERSITY	
Assist.Prof.Dr. Çimen KARATAŞ ÇETİN	DOKUZ EYLUL UNIVERSITY	
Assoc.Prof.Dr. Ethem DUYGULU	DOKUZ EYLUL UNIVERSITY	

Unanimity ☒
Majority of votes ()

The thesis titled as "Perceptions of Top Mangers Related to Strategic Leadership: A Research on Private Ports in Turkey" prepared and presented by ÇAĞDAŞ EMİROĞLU is accepted and approved.

Prof.Dr. Utku UTKULU
Director

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that this master's thesis titled as "Perceptions of Top Managers Related to Strategic Leadership: A Research on Private Ports in Turkey" has been written by myself in accordance with the academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that all materials benefited in this thesis consist of the mentioned resources in the reference list. I verify all these with my honor.

.../.../.....

Çağdaş EMİROĞLU

ABSTRACT

Master's Thesis

Perceptions of Top Managers Related to Strategic Leadership:

A Research on Private Ports in Turkey

Çağdaş EMİROĞLU

DokuzEylül University

Graduate School of Social Sciences

Department of Maritime Business Administration

Maritime Business Administration Program

Ports are recently in an international position in addition to national identities they have. Continuously developing world trade capacity gives an international dimension to ports. When it is considered that the majority of the world trade with 90% has been provided by maritime transportation, the strategic importance of ports will show up. The cargo traffic of this size, rapid changes in global trade and technology bring in an increase in competition between ports and besides more commercial approach in port operations. Increasing competitive environment and the international position of ports have caused uncertainty and consequently sectoral risks. How to manage a port becomes a great importance in this uncertain and competitive environment. At this point, it is observed that strategic leadership becomes prominent to be an important competitive advantage factor for organizations so as it is so explicit that the need to be managed by managers who have features of strategic leaders in terms of both environment and risk factors ports faced cannot be ignored.

This study aims to find out strategic leadership qualifications of top managers in Turkish private ports and to analyze their perceptions on the concept of strategic leadership by taking into consideration the literature in local and global port industry and strategic leadership.

The literature review was performed for determining research method and variables of this study. A conceptual model was developed as a result of the information get from this preliminary work and it was decided to utilize the Delphi technique as a research method. Data was obtained from the sample group of the research involving experts in the field via the three round Delphi survey. Findings of the study include evaluations on perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in ports.

Keywords: Port Management, Strategic Management, Strategic Leadership, Strategic Planning

ÖZET

Yüksek Lisans Tezi
Üst Düzey Yöneticilerin Stratejik Liderlik Algıları:
Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlar Üzerine Bir Araştırma
Çağdaş EMİROĞLU

Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi
Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü
Denizcilik İşletmeleri Yönetimi Anabilim Dalı
Denizcilik İşletmeleri Yönetimi Programı

Günümüzde limanlar ulusal kimliklerinin yanında uluslararası bir konumdadırlar. Sürekli büyüyen dünya ticaret kapasitesi limanlara uluslararası bir boyut kazandırmıştır. Dünya ticaretinin %90 gibi büyük bir oranının deniz yolu aracılığı ile sağlandığı düşünüldüğünde limanların stratejik önemi ortaya çıkmaktadır. Bu büyüklükte bir yük trafiği, küresel ticarete ve teknolojiye yaşanan hızlı değişimler, limanlar arasında rekabet artışını ve bunun yanında liman operasyonlarına daha ticari bir anlayışı beraberinde getirmiştir. Artan rekabet ortamı ve limanların uluslararası platformda yer almaları belirsizlik ve bunun sonucunda sektörel riskler de doğurmaktadır. Bu belirsizlik ve rekabet ortamında limanların yönetim biçimi büyük önem kazanmaktadır. Bu noktada stratejik liderliğin günümüzde şirketler için bir rekabetçi üstünlük unsuru olarak öne çıktığı gözlemlenmektedir ki limanların gerek çevre gerekse karşılaştıkları risk faktörleriyle stratejik liderlik özellikleri ile yönetilmeye duyduğu ihtiyaç göz ardı edilemeyecek kadar açıktır.

Bu araştırma bölgesel ve küresel limancılık ve stratejik liderlik literatürü göz önüne alınarak Türkiye’deki özel limanlarda üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmak ve stratejik liderlik kavramına bakışlarını analiz etmek amacıyla gerçekleştirilmiştir.

Çalışma kapsamında araştırma yöntemi ve değişkenlerin belirlenmesi amacıyla literatür taraması yapılmıştır. Edinilen bilgiler doğrultusunda bir kavramsal model oluşturulmuş ve araştırma yöntemi olarak Delphi tekniğinin kullanılmasına karar verilmiştir. Uygulanan üç aşamalı Delphi tekniği ile limancılık alanında seçkin üst düzey yöneticilerin yorumları elde edilmiştir. Çalışmanın bulguları limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine yapılan değerlendirmeyi kapsamaktadır.

AnahtarKelimeler: Liman Yönetimi, Stratejik Yönetim, Stratejik Liderlik, Stratejik Planlama

**PERCEPTIONS OF TOP MANAGERS RELATED TO STRATEGIC
LEADERSHIP: A RESEARCH ON TURKISH PRIVATE PORTS**

	Page
MASTER THESIS APPROVAL PAGE	ii
DECLARATION	iii
ABSTRACT	iv
ÖZET	vi
CONTENT	viii
ABBREVIATIONS	xii
LIST OF TABLES	xv
LIST OF FIGURES	xvii
LIST OF APPENDICES	xviii
INTRODUCTION	xix

**CHAPTER 1
STRATEGIC PORT MANAGEMENT**

1.1. PORT INDUSTRY AND PORT MANAGEMENT	1
1.1.1. Ports: Characteristics and Roles	1
1.1.1.1. Port Generations and Port Development	4
1.1.1.2. Types of Ports	7
1.1.1.3. Port Operations and Services	9
1.1.1.4. The Role of Ports in the Transportation System	11
1.1.2. Port Organization and Management	13
1.1.2.1. Port Authority	14
1.1.2.2. Port Administration Models	16
1.1.2.3. Organization Structure at Ports	20
1.1.2.4. Port Community and Stakeholders	23
1.2. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN PORT MANAGEMENT	26
1.2.1. Strategic Management Applications in Port Management	26

1.2.1.1.	Port Environment	28
1.2.1.2.	Port Strategy Formulation	30
1.2.1.3.	Strategic Port Planning	34
1.2.1.4.	Port Strategy Implementation	36
1.2.1.5.	Port Performance Evaluation and Control	39
1.2.2.	Strategic Leadership in Port Management	43
1.2.2.1.	Strategic Direction of Ports: Vision and Plan	45
1.2.2.2.	Core competencies of Ports	47
1.2.2.3.	Human Capital in Ports	50
1.2.2.4.	Corporate Culture in Ports	51
1.2.2.5.	Ethical Practices in Ports	52
1.2.2.6.	Controlling in Ports	52
1.2.2.7.	Technology in Ports	53
1.3.	PORT MANAGEMENT IN TURKEY	57
1.3.1.	Port Industry in Turkey	57
1.3.2.	Port Management in Turkey	63
1.3.2.1.	Port Administration Types in Turkey	63
1.3.2.1.1.	Public Ports	64
1.3.2.1.1.1.	Turkish State Railways Ports (TSR)	65
1.3.2.1.1.2.	Ports Operated by Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)	66
1.3.2.1.1.3.	Industrial Ports of State-Owned Companies (Affiliated Ports)	66
1.3.2.1.1.4.	Municipal Ports	67
1.3.2.1.2.	Private Ports	68
1.3.2.1.2.1.	Privatized Ports	68
1.3.2.1.2.2.	Private Ports	72
1.3.2.2.	Port Organizational Structure in Turkey	73
1.3.2.3.	Strategic Management in Turkish Ports	74

CHAPTER 2
STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT CONTEXT

2.1. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS	76
2.1.1. Definitions of Strategic Management	76
2.1.2. Basic Concepts of Strategic Management	79
2.1.3. Strategic Management Process	86
2.1.3.1. Environmental Scanning	90
2.1.3.2. Strategy Formulation	93
2.1.3.3. Strategy Implementation	96
2.1.3.4. Evaluation and Control of Strategies	99
2.2. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP CONCEPT	103
2.2.1. Definitions of Leadership	103
2.2.1.1. Leadership vs. Management	104
2.2.1.2. Leadership Styles and Theories	106
2.2.1.3. Characteristics of Leaders	111
2.2.2. Definition of Strategic Leadership	114
2.2.3. Differences between Leadership and Strategic Leadership	118
2.3. PROGRESS OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP CONCEPT	119
2.4. THE IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP	121
2.5. STRATEGIC LEADERS	122
2.5.1. Characteristics of Strategic Leaders	123
2.5.2. Strategic Leaders as Top Managers	126
2.5.2.1. Board of Directors	127
2.5.2.2. The Highest Level Executives	128
2.5.2.3. Top Management Team	129
2.5.2.4. Middle Managers	130
2.6. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS	131
2.6.1. The Role of the Strategic Leadership in Strategic Management Process	132
2.6.2. Criteria of Effective Strategic Leadership	136

2.6.2.1. Determining Strategic Direction	139
2.6.2.2. Exploiting and Maintaining Core Competencies	140
2.6.2.3. Effectively Managing Human Capital	141
2.6.2.4. Sustaining Effective Corporate Culture	143
2.6.2.5. Emphasizing Ethical Practices	145
2.6.2.6. Establishing Balanced Controls	146
2.6.2.7. Investing in the Development of New Technologies	147

CHAPTER 3

A DELPHI RESEARCH ON PERCEPTIONS OF TOP MANAGERS OF PRIVATE PORTS IN TURKEY RELATED TO STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

3.1. AIM OF THE RESEARCH	149
3.2. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH	149
3.3. METHODOLOGY	151
3.3.1. Literature Survey	151
3.3.2. Descriptive Research and the Delphi Technique	152
3.3.2.1. Development of Delphi Questionnaire Forms	153
3.3.2.2. Sampling and Data Collection Process	154
3.3.2.3. Analysis of the Delphi Survey: APMO Technique	155
3.4. RESULTS OF THE DELPHI SURVEY AND EVALUATION	156
3.4.1. Profile of the Respondents	156
3.4.2. Results of the Delphi Surveys	158
3.4.2.1. Results of the First Round of the Delphi Survey	158
3.4.2.2. Results of the Second Round of the Delphi Survey	169
3.4.2.3. Results of the Third Round of the Delphi Survey	174
3.4.3. Evaluation of the Delphi Research	176
3.4.4. Limitations and Further Research	179
CONCLUSION	181
REFERENCES	185
APPENDICES	

ABBREVIATIONS

AIDC	Automatic Identification and Data Capture
AGV	Automated Guided Vehicles
APMO	The Average Percentage of Majority Opinion
ASEAN	Association of Southeast Asian Nations
A.Ş	Anonim Şirketi (Corporation)
BCG	Boston Consulting Group
BOTAŞ	Boru Hatları ile Petrol Taşıma Anonim Şirketi (Petroleum Pipeline Corporation)
CC	Container Carrier
CEO	Chief Executive Officer
Co.	Company
CPM	Critical Path Method
CQ	Change Intelligence
DPT	Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı
DSS	Decision Support System
EDI	Electronic Data Interchange
ERP	Enterprise Resource Management
EQ	Emotional Intelligence
et al.	and others
EU	European Union
GAP	Gas Pipeline and South East Anatolia Project
GE	General Electric
ICS	Institute of Chartered Shipbrokers
IMO	International Maritime Organization
Inc.	Incorporation
IQ	Intellectual Intelligence
ISO	International Organization for Standardization
ISPS	The International Ship and Port Facility Security
IT	Information Technology
LA	Los Angeles

LMX	Leader Member Exchange
MBO	Management by Objectives
MIDA	Maritime Industrial Development Area
MIP	Mersin International Port
MIS	Management Information System
OECD	Organisation for Economic Co-operation and Development
ÖİB	T.C. Başbakanlık Özelleştirme İdaresi Başkanlığı (Republic of Turkey Prime Ministry Privatization Administration)
PA	Port Authority
PCS	Port Community Systems
PEST	Political, Economic, Social, Technological
PERT	Program Evaluation and Review Technique
PPA	Product Portfolio Analysis
RFID	Radio Frequency Identification
RMG	Rail Mounted Gantry
ROE	Return on Equity
ROI	Return on Investment
Ro-Ro	Roll on Roll off
RTG	Rubber Tired Gantry
SWOT	Strength, Weakness, Opportunity, Threat
SC	Straddle Carrier
SCD	Straddle Carrier based on Direct System
SCR	Straddle Carrier based on Relay System
STS	Ship to Shore
SQ	Social Intelligence
TDMC	Trade and Distribution Maritime Center
TEU	Twenty-foot Equivalent Unit
TC	Türkiye Cumhuriyeti (Republic of Turkey)
TMO	Turkish Maritime Organizations
TMT	Top Management Team
TOS	Terminal Operating Systems
TSR	Turkish State Railways

TURKLİM	Türkiye Liman İşletmecileri Derneği (Port Operators Association of Turkey)
UNCTAD	United Nations Conference on Trade and Development
ULCC	Ultra Large Crude Carriers
USA	The United States of America
VLCC	Very Large Crude Carriers
VTs	Vessel Traffic Station
WMS	Warehouse Management System

TABLES

Table 1:	Functional and Spatial Development of a Seaport	p.6
Table 2:	Different Classification of Ports	p.8
Table 3:	Port Services	p.10
Table 4:	Classification of Port Activities	p.11
Table 5:	Traditional Roles of Port Authorities	p.15
Table 6:	Overview of Port Authorities' Strategic Challenges and Related Strategic Actions	p.16
Table 7:	Basic Port Management Models	p.18
Table 8:	Description, Strengths and Weaknesses of Port Institutional Models	p.19
Table 9:	Public-Private Roles in Port Management	p.20
Table 10:	SWOT Analysis of Port Industry in Europe	p.30
Table 11:	Summary of Performance Indicators Suggested by UNCTAD	p.40
Table 12:	Measures of Port Effectiveness in Systems Approach	p.41
Table 13:	Measures of Port Effectiveness—the case of a ship's discharge at port	p.42
Table 14:	Foreign Trade Transportation by Modes in Turkey (%)	p.57
Table 15:	The Number of Incoming Ships to the Turkish Ports	p.68
Table 16:	Numbers of Incoming Ships to the Turkish Ports in 2012	p.59
Table 17:	Cargo Handling Figures at Turkish Ports According to Transport Mode	p.60
Table 18:	Turkish Ports According to Regions	p.60
Table 19:	The First 10 Port Authorities in Turkey Maximum Cargo Handled	p.62
Table 20:	Specifications and Capacities of Turkish State Railways Ports	p.65
Table 21:	The Ports Operated by Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)	p.66
Table 22:	SWOT of Traditional Municipal Ports in General	p.67
Table 23:	Privatized Ports under the Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)	p.71

Table 24:	Privatized Ports under the Turkish State Railways (TSR)	p.71
Table 25:	SWOT of Private Ports	p.72
Table 26:	Definitions of Strategic Management from Different Authors' Perspectives	p.77
Table 27:	Types of Strategies	p.85
Table 28:	Strategic Management Process from Different Approaches	p.88
Table 29:	Differences between Strategy Formulation and Strategy Implementation	p.99
Table 30:	Leader and Manager Qualities	p.105
Table 31:	Four Generations of Leadership Theory	p.107
Table 32:	Personal Characteristics of Leaders	p.112
Table 33:	Characteristics of Successful Leaders	p.114
Table 34:	Strategic Leadership Practices	p.121
Table 35:	Profile of the Respondents in the Ports Included in the Study	p.157
Table 36:	Profile of the Ports Included in the Study	p.157
Table 37:	Answers of Panelists to the First Question "Is that top managers have characteristics of strategic leadership in strategic management process in ports important according to you? Why?" and Related Categories	p.159
Table 38:	Answers of Panelists to the Second Question "According to you, what are characteristics that make a port manager a strategic leader?" and Comparison with Literature	p.162
Table 39:	Answers of Panelists to Third Question "According to you, what are roles that a strategic leader should fulfill in port management?" and Comparison with Literature	p.166
Table 40:	Total Results of The Second Round Delphi Research	p.170
Table 41:	Total Results of The Third Round Delphi Research	p.174

FIGURES

Figure 1:	Maritime Sector Value Chain	p.3
Figure 2:	Process of Maritime Logistics	p.13
Figure 3:	Typical Port Organization	p.22
Figure 4:	The Port as a Node for Contacts and Contracts	p.26
Figure 5:	Institutional Structure of Port as Strategic Tool	p.28
Figure 6:	Process and Elements of Strategic Port Planning	p.35
Figure 7:	Operational Bases for a New Strategic Approach of a Port	p.46
Figure 8:	Main Operational and Administrative Functions of a Port	p.48
Figure 9:	Electronic Devices in Port Terminals	p.56
Figure 10:	Classification of Turkish Ports According to Administration Models	p.64
Figure 11:	An Example Port Organization Chart (Altaş Ambarlı Port)	p.74
Figure 12:	Types of Strategies	p.84
Figure 13:	Strategic Management Model	p.89
Figure 14:	Environmental Variables	p.91
Figure 15:	The Value Chain of a Company: Primary and Support Activities	p.92
Figure 16:	Elements of Industry Structure	p.93
Figure 17:	Understanding a Company's Strategy	p.94
Figure 18:	Strategic Implementation Tasks	p.97
Figure 19:	Tools for Putting Strategy into Action	p.98
Figure 20:	Evaluating an Implemented Strategy	p.102
Figure 21:	A Model of Strategic Leadership	p.124
Figure 22:	Effective Strategic Leadership Characteristics	p.126
Figure 23:	Strategic Leadership and Strategic Management Process	p.132
Figure 24:	Criteria of Effective Strategic Leadership	p.139
Figure 25:	Conceptual Framework of the Research	p.150
Figure 26:	The Scope of the Literature Review	p.152

LIST OF APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Procedure for Individual Port Master Planning	app.p.2
Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regions in Turkey	app.p.4
Appendix 3: The First Round Delphi Survey Questionnaire in Turkish	app.p.7
Appendix 4: The Second Round Delphi Survey Questionnaire in Turkish	app.p.9
Appendix 5: The Third Round Delphi Survey Questionnaire in Turkish	app.p.12
Appendix 6: Conducted Survey via Survey Monkey	app.p.13
Appendix 7: Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey	app.p.14
Appendix 8: A Comment of the Panelists to Two Questions of the Third Round Delphi Survey	app.p.18
Appendix 9: The List of Panelists Participated in Delphi Process	app.p.19

INTRODUCTION

Ports all around the world are important links of supply chain creating value and strategic gates to international markets. It has been a decrease in the amount of port labor with an increase in containerization and automation since especially 1960s. Managers have had difficulties gradually in performing complicated operations in an environment which diversified port operations are integrated with supply chain because of limited human capital. Therefore, strategic leadership qualifications in top management have become an importance.

It can be depicted that strategic leadership is to determine an appropriate strategic direction for the organization by predicting the future and to implement these strategies with effects on followers. The most important characteristics of strategic leaders are to be adopted to unstable conditions by the ability of coping with uncertainty and being flexible; to make courageous decisions proper to environmental conditions by the ability of creating vision and being future-oriented; to manage human capital effectively by the ability of establishing good relationships and influencing other; and to implement strategies efficiently by the ability of motivating and strengthening followers. Strategic leaders have a considerable role on creating competitive advantage to organizations with their organizational and personal abilities in the compelling global environment condition.

Strategic leadership that top management assumes the responsibility is an extremely complicated and critical management process. This process involves determination of strategic direction; exploiting and maintaining core competencies; effectively managing human capital; sustaining effective corporate culture; emphasizing ethical practices; establishing balanced controls; and investing in the development of new technologies. That top managers who are the kingpins in this process exhibits strategic leader's behaviors has a great importance. As it is seen; strategic leadership provide a road map which improves and modernized the organization by dealing with environmental chaos and uncertainties. This is the leading requirement of ports which are the core of complicated supply and logistic chain in unstable competitive environment in terms of sustainability.

The aim of the study is to find out strategic leadership qualifications of top managers in Turkish private ports and to analyze their perceptions related to strategic leadership concept. It was used the Delphi technique which is a qualitative research method in order to reach this objective. The research technique was designed to be performed in three rounds.

In the first chapter, port industry and port management were analyzed in general terms. Definitions and concept of port industry and management both in global and local extent were presented in terms of operational and managerial aspects. Moreover, strategic management and strategic leadership in ports were emphasized.

In the second chapter, strategic leadership concept was analyzed comprehensively. This chapter includes presentations of strategic management, strategic leadership, strategic leadership in strategic management process and criteria of effective strategic leadership which provided guidance for the research design.

Chapter three covers the methodology of the study and the results of the research. Descriptive research method and Delphi technique were defined. Results were presented and evaluated comparatively with the literature review. Evaluations of the research and limitations and recommendations were demonstrated in the light of the results of the Delphi research.

CHAPTER 1

STRATEGIC PORT MANAGEMENT

1.1. PORT INDUSTRY AND PORT MANAGEMENT

1.1.1. Ports: Characteristics and Roles

A port (or seaport) is a place at which the transfer of cargo and passengers to and from waterways and shores occurs. The transfers are made to and from vessels. The port may be a cargo port (handling only the transfer of cargo), a passenger port (handling only the transfer of passengers), or a combination cargo/passenger port (handling the transfer of both cargo and passengers) (Talley, 2009: 1). There are various definitions of seaports in terms of their changing roles within global logistics and supply chains. Seaports can evolve from a pure import/export and transshipment center to a complex of trade and industrial functions within a logistics system (Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 233).

A port is a geographical area where ships are brought alongside land to load and discharge cargo (Stopford, 2009: 81) and a point of transfer between sea and land (Taylor, 1974: 3). According to Alderton (2005: 1), seaports are areas where there are facilities for berthing or anchoring ships and where there is the equipment for the transfer of goods from ships to shore or ship to ship. Seaports are, and have always been, places to which ships resort to load and discharge cargoes and a point of transfer between sea and land (Taylor, 1974: 3). A port is sometimes referred to as a commercial harbor since ports are primarily designed and organized for commercial use. They are often called gateways between land and sea or water as 'ports' can refer to seaports, river ports or ports on canals or waterways (ICS, 2012: 165).

Seaports are the main links in the supply chain systems that add value to the port users and final customers (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010: 947). Seaports are uniquely structured social and technical organizations (or systems) and the most vulnerable nodes in logistics chains directly affected by the oscillations in the logistics and transport markets (Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 233). A port can range from a

small quay for berthing a ship to a very large scale center with many terminals and a cluster of industries and services. The literature on port attributes provides a variety of terms such as waterfront, estuary and maritime bases, ship/shore and multimodal/intermodal interfaces, distribution and logistics centers, corridors and gateways, maritime industrial development areas (MIDAs) and trade and distribution maritime centers (TDMCs), industrial clusters and distriparks, free zones, trading hubs and networks (Bichou and Gray, 2005: 76).

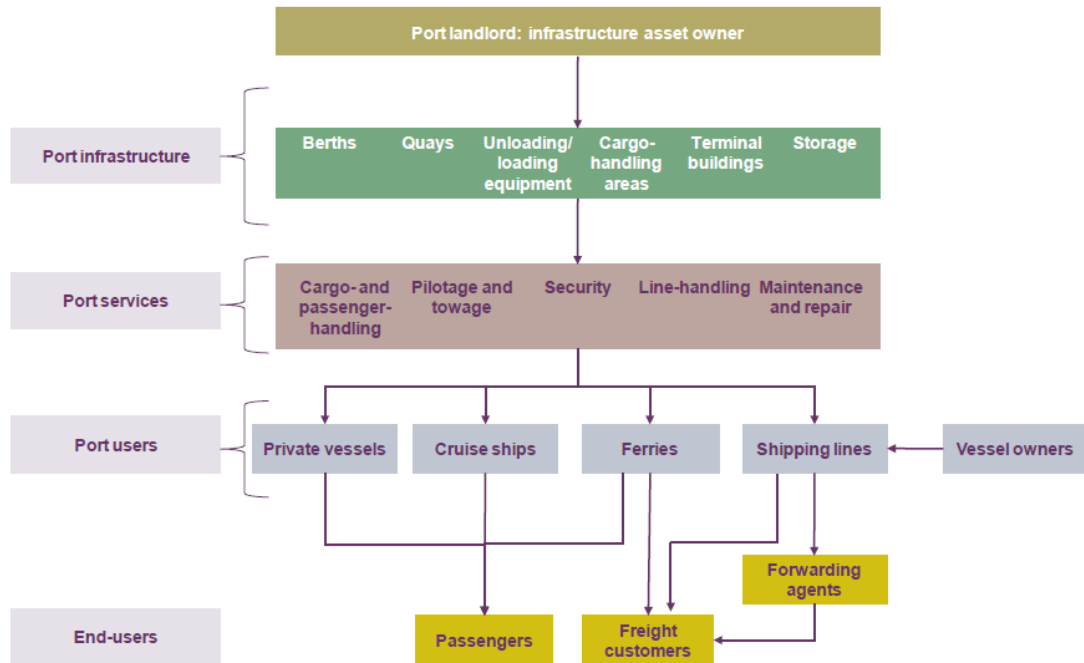
The port is the interface between land and a sea or a waterway connection providing facilities and services to commercial ships and their cargo (Bichou, 2010: 2), as well as more complex, logistics and multimodal transport centers and value added organizations (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010: 947). Ports are used for loading and unloading cargo as well as for loading fuel, fresh water, and supplies, and discharging waste. Ports impose physical limitations on the dimensions of the ships that may call in them (ship draft, length and width), and usually charge fees for their services. Sometimes ports are used for transshipment of cargo among ships, especially when the cargo is containerized (Christiansen et al., 2007: 198).

Bichou and Gray (2005: 89) examine the concept of ports in terms of three types of channel:

- (a) From a logistics channel standpoint, the port is a very important node since it serves as an intermodal/multimodal transport intersection and operates as a logistics center for the flows of goods (cargo) and people (passengers).
- (b) From a trade channel perspective, the port is a key location whereby channel control and ownership can be identified and/or traded.
- (c) From a supply channel approach, the port not only links outside flows and processes but also creates patterns and processes of its own. At this level, ports are one of the very few networking sites that can bring together various members in the supply channel.

Figure 1 below provides a stylized illustration of the value chain in the maritime/port sector (OECD, 2011: 22).

Figure 1: Maritime Sector Value Chain



Source: OECD, 2011: 22

Ports come all shapes and sizes. They fulfill various functions, ranging from offering a safe haven in a storm, to providing a location for processing freight and passengers or offering support services to ships, to functioning as a basis for industrial development, to forming a central distribution point for various chains of transport (Stevens, 1999: 48). They are the value-adding transfer points and central links in complex supply and logistics and transportation chains, providing seamless transport facilities with a strong interface with other modes of transport services (Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 236). The role of the seaport is (Taylor, 1974: 22):

- a) To effectively design and develop its business within, and as part of, the overall integrated transport system in the loading and discharging of ships.
- b) To provide adequate and safe acceptance and dispatch of ships of differing sizes and types according to the trades which it serves.
- c) To provide services of cargo and passenger handling; appropriate equipment; berthing and transit/warehousing facilities.
- d) To maintain, qualitatively and quantitatively, a staff and labor force sufficient to its needs.

- e) To maintain physical facilities of buildings, berths and equipment such that operations are effectively promoted and maintenance planned accordingly.
- f) To anticipate improvements, and necessary investment, where trade changes are likely to indicate new types of traffic.
- g) To develop forward thinking, marketing and forecasting procedures as will maintain, or increase, the flow of traffic through the port.
- h) To create strong liaison arrangements with commercial and financial interests and with user transport undertakings, so that the port is geared to adequate reception and quick throughput.
- i) To provide a realistic costs and charges structure of a sufficiently flexible nature to meet the types of trade using the port and the services.

The major commercial ports in the world fulfill all these functions simultaneously and are therefore also termed multi-purpose ports: they possess various specialized terminals (Stevens, 1999: 48).

1.1.1.1. Port Generations and Port Development

Ports have developed in different ways with a combination of trade, economic, spatial, political, social, and even cultural and military influences, and no clear pattern of port development exists (Bichou, 2010: 41). Port functions have changed and expanded in a multi-dimensional way responding to technical, economic and social developments, among others, such as containerization, diversification of cargo types and equipments, intermodal transport, and IT and communication systems (Flynn et al., 2011: 497). Many factors can cause ports to change, evolve or die. These factors can be changes in patterns, changes in inland transport, changes in financial and logistic thinking, environmental pressures, changes in port management like different ownership and labor, changing cargo handling technology, changing in ship size and competition (Alderton, 2005: 17).

The concept of 'port generation' was first introduced in 1994 by UNCTAD (Flynn et al., 2011: 497). According to approaches of Karatas-Cetin and Cerit (2010:

968); Bichou (2010: 42) and Flynn et al. (2011: 497), four port generations can be summarized as:

First and second generation ports, relating to ship/shore and industrial interfaces, respectively, operate bulk and break bulk cargo in a traditional manner. While the first generation ports are labor intensive, the second-generation ports seem to be more capital intensive and the decisive factor in third-generation ports are technology and know-how. Logistics chain and value added aspects of port organizations become important in third-generation ports. Third generation ports are the product of the unitization of sea-trade and multimodal cargo packaging (mainly in the form of containers) which has led to the development of ports as logistics and inter-modal centers offering value-added services, with technology and know-how being the major determining factors. Fourth-generation ports are mainly the results of recent vertical and horizontal integration strategies and are identified as being separated geographically but with common operates or administration. Additionally, the two main characteristics of fourth generation ports are leanness and agility which means more specialization in services and flexibility to respond to the changes in the port management. The fourth generation port is characterized as a directing center of (containerized) goods flows.

Table 1 provides wider information about these four generations of ports with categorizing them into different determinants like environment, functions, locational and strategy. It can be deduced from the table that the functionality of ports have been expanded. For instance, while *port functions* were transshipment(1), storage(2) and trade(3) in the first generation, the extent of port functions in the fourth generation has included transshipment(1), storage(2), trade(3), industry(4), distribution(5) and logistic control(6).

Table 1: Functional and Spatial Development of a Seaport

	First Generation Stage I	Second Generation Stage II	Third Generation Stage III	Fourth Generation Stage IV
External Environment				
Period of Developments	Before 1960s	After 1960s	After 1980s	2000s
Exogenous Developments	- Colonization - Steam ships - Rise of nations - Rise of trade	- Petrochemistry - Lorry and pipeline - Structural prosperity - Industrialization	- Multinationals - Container - Ecological protection - Internationalization	- Global economy - Information systems - Environment - Informatization
Functional Organization				
Port Function	<i>Transshipment (1) Storage (2) Trade (3)</i>	<i>(1) To (3) + Industry (4)</i>	<i>(1) To (4) + Distribution (5)</i>	<i>(1) To (5) + Logistic control</i>
Product Characteristics	- Cargo flow - Simple service - Low value-added	- Cargo flow - Cargo - Information - Combined services - Improved - Value-added	- Cargo/Information flow - Cargo distribution - Multiple service package - High value-added (port oriented)	- Cargo/Information flow - Cargo/Information distribution - Multiple service package - High value-added (network oriented) - Chain management
Type of Cargo	Break bulk cargo	Break bulk and dry/liquid bulk	Bulk and unitized/ containerized cargo	General cargo/containers information
Spatial Organizations				
Spatial Scale of Port	Port city	Port area	Port region	Port network
Spatial Expansion of Port	Quay and waterfront area	Enlarged port area	Terminals and distribelt towards landside	Network-related functional expansion
Principal Locational Factors	- Presence of market - Availability of labor	- Access to raw materials - Access to sales market - Availability of capital	- Availability of transshipment facilities - Access to sales market - Space - Flexibility and costs of labor	- Availability of transshipment facilities - Access to sales market - Space - Flexibility and costs of labor - Availability know-how - Quality of life
Port Organization and Strategy				
Organization Characteristics	- Independent activities within port - Informal relationship between port and port users	- Closer relationship between port and port users - Loose relationship between activities in port - Causal relationship between port and municipality	- United port community - Integration of port with trade and transport chain - Close relationship between port and municipality - Enlarged port organization	- Port network community - Close relationship between port network and public authorities on different levels
Port Authority's Task	<i>Nautical services (1)</i>	<i>(1) + Development of grounds and infrastructure (2)</i>	<i>(1), (2) + Port marketing (3)</i>	<i>(1) To (3) + Network management</i>
Attitude & Strategy	- Conservative - Port as changing point of transport	- Expansionist - Transport, industrial and commercial center	Commercial oriented integrated transport and logistics center	Commercial oriented integrated transport, logistic and information complex and network

Source: Flynn et al., 2011: 499

1.1.1.2. Types of Ports

Seaports which have built up reputations for “servicing” particular trades, or grown out of trades developing can be said to have particular classifications (Taylor, 1974: 31). Ports are heterogeneous, differing considerably, depending on their location, in the types of vessel and cargo that they can handle and the services they offer. However, some broad categories can be used to distinguish between them (OECD, 2011: 24).

Typically, seaborne trade is categorized into bulk, break-bulk and general cargo trades, and this categorization has also been used to classify different types of ships. Other criteria for ship classification include type of packaging (e.g. containers: containerships; trailers: roll-on roll-off or Ro-Ro ships); ship’s size (e.g. Panamax versus post-Panamax vessels, very large crude carriers (VLCC) versus ultra-large crude carriers (ULCC)); technological specifications (e.g. conventional versus cellular containerships, single-deck versus double-deck ships); and safety and security records (e.g. safety class for vessels, ISPS ship security levels) (Bichou, 2010: 3).

According to Alderton (2005: 9) ports can be classified in two large groups:

A. By Function

a. A cargo interface

- i. Hub or center port
- ii. Feeder port
- iii. Enterport or transit port
- iv. Domestic port

b. MIDAs (Maritime Industrial Development Areas)

- i. Large industrial zone with its own maritime transport terminal
- ii. Custom free port
- iii. Oil port

c. Specific ship/shore interface

- i. Naval port
- ii. Fishing port
- iii. Specific commodity export port

B. By Geographic Type

- i. Coastal submergence – New York and Southampton
- ii. Ryas (submerged estuaries) – Falmouth, Rio
- iii. Tidal estuaries – Bristol, London, Antwerp
- iv. Artificial harbors - Dover
- v. Rivers (non-tidal) - Montreal

Ports can be categorized according to the type of goods that are handled. These are variously termed ‘dry (coal, ores, grain) and wet bulk (crude oil, minerals, chemicals)’ which are respectively ‘dumped’ or ‘pumped’ into the hold. Non-bulk refers to the traditional general cargo, container handling or roll on roll off cargo (Stevens, 1999: 44).

Traditionally, port administration has been distinguished as landlord port, tool port and service port in terms of its ownership and operating structure of ports. Landlord port refers to the port authority that provides land, constructs and maintains infrastructure, whereas the superstructure and all port business are constructed and operated by private companies. In tool port, the port authority provides infrastructure and superstructure, and operates some port services; the remaining port services are operated by the private sector. Service port refers to the port authority that provides all port services to ships and cargo owners (Chen, 2009: 164). **Table 2** contains nearly all classification of ports above mentioned.

Table 2: Different Classification of Ports

Criteria	Port category
Cargo/commodity type	Dry bulk port, liquid bulk port, general cargo port, etc.
Ship type	Ferry port, Ro-Ro port, multipurpose port, LNG port, etc.
Trade type	Import port, export port, transshipment port, transit port, etc.
Institutional model	Landlord port, tool port, service port, etc.
Ownership model	Private port, public port, semi-public port, etc.
Management model	Trust port, corporatized port, autonomous port, etc.
Organizational model	Centralized port, decentralized port, developed port, etc.
Geographical scope	Gateway port, local port, coastal port, inland port, etc.
Logistics status	Feeder port, hub port, transshipment port, network port, etc.

Source: Bichou, 2009: 11

1.1.1.3. Port Operations and Services

Ports have several important functions which are crucial to the efficiency of the ships which trade between them (Stopford, 2009: 81). Regardless of how it is developed and organized, however, a port's main function is to enable, hopefully in a safe and cost effective manner, the transfer of goods from sea to shore and vice versa. As such, a port is an interface between sea and land; a node in a transport chain; a point where goods change mode of transport. Cargo-handling is thus a port's core business (Haralambides and Veenstra, 2005: 782). The central function of a port is to be a point of transfer of commodities and people from land to water and vice versa. It is a place where land and water transport modes come into contact and the services are provided for the purpose of the interchange of cargoes and passengers as an essential feature of the whole national and international transport network (ICS, 2011/2012: 165).

Port traffic management is very important in the operation of large ports and it is given much attention by port and navigation authorities throughout the world. An important function of a port traffic management system is to assist in preventing loss of life, damage to property and harm to the environment by improving the safety of navigation in congested waters (Branch, 1986: 125).

The multiple role of a port is recognized as (Alderton, 2005: 4):

- Distribution center.
- Industrial zone and energy supply base.
- Mercantile trading center – attracting banks, brokers and traders.
- Urbanization and city development center.
- Life activity base – this is particularly the case for the smaller rural ports.
- Maritime leisure base – yacht marinas, dockside recreation facilities, cruise ship terminals.

Ports provide a fairly wide range of different services. This requires different port facilities not only in terms of berths, but also in distribution arrangements (Branch, 1986: 177). In principle, public administrations can offer (combinations of) various services in ports (Stevens, 1999: 52):

- *Infrastructural services:* Construction of berths and parking zones for the relevant means of transport, loading zones for goods and so forth;
- *Superstructural services:* Offering opportunities for handling (cranes) , for processing of goods (distribution centers), etc. (services of stevedores and warehousing companies);
- *Additional services:* Dealing with the administration of transportation and cargo, the organization of the loading and unloading of goods, etc. (services of shipbrokers and forwarding agents).

Port services given in **Table 3** – in order to use a port, a range of intermediary services is often required, which can be provided by the port itself or by independent intermediary parties (OECD, 2011: 23).

Table 3: Port Services

• Services to the Ship • Safe Navigation • Aids to navigation • Dredging • Pilotage, towage • Services at the Berth • Berthing • Stevedoring, wharf handling • Equipment, short-term rental • Water, bunkers, garbage removal • Electricity and communications • Stowage planning	• Services to the Cargo • Cargo Processing, Storage • Storage, short-term • Storage, long-term • Processing to different form • Consolidation/deconsolidation • Equipment, short-term rental • Information Processing • Cargo inventory • Notification of vessel and cargo arrival • Cargo clearance
• Other Services to Users • Leasing land, other resources • Office space • Warehouses • Equipment, long-term rental • Land for development • Land for operations • Security • Vessels • Cargo	• Other Port Activities • Marketing and Sales • Market analysis • Marketing activities • Human Resource Development • Training • Recruitment • Reorganization of work and gangs

Source: UNCTAD, 1995c: 4

In addition to port services, **Table 4** also gives information about port activities in different categories. It can be said that port activities consist of four main classification which are legal, personnel, finance and accounting, engineering, commercial marketing, management services and operations.

Table 4: Classification of Port Activities

Classification of Port Activities	
Legal • Contracts • Negotiations • Legal work	Commercial marketing • Pricing policy • Market research • Market analysis • Public relations
Personnel • Personnel management • Training • Benefits • Health care • Union relations	Management services • Computer operations • Strategic planning • Operational analysis
Finance and accounting • Cash control • Income and expenditure • Cost analysis • Budgeting • Audit • Procurement • Financial analysis • Capital expenditure • Payroll • Accounting	Operations • Traffic management and conservancy • Operations ○ Ship/vehicle management ○ Resource allocation/labor and equipment ○ Berth allocation ○ Cargo handling ○ Storage area/facilities control • Security • Pilotage
Engineering • Engineering • Equipment and facility maintenance • Planning	

Source: Frankel, 1987: 546

1.1.1.4. The Role of Ports in the Transportation System

Ports form a vital link in the supply chains of trading companies and nations worldwide (Cullinane, 2005: 803). Traditionally, ports have been regarded as a sub-system of the shipping and maritime industry, with their main roles being restricted to the provision of services to ships and their cargoes (Bichou, 2010: 2). Ports are critical infrastructure resources and serve a key role in the transportation of freight and people. With more than 80% of international trade by volume being carried by sea, ports are vital for seaborne trade and international commerce. Ports are the critical nodal interfaces where maritime transport connects with other modes of transport and where trading, distribution and logistics activities can take place (Bichou, 2010: 1). Ports exist as an important and fundamental part of the overall pattern of trade and transport. The four principal roles of a port can be summarized as follows (Branch, 1986: 2):

- a) *Provision of shelter from the elements.* This arises when, due to heavy seas and storm conditions prevailing, ships take shelter in the environs of a port and thereby seek safe anchorage.
- b) *Cargo and passenger handling.* A place where ships can load or discharge their cargo, and/or passengers. This is the prime function of a port.
- c) *Support services for ships.* This embraces victualing, stores, bunkering, ship repair and so on. In the larger ports such as Dunkerque ship yard/dry docking facilities are available for ship survey and overhaul purposes.
- d) *A base for industrial development.* This involves the provision of industry and its infrastructure to facilitate the development of trade passing through the port. It may be a steel plant. A more recent development is the free ports concept.
- e) *A terminal forming part of a transport chain.* Such an interchange point links the shipping service with other transport modes under the combined transport operation concept. It may involve rail, road or inland waterways/canal transport.

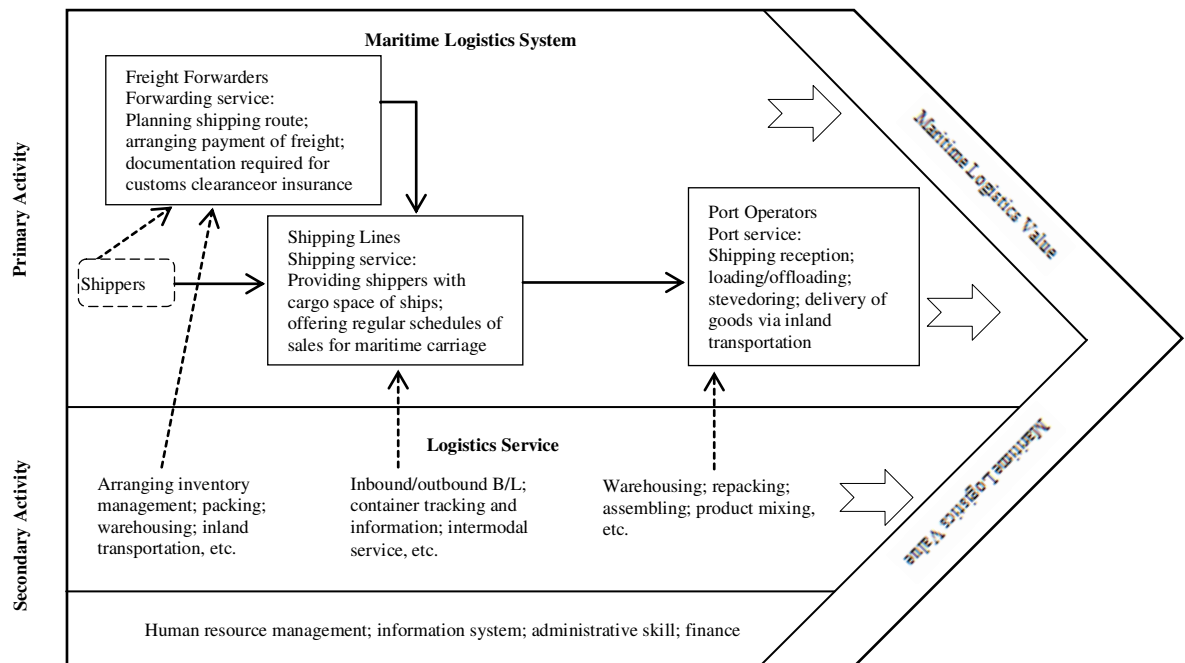
Ports play a crucial role in international shipping and inland transport sectors as nodes in supply chain systems. As the world is being transformed into a globalized economy, ports have been incorporated into a huge, changing and competitive system, providing commercially-oriented as well as customer centric services (Flynn et al., 2011: 497). Ports should also be considered as one of the most important aspects of maritime transportation because they are the location (Alderton, 2005: 2):

- Where most maritime accidents happen.
- Where cargo is damaged or stolen.
- Where repairs are carried out.
- Where most costs are incurred.
- Where delays are most likely to occur.
- Where surveys take place.
- Where most shipping services are located, e.g. agents, brokers, etc.
- Where industries are situated.

- Where cargoes come from.
- Where customs and government policies are implemented.

Figure 2 shows the process of maritime logistics by giving primary and secondary activities. The figure also gives information about parties which provide maritime logistics services and the logistics services. Besides, the figure shows the connection among parties involved in the maritime logistics system.

Figure 2: Process of Maritime Logistics



Source: Lee et al., 2012: 15

1.1.2. Port Organization and Management

Ports are very complex and dynamic entities where various activities are carried out by and on account of different actors and operators; they are often dissimilar to one another (Bichou, 2010: 31). In the past decades, the role of port management has changed quite fundamentally. The port landscape has, after all, also altered in many respects. New technologies and strategic developments have led almost automatically to greater port competition, both at port authority level and at

the level of companies operating within the various ports (Meersman and Voorde, 2005: 765). The functions of port management are to plan, organize, and control port operations by coordinating the use of various resources of the port system in the performance of port services (Frankel, 1987: 540). Port management therefore consists of a number of distinct functions (Frankel, 1987: 540):

1. Medium – to long-term planning and strategic decision making. This involves also the setting or review of objectives and is performed by the top management of the port.
2. Operational planning and control, including management of day-to-day (or real-time) operations. This is performed by operating management which is concerned with traffic, operations, and engineering.
3. Commercial and financial control that involves marketing (real-time) accounting, short-term financial management, personnel management, and other management functions involving short-term financial performance.

1.1.2.1. Port Authority

The term port authority has been defined in various ways. In 1977, a commission of the European Union (EU) defined a port authority as a “State, Municipal, public, or private body, which is largely responsible for the tasks of construction, administration and sometimes the operation of port facilities and, in certain circumstances, for security.” (The World Bank, 2007b: 77). Stopford (2009: 81) also defined ‘port authority’ as “the organization responsible for providing the various maritime services required to bring ships alongside land. Another definition from Commission of the European Communities (2001: 28) is that ‘port authority’ or ‘managing body of the port’ (hereafter referred to as ‘managing body of the port’) means a body which, whether or not in conjunction with other activities, has as its objective under national law or regulation the administration and management of the port infrastructures, and the co-ordination and control of the activities of the different operators present in the port or port system concerned.

In the case of a state owned/controlled port authority, the chairman and his board would be appointed by the state. Each board member would have special responsibilities/interest such as finance, industrial relations, marketing, technical operations, and so on (Branch, 1986: 188). In the privately owned ports, the organization is headed by a chairman with seven directors, including the managing director and secretary (Branch, 1986: 194).

The port authority also known as the harbor authority, the harbor board, the port trust, or the port commission, is a common institution found across various ownership models and may assume several roles ranging from being the landowner of port infrastructure, to an operator of port superstructure and/or a developer of both (Bichou, 2010: 37; Estache and Trujillo, 2009: 70). **Table 5** indicates the traditional roles of port authorities as regulator, landlord and operator roles.

Table 5: Traditional Roles of Port Authorities

Regulator	Landlord	Operator
Licensing port works	Management, maintenance and development of port estate	Physical transfer of goods and passengers between sea and land
Port policy	Civil engineering works	Provision of technical nautical services
VTs services	Provision of infrastructure and facilities	Waste disposal
Laws and regulations	Implementation of policies and development strategies	Equipment maintenance
Port labor regulations	Protection and maintenance of port infrastructure	
Environmental policy	Marketing of port location	
Customs	Port safety	
Protection of public interest for port community		

Source: Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 241

Port management used to be almost exclusively in the hands of the port authorities. However, over the years, and especially in the past decade, this situation has changed quite profoundly. The power of the port authority has clearly dwindled. It must now undergo the might of the strong(er) port players, more in particular the shipping companies and terminal operators (Meersman and Voorde, 2005: 767). In the new competitive landscape, the port authorities have such role to effectively manage the port organization to sustain the competitive position in the changing environment of the port industry. These are: concentrating on value added logistics;

development of information and communication systems to enhance the integration of the supply chain actors; and port networking by strategic cooperation with other ports (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010: 967). **Table 6** also illustrates some strategic challenges and appropriate actions.

Table 6: Overview of Port Authorities' Strategic Challenges and Related Strategic Actions

PA's strategic challenge	Appropriate actions/strategies
Reform (integration of corporate governance mechanisms and business objectives into the PA organization)	Corporate governance Value capturing from existing products/services Product/service diversification International expansion
Improve efficiency and effectiveness on the port cluster level	Concession policy Facilitating and catalyzing role as cluster manager Environmental management/license to operate Effective port marketing, market intelligence, innovation, accessibility, education
Guarantee long-term development through positioning of the port cluster	Concession policy (e.g. flexible and sustainable land use) Total quality management Shift from product to market orientation Port-city interface Communication strategy
Develop the port network	Network optimization (both economics as sustainability) Taking strategic positions in the hinterland (e.g. participations in inland platforms) International expansion?

Source: Van Der Lugt et al., 2013: 108

1.1.2.2. Port Administration Models

Ports can be classified as to their type of ownership or administration – in fact, over the last decade this has been one of the most debated topics concerning port efficiency (Alderton, 2005: 92). Traditionally, ports have been owned, operated and regulated by state-controlled public organizations. However, the introduction of private sector participation in ports and the emergence of new forms of port

administration have led to the adoption of new models of port ownership and institutional structuring (Bichou, 2010: 36).

The ownership and institutional structure of ports can differ considerably. (OECD, 2011: 25). There are many classifications of port administrations. For example; while The World Bank (2007b: 81), Rönty et al. (2011: 20), Brooks and Cullinane (2007: 409) and Wang et al. (2005: 27) classify port administration as public service port, tool port, landlord port and fully privatized port, Taylor (1974: 29) state that there are trust ports; municipal ports; privately owned ports and publicly owned ports. Additionally, Bichou (2010: 37) depicts types of port administration as service ports, landlord ports and tool ports in a similar way of the World Bank. Traditionally, British textbooks classified port ownership under the following headings (Alderton, 2005: 92):

1. State ownership
2. Autonomous
3. Municipal ownership
4. Private ownership ports

Likewise the classification of British textbooks, the approach of Frankel (1987: 544) is that the most typical port administrations and their characteristics are (Frankel, 1987: 544):

1. Central Government or National Port Authority of Administration
2. Autonomous Port Authorities
 - a. Public accountability
 - b. Controlled by a board of elected and appointed members
 - c. Legally interdependent of the government but usually subject to oversight
 - d. Generally nonprofit making
 - e. Obtains investment funds through its own borrowing, public financing, and the like
3. Regional or Municipal Port Authority
 - a. Controlled by the regional, state, provincial, or municipal government
 - b. Responsive to regional and local interests

- c. Subject to regional or local political policies
- d. Operator in line with regional or local planning
- e. Often, but not generally, nonprofit making
- f. Usually obtains investment funds through public offering such as revenue bonds, general obligation bonds, and the like offered by the port authority or the regional/municipal government
- g. Not designed as profit-making bodies, but usually attempt to obtain the surplus

4. Private Port Organization

- a. Controlled by private enterprise
- b. Financed by private enterprise through internal or public financing
- c. Profitmaking
- d. Commercial type management
- e. Operates as a dependent division or interdependent unit of private enterprise

The details of other most common classification (public service port, tool port, landlord port and fully privatized ports) are given in **Table 8**.

Table 7 demonstrates basic port management models with showing how public or private companies share the responsibilities of infrastructure, superstructure, port labor and other functions of ports.

Table 7: Basic Port Management Models

Type	Infrastructure	Superstructure	Port labor	Other functions
Public service port	Public	Public	Public	Majority public
Tool port	Public	Public	Private	Public/Private
Landlord port	Public	Private	Private	Public/Private
Private service port	Private	Private	Private	Majority public

Source: World Bank, 2007b: 85

Table 8: Description, Strengths and Weaknesses of Port Institutional Models

	Description	Strengths	Weaknesses
Public service port	• Owns, develops and maintains, both infrastructure and superstructure • Owns and operates handling equipment • Operates and performs on its own all services • Labor for all port services provided by public sector	• Huge investment required • No redundancy (in theory) • Unity of command and management (Superstructure development and cargo handling operations are the responsibility of the same organization)	• Handling operations not compatible of public entity • Private sector out of the port business • Strong power from labor unions • Lack of internal competition, leading to inefficiency • Wasteful use of resources and underinvestment as a result of government interference • Not user and market-oriented operations • Lack of innovation • Nor or limited access to public funds for basic infrastructure • Less problem solving capability and flexibility in case of labor problems, since the port administration also is the major employer of port labor
Landlord port	• Owns, develops and maintains the infrastructure, but leases/rents it to the private sector • Handling services performed by private sector. Labor for handling services provided by private sector • Marine and nautical services may be performed by either the public sector, the private sector, or a combination of both	• A single entity executing cargo handling operations and owning and operating cargo handling equipment • No investment required in equipment and superstructure facilities • Private sector efficiency and accountability • Investment by the private sector ensures strong market leadership, long-term relationship • Competitive market dynamics • Better management of port labor • Better able to cope with market requirements	• Possible conflict between private sector objectives and general public interest • Risk of overcapacity as a result of pressure from various private operators • Risk of misjudging the proper timing of capacity additions
Tool port	• Owns, develops and maintains the infrastructure • Owns superstructure which is operated by the private sector • Labor for handling services provided by public sector • Marine and nautical services may be performed by either the public sector, the private sector , or a combination of both	• Huge investment required • No redundancy (in theory) • Investment in port infrastructure and equipment decided and provided by the public sector	• Double entity (public and private) undertaking handling operations and management • Possibility of conflict regarding equipment assignment and operational efficiency • No control over gang and labor efficiency from the part of the private sector • Risk of underinvestment • Lack of innovation
Private service port	• Private sector owns, develops and operates infrastructure, superstructure, and all other port services • Private sector provides labor for all services • Regulatory and statutory functions may be performed by the public authority	• Port operations and management performance not influenced by political decisions • Higher efficiency in asset and human resources management (in theory) • Maximum flexibility in investments and port operations • Market-oriented port development and tariff policies • Enabling the private operator to broaden its scope of activities	• Risk of market failure, e.g. monopolistic behavior • Difficulty in planning and implementing public port policy • Possible deviation from core port business (e.g. handling) to more profitable activities (e.g. real estate development) • Government needed to create a port regulator to control monopolistic behavior • Government has to spend considerable amounts of money to buy back the port land in case the necessity arises to redevelop the port area

Source: Adopted from Bichou, 2009: 39 and The World Bank, 2007b: 84

While **Table 7** gives basic responsibilities, **Table 9** gives much more details about responsibilities of administrative bodies of ports in terms of different port management models.

Table 9: Public-Private Roles in Port Management

Port Activity	Port Administration	Nautical Management	Nautical Infrastructure	Port Infrastructure	Superstructure (equipment)	Superstructure (buildings)	Cargo Handling Activities	Pilotage	Towage	Mooring Services	Dredging	Other Functions
Public service port												
Tool port												
Landlord port												
Private service port												

Public Responsibility
 Private Responsibility

Source: World Bank, 2007c: 9

1.1.2.3. Organization Structure at Ports

An organization's structure is a pattern of relationships that govern the performance of organizational roles (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010: 972). The size of the port authority, its organization and cost structure and the pricing of the tariffs are influenced by the type of facilities provided/offered (Branch, 1986: 177). In addition, the structure of a port authority is determined primarily by the nature of the trade(s) in which it operates and by the scale of its activities (Branch, 1986: 187). A seaport organizational structure must, to a large extent, be individual, since any one is influenced by the manner in which its "set up" conforms to areas of responsibility and authority laid down by its constitution and/or legislative control (Taylor, 1974: 75). To operate effectively a seaport requires to set up an organizational structure which will provide for (Taylor, 1974: 76):

1. Operating facilities according to the envisaged or current trades with which it will be, or is, concerned.
2. Back up facilities of supporting disciplines within the port.
3. Environmental associated facilities and influences.

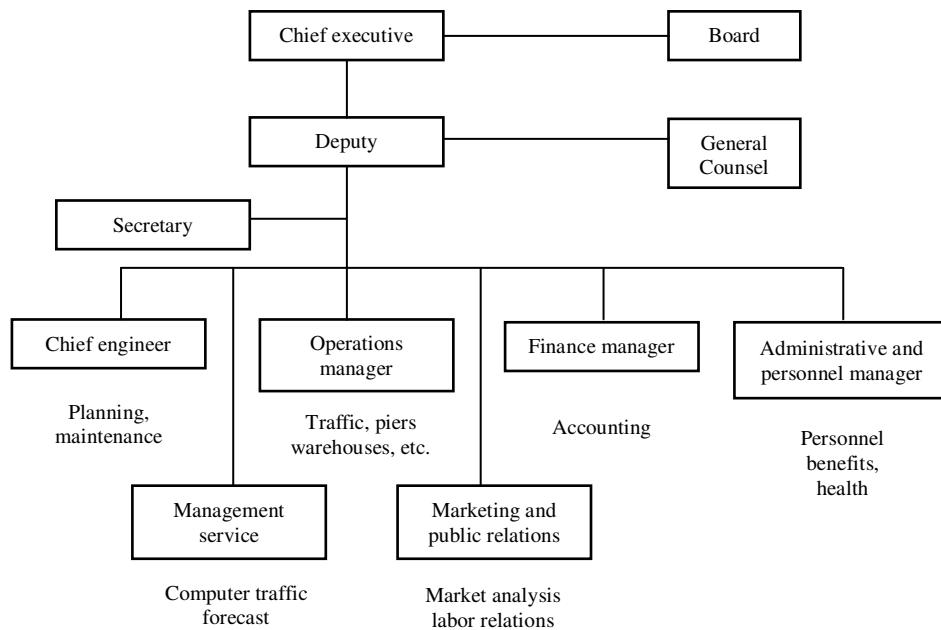
1. Operating activities:
 - Ports/Docks Management
 - Ports/Docks Superintendents
 - Ports/Docks Harbor Masters
 - Operating Management
 - Dredging Superintendents
 - Traffic Superintendents
 - Cargo Supervisors
 - Shed Supervisors
 - Traffic Supervisors
2. Back up activities: - the functions of: -
 - Engineering
 - Financial Control
 - Commercial Procedures
 - Personnel
 - Industrial Relations
 - Development
 - Training
3. Environmental activities: - the surrounding functions of: -
 - Estate
 - Marketing
 - Management Services
 - Conservancy
 - Research and Development
 - Public Relations
 - Legal Procedures
 - Secretarial and Administration
 - Computer Services

Port organizational structures vary widely by the objective, function, and the like, of a port. Each port has a number of distinct functional departments that are

independent of its overall structure, external reporting requirements and alternative or different forms of ownership, and operations of the port. Typically, a port has a top management team, supported by department heads, and operating/administrative unit managers. Some of the departments may be subdivided into several functional groupings (Frankel, 1987: 541). The sub-systems or processes in the port organization cover engineering, operations, logistics/industrial, social/environmental, economic/financial, political/legal, information and communication technology, human resources, marketing, management and organization. All these sub-systems are interrelated with each other and in total form the port system (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010: 972).

It is difficult to generalize as to the best organizational structure for a modern port, but a typical structure is given in **Figure 3**.

Figure 3: Typical Port Organization



Source: Frankel, 1987: 542

1.1.2.4. Port Community and Stakeholders

Port operations involve a great many players, both at management level and at operational level (Meersman et al., 2009b: 92). Port users are more than just the buyers of the port's services. Other supply chain partners may not be the purchasers of those services but have experience with, and influence on, the delivery of port services (Brooks et al., 2011: 315).

Stakeholder is defined as “a person such as an employee, customer, or citizen who is involved with an organization, society, etc. and therefore has responsibilities towards it and an interest in its success” (Cambridge Dictionary, 2014). Also, Freeman (1984) defined stakeholder as “any group or individual who is affected by or can affect the achievement of an organization's objectives.” (Le et al., 2013: 174; Denktas Sakar and Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 307). From the functional viewpoint the stakeholders' community can be divided into the following groups according to the degree of involvement in port operations (Macario and Viegas, 2009: 120):

- Inner port community – the agents directly responsible for the operational quality delivered
 - authorities
 - government
 - port authorities
 - operations related
 - port operators
 - customs
- Interface port community – the agents influencing quality specifications to match client needs
 - transport companies
 - managers of infrastructure related with land access
 - management bodies of utilities – electricity, water, etc.
- Outer port community – the agents influencing the potential for the development of the hinterland supporting the port throughput
 - shipping agents
 - freight forwarders

- productive industry related
- other authorities
- beneficiaries form regional development without economic relation with the port
- community at large.

For a port, a stakeholder could be defined as any individual or group of individuals that can influence – or is influenced by – the achievement of the port's objectives. On the basis of this definition, a variety of stakeholder categories can be identified making a distinction between internal stakeholders (groups inside the port authority) and external stakeholders (groups which are not part of the port organization) (Dooms et al., 2004: 1146). In the narrow view the port's stakeholders include only shareholders, managers, employees, port users, service providers and other economic players in and around the port (including port customers, etc.); in the broader view on stakeholders also various community stakeholders exist (e.g. community groups and environmentalists) (Winkelmans and Notteboom, 2007). Four stakeholder groups in port community are presented as follows (Gaur, 2005: 20; Denktas Sakar and Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 308):

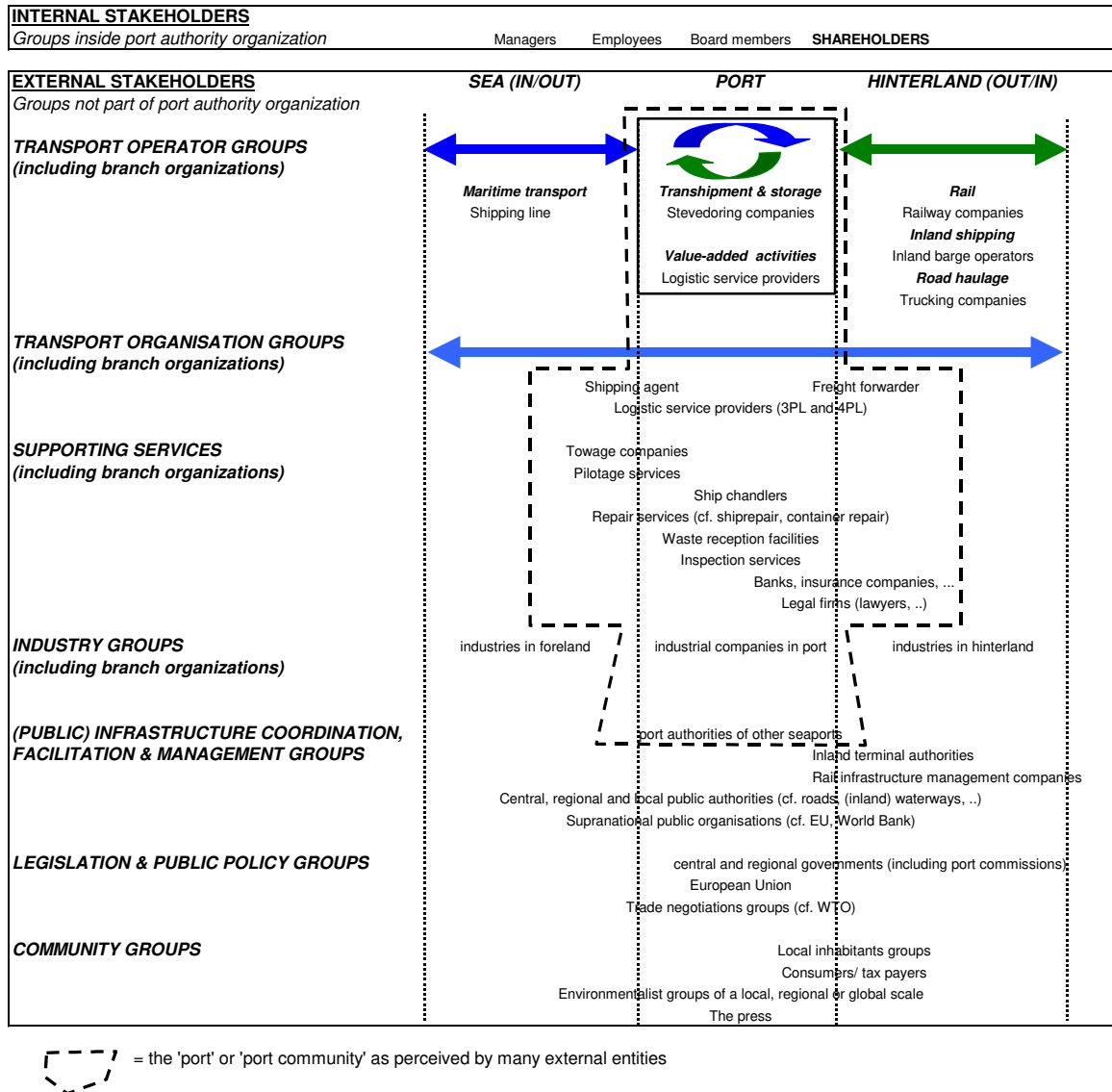
- *Internal stakeholders:* Internal stakeholders are parties inside the port authorities' organizational boundaries such as port managers/executives, port employees, board members, shareholders, unions.
- *External stakeholders:* External stakeholders are two main groups as; parties that invest directly and indirectly in the port area. The first group includes terminal operators, stevedoring companies, forwarders, shipping agencies, industrial companies in the port area, supporting industries such as ship repairers and port labor pools, the second group consists of port customers, trading companies, importers/exporters. They provide their services as stevedoring, hinterland connectivity, maritime navigation aid, logistics services in the port area or industries, and the users are shippers and ship owners.
- *Legislation and public policy stakeholders:* The regulators are government departments responsible for transport and economic affairs, environmental

departments and spatial planning authorities. They may be central or local government; a special body created for port and maritime sector, international organizations like IMO, UNCTAD, World Bank etc. and in some places supranational organizations like European Union, ASEAN etc.

- *Community stakeholders:* The community groups include civil society organizations affected by port operations, environmental groups, the general public, the press, trade unions and the other non-market players.

Figure 4 classified port stakeholders into two main categories as internal and external. However, external stakeholders include legislation and public policy and community groups as mentioned above.

Figure 4: The Port as a Node for Contacts and Contracts



Source: Notteboom and Winkelman, 2002

1.2. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT AND STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN PORT MANAGEMENT

1.2.1. Strategic Management Applications in Port Management

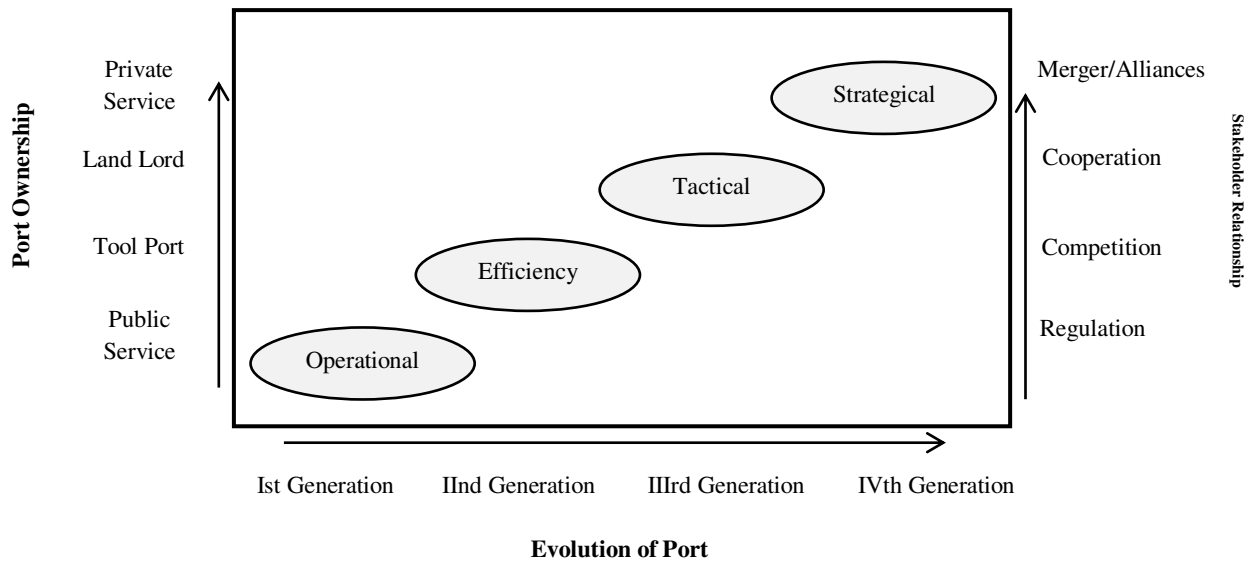
In recent years, there has been a great interest in conceptualizing ports from a strategic management perspective, particularly with the increasing recognition of the

integrative role of ports in international logistics and distribution systems (Song and Parola, 2015). Port always plays a strategic role in the development of domestic and international trade of a country whether it is a developing or developed country. However, in a globalized world where distances are becoming virtually squeezed, ports play an active role in sustaining the economic growth of a country (Gaur, 2005: 5). Moreover, maritime and other port-related firms are often interdependent on each other, and strategic connectivity between organizations within and between ports strongly affects ports and firms' overall competitiveness (Song and Parola, 2015).

In strategic port management, strategy identification leads to strategy selection which is driven by continually updated port objectives. Selected strategies are next translated into programs and plans. Programs and plans, including conditioned alternatives, are expressed in terms of implementation requirements and set of decisions and rules needed for effective implementation. These are then reviewed and evaluated and if accepted, become part of the new database and used in the next iteration for the updating of port objectives (Frankel, 1987: 113). The port management needs urgently to give some thought to such developments. Shipping companies, especially those who are active in liner traffic, are adjusting to changing circumstances all the time. They are compelled to develop new operational strategies, to introduce new technologies and to venture into new markets in order to survive in the new global economy that they have helped to create (Suykens and Van De Voorde, 1998: 259).

According to **Figure 5**, it can be said that strategical structures in port industry has started to gain importance nowadays because of the increasing privatization trend.

Figure 5: Institutional Structure of Port as Strategic Tool



Source: Gaur, 2005: 26

1.2.1.1. Port Environment

World ports operate in a growth environment (Meersman and Voorde, 2005: 774). Seaports are open systems interacting with their turbulent environments and affecting world trade with their maritime transport and technological developments (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 948). Port organizations accommodate the dynamism and turbulence in their environments that are brought about by driving forces like globalization, technological advances and the changes in the expectations of the players in the supply chains (Karatas-Cetin, 2012: 234). Environmental scanning refers to analyzing and understanding the changing environment surrounding the port and anticipating impacts (Ircha, 2001: 129)

All organizations function (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 948):

- (1) within the value patterns of cultural environment in which they are embedded;
- (2) within the political structure or pattern of legal norms and statutes that define their formal legitimacy and limit their activities;
- (3) within the economic environment of competitive markets and competitive sources of input such as labor force and materials;
- (4) within the informational and technological environment;

(5) within the natural and physical environment of geography, natural resources and climate.

However, micro external environmental factors including customers, competitors, suppliers, distribution, substitute modes and community which are also regarded as industry environment have more direct effects on port (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 970).

The port's sensitivity to environmental events often depends upon the hierarchical level of the scanners and their ability to influence corporate decision making. Environmental scanning may be meaningless if top-level port managers do not perceive the need for a change (Ircha, 2001: 129).

Several tools have been developed for understanding the competitive dynamics of an industry and conducting strategic positioning analyses for a firm and its environment (Bichou, 2009: 210):

- SWOT Analysis
- Porter's five forces model
 - The bargaining power of suppliers
 - The bargaining power of customers
 - Threat of entry
 - Threat of substitution
 - Rivalry between competitors
- PEST Analysis
 - Political
 - Economic
 - Social
 - Technological
- ANSOFF matrix
 - help business decide about their product and market growth strategy
- Product portfolio analysis (PPA)
 - Combines measurement of market shares, growth rates and diversification

Environmental analysis, e.g. PEST (Political, Economic, Social and Technology) analysis, and SWOT (Strengths, Weaknesses, Opportunities, Threats) analysis are considered least important (Vermeulen, 2010: 863). An example of SWOT analysis of port industry is given in **Table 10**.

Table 10: SWOT Analysis of Port Industry in Europe

STRENGTHS • still-high added value for some traffic categories; • growing specialization and diversification of port services (niches); • liberalization process taking place in most ports; • space available from industrial relocation; • waterfront redevelopments and environmental improvements in many historical ports.	WEAKNESSES • decreasing payback for local factor; • increasing demand for space and the use of local transport networks; • increasing environmental impact and congestion; • lowering catalytic effect; • lower Keynesian multipliers.
OPPORTUNITIES • steadily increasing demand; • willingness to invest of major carriers and stevedores; • potential for expansion for operators; • diffusion of dedicated terminals as a tool for attracting investment and anchoring global players.	THREATS • growing competition among ports; • decreasing bargaining power of most ports; • economic integration of ports in international networks or vertically with the carriers, and the consequent loss of control at local level; • demand-driven planning process; • local conflicts, NIMBY syndromes and demaritimization; • need for continuous dredging and deep waters.

Source: Musso, 2009: 63

1.2.1.2. Port Strategy Formulation

The role of strategy is to guide the firm in its efforts to develop and utilize key resources to achieve desired objectives within a dynamic and challenging competitive environment (McKinnon, 2001: 162). In the past, few ports seem to have had clear and explicit management objectives. However, the adoption of the ISO Code 9000 and the development of Quality Management by ports in the early 1990s will have caused the minds of port boards to focus on this problem and come up with a variation of the following (Alderton, 2005: 105):

1. Ways of minimizing costs
 - a. Minimize payments by users in the port – including ships' time at a port
 - b. Minimize users' total through transport costs
 - c. Minimize port costs

2. Maximization of benefits

- a. They maximize benefits to the owners of the port
- b. They maximize benefits to the town, region or country

According to Musso (2009: 64), the strategies may be divided into three groups: land use and governance, labor, balance and compensation of effects:

- **To promote better land use and governance:** Improved land use reduce the demand for space and public resources per throughput unit, which in turn allows more growth in traffic flow and related activities.
- **To promote more and better jobs in a durable port industry:** As the ratio of employment to throughput has been dramatically falling over years, and as competition has made traffic so much more volatile, the strategies for coping with traffic growth should ensure durable benefits for the local added value, namely the labor force.
- **To balance different local effects to ports:** The principle here should be that the use of land and other public local resources should be charged differently traffic categories, according to the benefits they bring to the local community.

Governments and port managers can select from among a variety of strategies for improving organizational and operational performance, including (The World Bank, 2007b: 100):

- **Modernization** of port administration and management. Modernization of port administration assumes that performance can be improved by introducing more suitable systems, working practices, or equipment and tools within the existing system of bureaucratic constraints. The advantage of this strategy is that certain changes in the organization can be made without the requirement to change laws or national policy.
- **Liberalization** or deregulation port services. Liberalization and deregulation are the reform or partial elimination of governmental rules and regulations that enable private companies to operate in an area where previously only the public sector was allowed to operate.

- **Commercialization.** In the case of commercialization, although the public port is not transformed into a private company, it is given more autonomy and made accountable for its decisions and overall performance. A commercialized port authority applies the same management and accounting principles as private firms and can adopt private sector characteristics and practices to become more customer oriented as well as more efficient and profitable.
- **Corporatization.** In the case of corporatization, a public port enterprise is given the legal status of a private company, although the public sector or government still retains ownership. All assets are transferred to this private company, including land lease rights. Land ownership usually remains with the port authority.
- **Privatization.** Many port managers and government officials believe that the only way to improve the performance of public port organizations is through the process of privatization. They hold this view because they believe that certain characteristics of the private sector are indispensable to achieve commercial success.

Ports should aim to increase their value, both in their efficiency and effectiveness within the logistics industry and the supply chain, and in the resulting local net benefits (Musso, 2009: 66). Additionally, customer orientation and satisfaction as one of the most important effectiveness measures for ports should be situated in the center of the strategies of a port management (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 972).

As can be seen below, there are various strategies that top managers can formulate. Apart from those, competitive and marketing strategies are also necessary to be considered by top managers. According to Baltazar and Brooks (2007: 386) two dimensions of strategy are particularly relevant to ports concerned with economic performance: product and market scope and competitive emphasis. Ports, from gateways to feeders, have been influenced by increased competitive pressure, by their integration with inland freight distribution systems, and by technological changes in maritime and land transportation alike (Rodrigue, 2004: 63). Here, before

stated competitive emphasis of the port strategies, it is needed to depict some information about port competition concept.

In the last decades, ports have witnessed a substantial increase in competition, due to technological and organizational innovations and the emergence of powerful international players, such as ocean carriers and terminal operators (Parola et. al.; 2013: 137). Port competition may be inter- or intra-port competition (Talley, 2009: 140) or intra-terminal competition (Van Niekerk, 2004: 1347). Inter-port competition is competition between ports and the latter is competition within ports. Inter-port competition is competition between different ports, whereas intra-port competition is competition among marine terminals within the same port (Talley, 2009: 140). Intra-terminal competition is competition in a single terminal i.e. an arrangement whereby competition is encouraged primarily in three areas: the berth, in-yard operations and at the 'gate' (Van Niekerk, 2004: 1347).

At the core of many strategy plan is the pursuit of Michael Porter's concept of "competitive advantage", and more specifically "sustainable competitive advantage". This concept can be described as the firm employing its distinctive competencies, developed with the firm's resources and capabilities, to reach a cost advantage or differentiation advantage which leads to value creation (Vermeulen, 2010: 875).

- **Cost leadership:** The objective of this strategy is to become the low overall-cost producer in the industry (Bichou, 2009: 208). Sources of cost leadership in ports include access to transport routes (both maritime and inter-modal routes), proximity to cargo sources and destinations, low and flexible charges, fast turnaround, integration with other transport modes (door-to-door pricing rates) and economies of scale (UNCTAD, 1995a: 5; Bichou, 2009: 208).
- **Differentiation:** The basis of this strategy is to create something unique that will establish a clear distinction from other competitors' products and services (Bichou, 2009: 209). Examples of differentiation strategies in ports include specialized equipment, services to special cargo and vessels, dedicated terminals, depth of access channels, extended or specialized storage, proximity to production and to markets, recognized security standards and quality assurance programs (good compliance with the ISPS

code, ISO series, etc.), free port and export processing zones, and value-added logistics activities (UNCTAD, 1995a: 5; Bichou, 2009: 209).

- **Focus:** This is a relatively new strategy in the port sector. It can be achieved when a port tries to create niche markets or serve a specific customer (Bichou, 2009: 209).

There is a connection between port management and the manner of competition. Each port management is concerned primarily with its own competitive position in the range to which it belongs (Meersman and Voorde, 2005: 765).

Besides of competitive strategies, marketing strategies are also important port strategies. Port marketing has arisen because of the increasing competitive environment in which there is the need to better understand clients' needs, and prospective behavior so that port services can be better designed and promoted (Macario and Viegas, 2009: 118). Marketing perspective is believed to offer a distinctive view to the strategic context in three areas (Cerit, 2005: 555):

1. Analysis of competitive market behavior;
2. Defining viable organization boundaries;
3. Allocating resources.

The marketing policy pursued by any port authority has a profound influence on the overall annual results of the company. It is an area where more and more time is being devoted by management at all levels in an era of increasing competition and the need to develop the business profitability (Branch, 1986: 210).

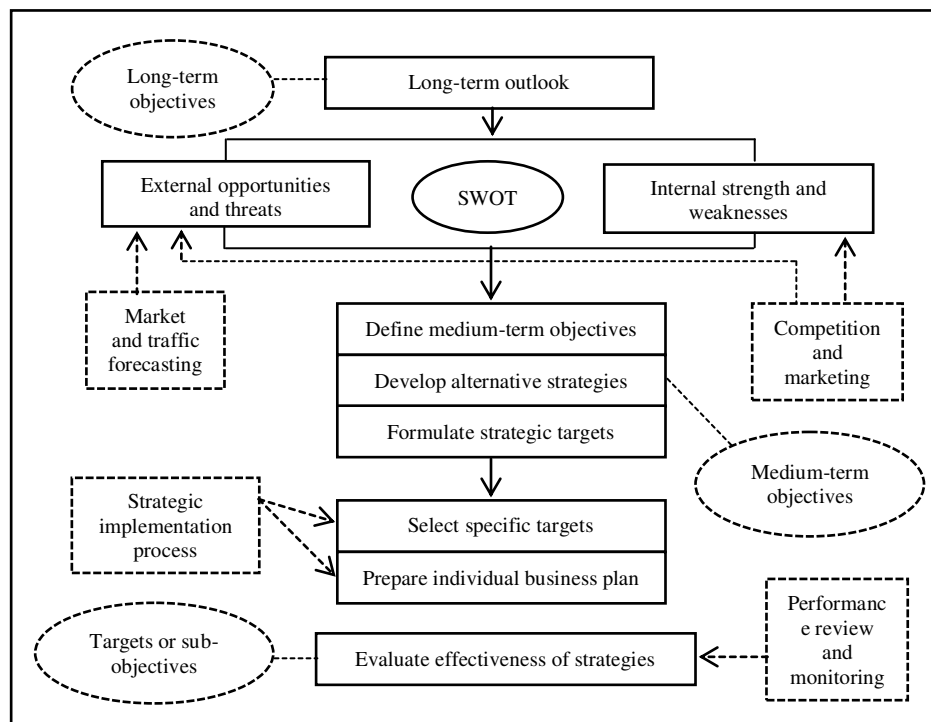
1.2.1.3. Strategic Port Planning

Since ports take a long time to develop, and usually have a long operational and economic life (Frankel, 1987: 107), the port needs to know where it is now in relation to its environment (and its competition), where it wants to go (its vision and mission), and how it will get there (strategies) (Ircha, 2001: 126).

Strategic planning can be defined as 'a systematic and continuing process which enables a port and its management to clearly determine mission, direction and

activities' (Ircha, 2001: 126). Strategic planning involves the preparation of a formal document, which identifies the organization's long-term mission, formulates its medium-term objectives and strategies, and guides the implementation of such strategies through detailed business plans, and conducts a regular annual review (Bichou, 2010: 67) as stated in **Figure 6**. Strategic planning is designed to help establish a sense of direction; an evaluation and reestablishment of long-term goals and objectives; and an integrated, rational strategy for achieving these goals and objectives (Frankel, 1987: 108).

Figure 6: Process and Elements of Strategic Port Planning



Source: Bichou, 2009: 68

Objectives must be formalized and the changes occurring in the internal and external environment assessed. The process begins with a review of existing market trends and an analysis of the sensitivity of individual markets to changes in the price and quality of services provided. It then examines the organization's strengths and weaknesses and encourages positive action rather than reaction. Next, strategies are developed to modify these market trends and achieve specific goals related to future market share or traffic volume. Management must then select from among the

possible strategies implement those which are selected evaluate their success and, where necessary, select and implement complementary or alternative strategies (UNCTAD, 1993: 4).

1.2.1.4. Port Strategy Implementation

Strategy implementation involves using several tools-parts of the firm that can be adjusted to put strategy into action. Among these tools, organizational parts include human resources, structural design, leadership and information and control systems (Daft, 2006: 291).

a) Port Human Resources

Top leaders have the ability to effectively align human resources directly to the business strategy (Lear, 2012: 52) and the port also should be aware of its labor situation (UNCTAD, 1995b: 22):

- what the employees' attitudes are towards institutional reforms, including commercialization and privatization (favorable, hostile or indifferent);
- whether the port is overstaffed; whether unemployment is a serious problem in the region/country;
- whether there is a social security system and whether it is adequate;
- what financing is available for redundancy payments;
- how strong the trade union is and what the impact would be if the port began large-scale lay-off programs;
- what are the educational background and age distribution of the labor force;
- what are the alternatives to lay-offs; what is the institutional feature (or reforms) of other major industrial or service activities in the country and city and their impacts on the port; and
- what are the attitudes and influence of interested social groups and port clients.

Port human resources take an important part in the port strategy implementation process. Therefore, top managers cannot bring this process off without being aware of information about labor situation of the port and the region.

b) Structural Design of Ports

The details of the top management structure depend on ownership, function, and external factors influencing the port and its reporting requirements. For example, top management in a privately owned and operated port will be quite different from that in a port that reports to, or is part of a government department. (Frankel, 1987: 541). Ports management may direct its attention and major effort towards the general organization and administration of the port and the related associations with other departments within the port and also external bodies with whom the port, of necessity, has reason to deal (Taylor, 1974: 77).

The port governance model is defined by the configuration of three inputs (Brooks and Pallis, 2008: 413):

- (a) the strategy (in other words, the objectives, the decisions about its product-market scope, and the plan for effecting these) of the port, as developed by the port authority (PA);
- (b) the structure, which is implemented as a result of government regulations and policies, and the strategy chosen by the PA; and
- (c) the environment in which a port operates represent, which has both controllable and uncontrollable factors. These inputs produce an output (performance), the quality of which results from the consistency or fit of the inputs when taken together.

c) Leadership in Port Management

Leadership, and specifically strategic leadership, is widely described as one of the key drivers of effective strategy implementation (Jooste and Fourie, 2009: 52).

It is the job of port management to strengthen its ability to plan strategically by improving the information available within the organization, developing better mechanisms for building consensus among managers and for modifying policies and

actions to accomplish the basic objectives when faced with a dynamic market.(UNCTAD, 1993). Successful organizational change is driven by several factors, including a strong, visible leader espousing a compelling vision of the future, high participation levels, and a strong team spirit (focused on promoting change). (Ircha, 2001: 131). Leadership is the process of influencing an organization (or group within an organization) in its efforts towards achieving an aim or goal (Johnson et al., 2008: 527). To effectively influence others, leaders must understand the impact that they have on them. They should also understand the needs, styles and motivations of others (Beatty, 2010). All port states must be motivated to adopt new ways to increase productivity. Motivation does not come merely from financial rewards; a number of intrinsic factors are needed, such as: (Ircha, 2001: 131).

- *a belief in people* – letting all employees know that management values their contributions by recognizing individual differences and efforts,
- *becoming partners* - supporting the achievements of employees by providing positive feedback to them on their accomplishments,
- *linking rewards to performance* – reinforcing excellent efforts through tangible (although not necessarily financial) recognition,
- *creating a positive environment* - setting a tone of positive achievement to encourage natural talents to bloom, and
- *celebrating success* - with employees, customers and others who have all helped to make the port a success.

Leaders who give importance to these factors can manage the port strategy implementation stage of the strategic management process in ports successfully.

d) Information Systems

An information system can be defined technically as a set of interrelated components that collect (or retrieve), process, store, and distribute information to support decision making and control in an organization(Laudon and Laudon, 2012: 47).

Ports today operate in an environment marked by a high degree of operational complexity, service provision, stakeholders' interactions, and time-based competitive pressure. This creates the need for a fast and efficient exchange and processing of a vast amount of data and information between port stakeholders and community users (Bichou, 2009: 195). The increase in transport capacity, especially for containerized cargo, requires immediate data exchange on location and status of the cargo. In this sense, port information systems can ensure the flow of information in an accurate and timely manner by allowing for simple and smooth administrative procedures, thereby increasing the handling speed and improving operational efficiency at the port (OECD, 2013: 62).

1.2.1.5. Port Performance Evaluation and Control

Strategic planning forces port management to periodically reevaluate and update its objectives. It also forces port management to maintain an up-to-date database, perform periodic condition audits, and identify both opportunities and threats (Frankel, 1987: 117). Planning process should have a control system so as to ascertain whether the shipping company is achieving its strategic objectives. Where shipping companies are active in the provision of logistic services, their measurement and control will entail the building of appropriate information systems for data gathering and reporting, the establishment of "good performance" measures, variance analysis and corrective action procedures (Vermeulen, 2010: 865). In this approach, managers evaluate existing company performance and set objectives for future improvement and growth, and then measure progress against the base. The company is then set on a cycle that clarifies its strategy, links it to the objectives and measures, supports the plan with targets and strategic initiatives, and then enhances performance through feedback and organizational learning. (Brooks, 2007: 602).

A port may also use performance indicators to evaluate its performance. If the port's economic objective is to maximize profits, port management would select values for the port indicators that would result in the maximization of the port's profits. These indicator values are the port's performance indicator standards (or benchmarks). (Talley, 2009: 136). There are various performance indicators for port

operations, that all provide part of the picture of port performance (OECD, 2013: 53) as can be seen in **Table 11**.

Table 11: Summary of Performance Indicators Suggested by UNCTAD

Financial indicators	Tonnage worked Berth occupancy revenue per ton of cargo Cargo handling revenue per ton of cargo Labor expenditure Capital equipment expenditure per ton of cargo Contribution per ton of cargo Total contribution
Operational indicators	Arrival late Waiting time Service time Turn-around time Tonnage per ship Fraction of time berthed ships worked Number of gangs employed per ship per shift Tons per ship-hour in port Tons per ship hour at berth Tons per gang hours Fraction of time gangs idle

Source: UNCTAD, 1976: 9

Some of the measures of port performance are really customer-oriented measures, in particular the following four: (Brooks, 2007: 604)

- Price (loading/unloading costs, terminal charges, commodity taxes, port expenses, crane rental);
- Time (ship turnaround time, cargo dwell time is replaced by departure cutoff times and hours to availability after arrival, as some cargo interests will want in-transit storage to be available);
- Availability (destinations served and departure frequency; number of arrivals by vessel type and market origin); and
- Reliability.

Port managers should be aware of that price, time, availability and reliability are the key measures of customers when they evaluate port performance.

Port performance research can be divided into effectiveness research and efficiency research. These two are like yin and yang, complementing each other. Efficiency has been noted as “doing things right” while effectiveness is “doing the

right things.” The right things are those that are important to the customer. (Brooks et al., 2011: 316). A port may be technically efficient (exhibited by the port’s economic production function) and cost efficient (exhibited by the port’s economic cost function). Effectiveness is concerned with how well the port provides throughput. (Talley, 2009: 144). Effective port operations depend evidently on the quality of the inputs needed for port operations: labor, equipment and land (OECD, 2013: 56). The effectiveness measures that are also applicable to port organizations are categorized as outputs under the port sub-systems according to the relevancy with each sub-system. The major effectiveness measures for each port process are listed in **Table 12**.

Table 12: Measures of Port Effectiveness in Systems Approach

Port process	Output (measure of effectiveness/success)
Port engineering	• Resource acquisition
Port operations	• Efficiency • Productivity • Output quality
Logistics and industrial facilities	• Value generation
ICT	• Innovation • Adaptability • Information management and communication
Economic and financial issues	• Profitability • Organization’s worth
Social and environmental issues	• Survival
Political and legal issues	• Autonomy
Safety and security	• Compliance (conformity)
Human resources	• Human resource quality • Professionalism • Leadership
Marketing	• Customer satisfaction • External support
Port organization and management	• Global attainment • Flexibility • Cohesion • Growth • Stability • Planning

Source: Karatas-Cetin and Cerit: 2010a: 963

Benchmarking, or measuring a company’s performance against others of its type or with similar processes, is a key strategic activity. (Brooks, 2007: 601). Ports have traditionally evaluated their performance by comparing their actual and

optimum throughputs (measured in tonnage or number of containers handled). If a port's actual throughput approaches (departs from) its optimum throughput over time, the conclusion is that its performance has improved (deteriorated) over time (Talley, 2007: 500). **Table 13** shows the case of a ship's discharge at port and related concepts of measures of port effectiveness (inputs, output, performance indicators etc.) concerning the case.

Table 13: Measures of Port Effectiveness—the case of a ship's discharge at port

Inputs	Cargoes and transport modes (ships, trucks, trains)
Output	Delivery of goods to the hinterland
Objective	Provide a seamless movement of goods Reduce turnaround time of ships, trucks, and trains in port
Controls	Compliance with port procedures and working instructions Compliance with international legislation concerning aspects such as pollution Proper handling of dangerous goods Clearance of goods by customs and sanitary authority Compliance with customers' requirements.
Resources	Human resources Information technology/information systems Cargo handling equipment i.e., gantry cranes, fork-lifts, reach-stackers, straddle carriers Quays, berths, aprons, storage or yard capacity Dredged channels and quays
'Port Discharge Process' Performance Indicators	1. Ship's waiting time to be berthed 2. Berth availability 3. Ship's waiting time to start discharging operations 4. Handling rate of discharge operations 5. Time waiting for cargo to be transferred from one mode to the other (time in storage and time from quay to storage) 6. Time spent in transferring cargo from storage to net mode of transport (including loading time) 7. Time spent in carrying out logistics activities required by customers that add value. 8. Time for goods to be cleared (if such is to be done at port level) 9. Time spent by cargo awaiting departure of next mode of transport (road or rail) 10. Overall time of cargo in port. 11. Annual costs incurred by the port 12. Degree of flexibility in using resources 13. Degree of process adaptability in meeting customer requirements 14. Port costs by unit of cargo handled (TEUs if containers, tons if break-bulk or bulk cargo)

Source: Marlow and Paixao Casaca, 2003: 197

The measurement of port efficiency is complicated by the large variety of factors that influence port performance. The most obvious influences can be generalized as the economic input factor endowments of land, labor and capital.

However, there are other influences that are not so easily classified. A few examples of these influences include (Cullinane, 2005: 804):

- the level of technology that is utilized in the operations of a port or terminal;
- the industrial relations environment within the port or terminal (and, hence, the risk of distributions to the supply of labor);
- the extent of co-operation or integration with shipping lines and the nature of the ownership of the port and
- the impact that this may have on the way that the port is managed and/or operated

It can be concluded that evaluating and controlling port performance for achieving strategic objectives is as important as strategy formulation and implementation in ports. Port effectiveness and efficiency as port performance indicators should be analyzed effectively by port managers. Additionally, port managers need to possess leadership qualifications especially strategic leadership qualifications in strategic management process. Because strategic leadership which is considered as a measure of effectiveness in **Table 13** provide satisfying outputs indicating that strategic objectives have been achieved.

1.2.2. Strategic Leadership in Port Management

Strategic leadership is the wisdom and vision capabilities of planning and implementing of this plan in an unstable, complex, uncertain strategic environment. As it is seen in the definitions, strategic leadership has a significant role for organization in environmental uncertainty (Aslan et al., 2011: 628) (to be explained in detail in **Chapter 2**). Port operations are today faced with larger uncertainties and risks than ever before. These do not only include risk in cargo and therefore in ship traffic demand, but also in technological risks, investment risks, risk of competition, market risk, risk in labor availability, and more (Frankel, 1987: 117).

Strategic leadership is the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary (Hitt et al., 2003: 386). It can be deduced from the definition that the management of change is, however, often directly linked to the role of a strategic leader. (Johnson et al., 2008: 527). In the port

system, there is a direct link between the change and effectiveness concepts. A port cannot be effective without adapting to the change in its environment (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 947). In most ports, port management has found it hard to keep up with the pace of change. Furthermore, an important aspect of the legitimacy of a separate port management is being undermined, namely the previously often heard argument of the strategic significance of seaports to the economy of a country or region (Meersman and Voorde, 2005: 779). Since the port environment is continually changing, various forms of restructuring can be employed at different times. (UNCTAD, 1995b: 23). The important point here is how to manage change to achieve organizational effectiveness and sustain competitive advantage (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 948).

For strategic decision making to be effective, overall port objectives must be used to develop long-range or strategic plan (Frankel, 1987: 108) and strategic leadership focuses on how the decisions which guarantee the long-term viability of the organization are made in the short term. (Lear, 2012: 52). A port must first agree to plan, that is top management must accept and be committed to the strategic planning process and its results. Without such top level support (from senior management and directors) the strategic planning process will not likely succeed. (Ircha, 2001: 126). The choice of strategies must be made by the senior managers and approved by the chief executive (UNCTAD, 1993). The role of the port's chief executive can be defined as being largely concerned with government relations and strategic planning of port policies or it can be defined as the chief executive and operating officer (Frankel, 1987: 542).

Strategic leadership has a direct effect on an organization's strategic flexibility and competitive advantage. (Lear, 2012: 53). Strategic flexibility and competitive advantage are affected by strategic leadership through the major actions (Lear, 2012: 53) which associated with effective strategic leadership of (1) determining strategic direction; (2) exploiting and maintaining core competencies; (3) effectively managing human capital; (4) sustaining effective corporate culture; (5) emphasizing ethical practices; (6) establishing strategic control; and (7) investing in the development of new technologies. Here, the port management view of effective strategic leadership actions is supposed to be examined.

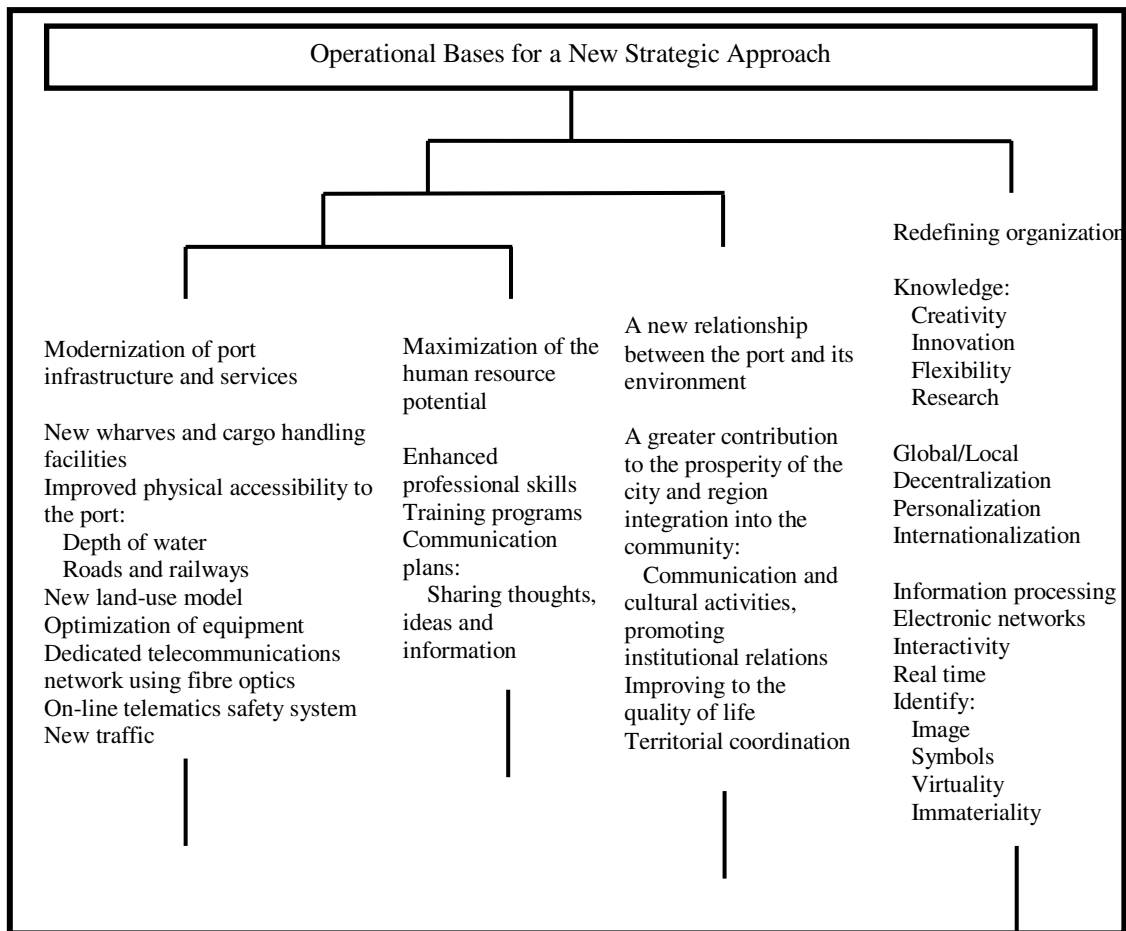
1.2.2.1. Strategic Direction of Ports: Vision and Plan

Determining the strategic direction of the organization involves developing a long-term vision. An organization's long-term vision generally looks at least five to ten years into the future (Lear, 2012: 66). Strategic intent, or 'vision', is fundamental to the strategic choices that organizations make: it is a 'desired leadership position' and as such relates to the future position of the organization once it achieves its goals. Unlike an organization's mission which relates to the organization's values, core purpose and current strategies, strategic intent is about future outcomes. (Haugstetter and Cahoon, 2010: 31). Strategic leaders whose the first component consists of determining the firm's purpose or vision (Slawinski, 2011: 345) must develop a vision and communicate that vision broadly, to help guide the formation and implementation of strategies to achieve that vision. This form of guidance is important to establish the direction of the organization for its growth, types of products, and market focus, and to achieve the desired targets. (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). This statement will then empower members of the organization to develop and execute strategies that are in line with the vision of the firm. (Slawinski, 2011: 345).

Several ports are engaged in long term strategic planning. Such long-term engagements are expressed in strategic visions that are to a more or lesser extent publicly available. These visions, which can take a time horizon of several decades, can identify new directions of development, prioritize investments and identify future bottlenecks (OECD, 2013: 61). In maritime transportation most of the strategic decisions are on the supply side, and these are: market selection, fleet size and mix, transportation system/service network design, maritime supply chain/maritime logistic system design, and ship design (Christiansen et al., 2007: 201).

Strategic preparation involves careful analysis of the port's competitive position, strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, threats, role in the national economy, prospects for growth, and other issues. This analysis results in the selection of a particular institutional model and the identification of a set of assets and services that are the specific target for reform (The World Bank, 2007c: 20). Some operational strategic approaches can be seen in **Figure 7**.

Figure 7: Operational Bases for a New Strategic Approach of a Port



Source: UNCTAD, 1996: 17

Port Master Planning plays a key role in determining a port's position in the maritime hierarchy, not only because it identifies the port areas that need to be developed and defines their functions, but also because it is the instrument by which the port's expansion strategy in the marketplace will be shaped. In short, a Port Master Plan (PMP) outlines the objectives of the port and how they are expected to be achieved (Taneja et al., 2010: 222). Most of the successful waterfront development projects begin with a master plan; a master plan not only guides the implementation process towards the project's initial goal, but it also provides a common ground where different actors (e.g. private and public sector, different local authorities) can agree upon (OECD, 2013: 109). UNCTAD's procedure of port master planning is given in **Appendix 1**. It is important to give an example of port master

planning here in order to comprehend that there is a strong relationship between strategic leadership and port master planning.

Finally, the goals of an organization define its relationship with its environment. A change in either the port's goals or its environment requires a re-evaluation and possible change in goals or direction to adapt to the change. In this era of environmental turbulence, the reappraisal of organizational goals has become the almost constant pre-occupation of effective transportation managers (Ircha, 2001: 130).

1.2.2.2. Core competencies of Ports

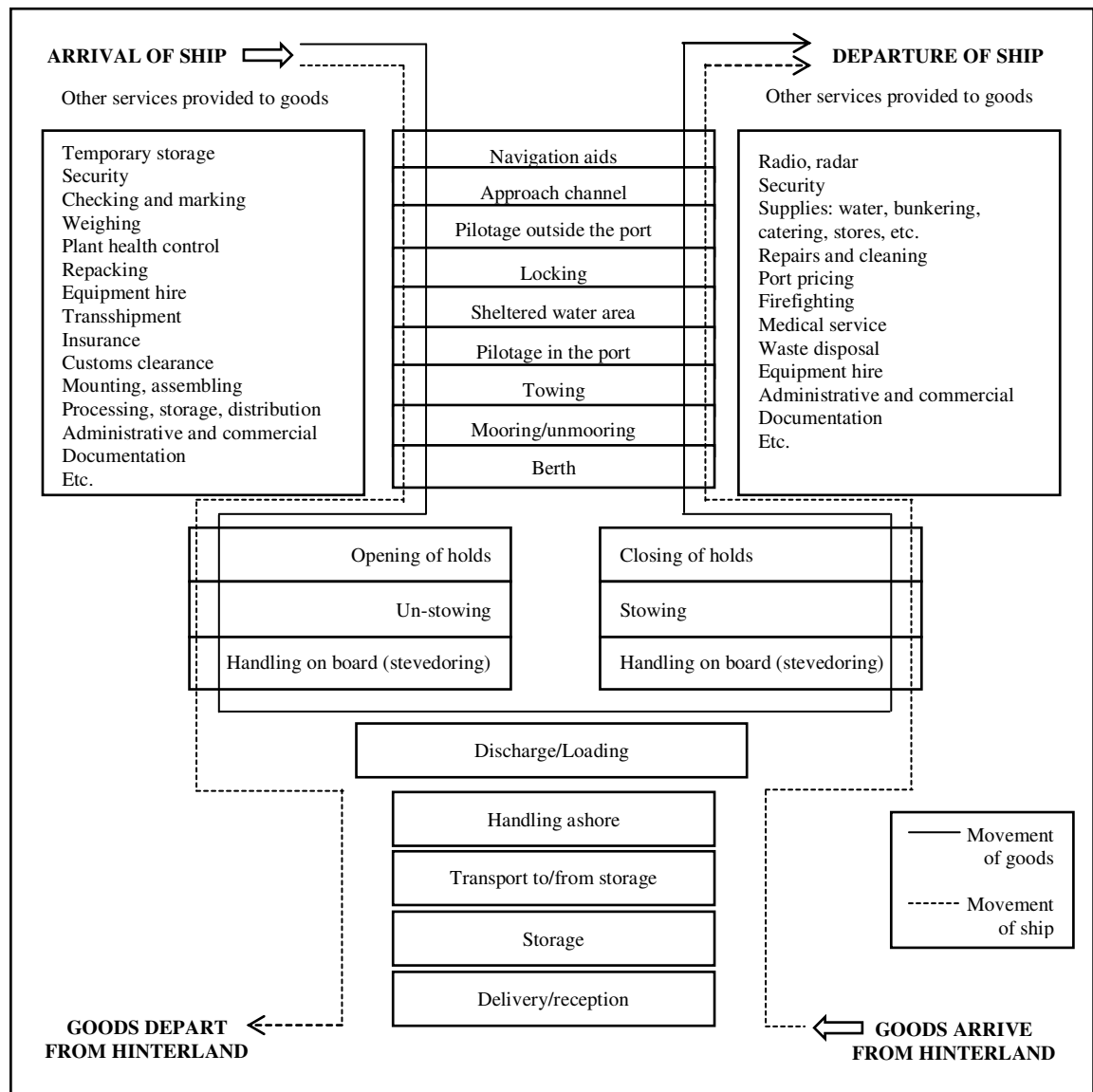
Core competencies are organizational skills around which a firm builds a competitive advantage (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 54). Strategic leaders exploit and maintain core competencies. Core competencies are resources and capabilities that give firms an edge over their rivals. Strategic leaders need to understand which combinations of resources and capabilities are valuable, rare, costly to imitate, and difficult to substitute for, as these will allow the firm to gain a competitive advantage (Slawinski, 2011: 345).

Core competencies often relate to functional skills, (for example, manufacturing, marketing, research and development (R&D)). When these core skills are developed and applied through the organization, they create the opportunity for gaining competitive advantage (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 54). A dynamic core competence implies that the firm continues to develop and update the competence to be the leader, or at the forefront, in that capability. It also implies that the firm is prepared to develop a new competence to replace an existing one when necessary to maintain a competitive advantage, and/or to build a new advantage (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Strategic leaders must be able to develop and exploit their organization's core competencies in new and competitive ways (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294).

More recently, the importance of ports and their corresponding hinterlands has been influenced by new factors such as containerization, inter-modal integration, shipping networks, logistics patterns, information technology, environmental

sustainability, land use and policy (Bichou, 2010: 42). The main and administrative functions of a port are illustrated in **Figure 8**.

Figure 8: Main Operational and Administrative Functions of a Port



Source: Bichou, 2009: 35

In general, modern ports offer two kinds of services: core and value-added services. The core services provided by most ports include, but are not limited to (The World Bank, 2007c: 7):

- Marine services:
 - Access and protection.

- Pilotage.
 - Towage.
 - Vessel traffic management.
 - Fire protection service.
 - Chandlery.
- Terminal services:
 - Vessel tie-up services.
 - Container handling and transfers.
 - Traditional breakbulk and neobulk cargo handling.
 - Dry and liquid bulk cargo handling.
 - Container stuffing and stripping.
 - Bagging and packaging.
 - Cargo storage, acceptance and delivery.
- Repair services:
 - Dredging and maintaining channels and basins.
 - Equipment repair and maintenance.
 - (Dry dock) ship repairs.
 - Container and chassis repairs.
- Estate management services.
- Information management services.

With the growing regional competition, many ports are struggling to identify an appropriate strategic intent and core competencies in order to become an engine for economic growth (Zhang et al., 2013). Main functions and features of a port (Alderton, 2005: 6):

Civil engineering features:

- Sea and land access.
- Infrastructures for ships berthing
- Road and rail network.
- Industrial area management.

Administrative functions:

- Control of vehicles, all modes, entering and leaving the port.

- Environmental control.
- Control of dangerous cargo.
- Safety and security within the port area.
- Immigration, health, customs and commercial documentary control.

Operational functions:

- Pilotage, tugging and mooring activities.
- Use of berths, sheds, etc.
- Loading, discharging, storage and distribution of cargo.

As a conclusion, managers who have strategic leadership features should have comprehensive knowledge of those core and supplementary services and maintain to develop the competencies of ports.

1.2.2.3. Human Capital in Ports

A seaport planning involves not only physical requirements, but also staff and labor, both numerically and qualitatively. Changing technological and commercial needs call for reasonable periodic manpower planning exercises in established ports (Taylor, 1974: 151). Recent structural and technical changes taking place in the port industry offer great opportunities for port development and globalization, but they can only work if operated by competent and well-trained specialists and workforce (Bichou, 2009: 319). Over the last decade, containerization and information technologies have changed the content of port labor. The port industry has become less labor-intensive, because less focused on break-bulk handling and more on specialized operations. As a result, port workers became more multi-skilled and specialized, with more formalized training that replaced part of the former informal on-the-job training (OECD, 2013: 57) because change affects the effectiveness of employee skills (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 57). Effective human resource recruitment benefits from core competency modeling to ensure the right person is hired for the right job. Achieving and sustaining a competitive edge is critically dependent on achieving the right fit (Lear, 2012: 72) because today, human resource is considered

as the organizations' unique competitive advantage and their main capital (Majidi et al., 2012: 2162).

The port industry strongly depends on human resources who have to be highly qualified because of the heavy responsibilities for safety and environmental sustainability, expensive equipment and vehicles, and tones of goods and cargo. This requires appropriate planning and implementation of human resources (HR) capable of operating and managing a continuously changing and challenging port environment (Bichou, 2009: 322). Mobility of labor, adaptability to technical equipment usage and correct balance between professional, technical and non-technical personnel is an important feature of modern seaport effectiveness (Taylor, 1974: 151) and quality of port labor is a direct determinant for a port's success. (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 973). Strategic leaders are effective at developing human capital. Human capital refers to the knowledge, skills, and abilities of the firm's employees. Because these employees are critical to the success of the organization, strategic leaders invest in them through training and mentoring. (Slawinski, 2011: 345). Port training and education programs, managerial development methods, motivation, safe working conditions, personnel policies and practices designed to help employees excel and develop quality work life can be various methods of change in the human capital for the port business (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 973). Today's port managers need to help their staff see the 'big' picture, understand how the parts of the logistics chain interact, how local actions often have longer-term and broader impacts than initially realized, and why certain operating policies are needed for the port as a whole (Ircha, 2001: 131).

HR-management should not be seen only as technical or administrative task of the organization but as an important supporting element for the top management. It must be a strategic partner to top management in the organization's key reforms. (EUPAN, 2006: 30).

1.2.2.4. Corporate Culture in Ports

Strategic leaders sustain an effective organizational culture. An organization's culture is a complex combination of ideologies, symbols, and values that are shared

by employees of the firm. Strategic leaders learn how to shape a firm's shared values and symbols in ways that allow the firm to be more competitive (Slawinski, 2011: 345). Developing and maintaining a healthy organizational culture should be a priority of strategic leaders. A healthy culture places emphasis on core values of innovation, learning, and valuing human capital and team actions (Hitt et al., 2010: 439).

Organizational culture is also an important factor in port management. Notteboom and Winkelmans (2001: 247) state that it is supposed to develop a market-oriented management system based on explicit objectives, administrative skills and taking responsibilities in order that organizational culture becomes an important factor for a port success. Also, they emphasize that adopted organizational culture and administrative heterogeneity are the most important determinant for ineffectiveness of public port organizations (Karataş-Çetin, 2012: 277).

1.2.2.5. Ethical Practices in Ports

Strategic leaders emphasize ethical behavior (Lear, 2012: 61). Leaders who exhibit high ethical standards become role models for others in the organization and raise its overall level of ethical behavior (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 369). Top managers who use honesty, trust, and integrity in their decision making are able to inspire their employees and create an organizational culture that encourages the use of ethical practices in day-to-day organizational activities. (Slawinski, 2011: 345).

1.2.2.6. Controlling in Ports

Although change is part of business development, it is often difficult to manage, and control is essential. Most organizations focus on attention to goals, particularly financial goals, as the main variable in strategic control (Lear, 2012: 87). Strategic controls are accomplished through information exchanges that help to develop strategies, whereas financial controls are accomplished through setting objective criteria such as performance targets. Strategic leaders must establish

balanced organizational controls by incorporating the two types in order to allow employees to remain flexible and innovative (Slawinski, 2011: 346). Successful use of strategic control by top executives frequently is integrated with appropriate autonomy for the various subunits so that they can gain a competitive advantage in their respective markets (Hitt et al., 2003: 406).

The objectives of a port must be dynamic and consider ever-changing external and internal factors. They are therefore to be designed with an effective feedback mechanism that assures continuous, or at least periodic, updating of the objectives to assure their real-time relevance (Frankel, 1987: 108) and control.

1.2.2.7. Technology in Ports

The maritime and shipping sector has undergone a strong technological evolution on the supply side. Ships are becoming bigger, faster and more environmentally friendly all the time. Any evolution in ship design that translates into a new vessel type will have consequences for the rest of the maritime logistics chain and will therefore require adaptations in one or more links of that chain (e.g., in terms of port calls, throughput, storage and hinterland connections) (Meersman et al., 2009a: 149).

Within a single port, different terminals can share similar nautical infrastructure such as access channels, jetties and breakwaters, dredging, piers and quay structures. However, each terminal may be decomposed into three main operating sites namely the quay site, the yard and the gate. All such sites must operate jointly for efficient cargo handling and transfer (Bichou, 2009: 136).

Knowledge management, the creation, storage, transfer and usage of corporate knowledge, together with the use of information communication technologies is an important part of the value streaming processes in the port industry (Karatas-Cetin and Cerit, 2010a: 973). Some of the technologies used in ports are:

- **Internet:** Most ports in the world now have their own websites, which vary considerably in their use and effectiveness. The impact of the computer on ports, as in most areas of activity, is still in its infancy and as in the development of most new technologies there is considerable variety in the software and hardware available.

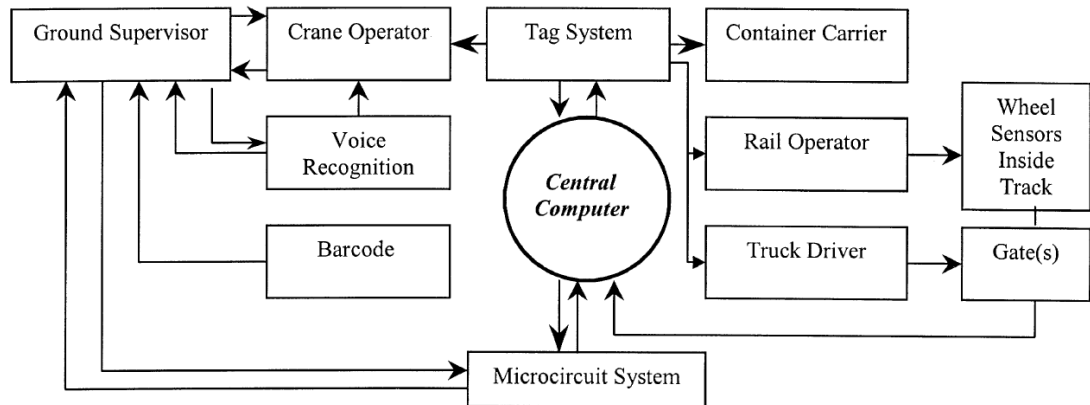
Because of this there is no standard model as regard its port application (Alderton, 2005: 113).

- **EDI (Electronic Data Exchange):** EDI is essentially a computer-to-computer exchange of business and administrative documents in a standard electronic format between two or several organizations (Bichou, 2009: 196). The predominant forms of data transfer via EDI are purchase orders from customers to suppliers, invoices for payment from suppliers to customers, delivery schedule data, and payment instructions (Mangan et al., 2008: 154).
- **ERP (Enterprise Resource Management):** ERP is basically a collection of applications designed to process and integrate operational and management functions of a firm using a common architecture that links the firm to both customers and suppliers (Bichou, 2009: 198). ERP is today a core application in multinational manufacturing and logistic companies, offering visibility and integration of the many complex interactions around the globe (Mangan et al., 2008: 154).
- **MIS (Management Information System):** MIS usually monitor the overall performance of the enterprise, thus giving the management a total picture of what is happening as it happen, which previously could not be properly completed in a vast complex organization such as a port (Alderton, 2005: 111).
- **AIDC (Automatic Identification and Data Capture):** AIDC is the broad term given to a diverse family of technologies that are used to help machines identify objects, capture information about them and store this information into a computer without human involvement. Technologies under the umbrella of AIDC include bar codes, card technologies, voice and vision recognition, biometric technologies, optical character recognition (OCR), optimal mark reading (OMR), and radio frequency identification (RFID) systems (Bichou, 2009: 199).
- **RFID (Radio Frequency Identification):** RFID technologies automatically identify and locate physical assets (freight and handling equipment) (Mangan et al., 2008: 156). More generically, the operational improvements from RFID include (Mangan et al., 2008: 158):
 - Shipping consolidation
 - Conveyance loading
 - Conveyance tracking

- Shipment and item tracking
 - Verification
 - Storage
 - Item tracking within a manufacturing plant
 - Warehouse efficiency, reach, productivity and accuracy
 - Reduced retail out-of-stock, labor requirements, pilferage, and phantom stock problems.
- **WMS (Warehouse Management System):** WMS applications have become essential to the management and control of warehouses and distribution centers (Mangan et al., 2008: 155).
 - **TOS (Terminal Operating Systems):** TOS are purpose-built software products used for the planning, execution and control of terminal operations (Bichou, 2009: 197). Most applications in ports seek to integrate TOS and planning software into ERP systems (Bichou, 2009: 198).
 - **PCS (Port Community Systems):** A PCS can be defined as a neutral and open electronic platform that optimizes, manages and automates smooth port and logistics processes through a single submission of data, enabling intelligent and secure exchange of information between public and private stakeholders (OECD, 2013: 62). The main utilization of EDI in ports is in PCS, a system or an entity that delivers relevant data and information to port community stakeholders (users and customers) (Bichou, 2009: 197).

Figure 11 loosely illustrates the links between the above devices and port components where the central computer integrates the entire system. (Kia et al., 2000: 338)

Figure 9:Electronic Devices in Port Terminals



Source: Kia et al., 2000: 338

Apart from information technologies, infrastructural and superstructural technologies are also necessary to be discussed. Driven by the developments in container-ship size and technology, the size of STS (ship to shore) container cranes has more than doubled (Bichou, 2009: 137).

In container terminals, three generic yard configurations may be defined (Bichou, 2009: 142):

- The tractor-chassis or wheeled system. Yard systems using automated guided vehicles (AGV) also fall into this category.
- The straddle carrier (SC) and stacking handler systems, which can be based either on a direct system (SCD) or on a relay system (SCR),
- The yard gantry systems based either on rubber-tired gantry (RTG) or on rail-mounted gantry (RMG) operations, the latter being also assimilated to bridge crane operations

Additionally, ramps for Ro-Ro and ferry ports; belts and conveyors for dry bulk terminals; loading arms and hoses for liquid bulk terminals; STS (ship to shore) container cranes for break bulk and general cargo operations are used (Bichou, 2009: 136-137).

1.3.PORT MANAGEMENT IN TURKEY

1.3.1. Port Industry in Turkey

Ports have been important structures for nations since ancient times. That 80 % of the world trade and approximately 90 % of import and export of Turkey (shown in **Table 14**) have been transported by sea reveals the importance of ports from an economic aspect (Küçükosmanoğlu et al., 2013: 275 and Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 67).

Table 14: Foreign Trade Transportation by Modes in Turkey (%)

YEARS	SEA	RAIL	ROAD	AIR	OTHER
2003	87,6	0,8	10,5	0,1	1,0
2004	87,4	1,2	10,3	0,1	1,0
2005	86,0	1,2	11,9	0,2	0,7
2006	87,4	1,1	10,4	0,1	1,0
2007	87,4	1,1	10,0	0,6	0,9
2008	86,5	1,1	10,7	0,7	1,0
2009	85,0	0,8	12,6	0,8	0,8
2010	85,6	0,8	12,5	0,3	0,8
2011	85,8	0,8	11,8	0,4	1,2
2012	87,0	0,6	10,7	0,4	1,4

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 26

Turkey has a great potential in terms of transportation with its important location as a natural bridge between Europe, Middle Asia and Middle East (DPT, 2007: 1). Additionally, Turkey is encircled by the Black Sea, the Marmara Sea, the Aegean Sea and the Mediterranean Sea. Turkey's land bridge position in north-south and east-west transportation means that ports are of vital importance to the efficiency of logistics activities of the country (Oral et al., 2007: 171). Turkey's geographical location enables the ports to handle significant amounts of cargo between the West and the East. Cargo coming from Europe and Americas are handled in transit to CIS Republics, Iran, Iraq, and the Balkans and vice versa. Maritime transport plays a major role at the lengthy Turkish coast, for national as well as international transportation. Turkey also has great potential in terms of

intermodal transportation, owing to its privileged geographical position amid European, Central Asia and Middle Eastern countries. The country's land bridge position in North–South and East–West transportation ensures that ports play a vital role in logistics and shipping operations (Bloem et al., 2013: 29).

The progress of number of incoming ships to the Turkish ports given in **Table 15** gives information about port industry in Turkey. From 2004 to 2009 an increase can be observed in the number of incoming ships to the Turkish ports. The reason why the number decreased after 2008 is economic crisis experienced in the world. Nevertheless, a noticeable recovery can be seen between 2010 and 2012 in the Table.

Table 15: The Number of Incoming Ships to the Turkish Ports

Years	Turkish Flag Number	Foreign Flag Number	Total Number	TF %	FF %
2004	43.198	31.134	74.332	58,11	41,89
2005	41.480	31.801	73.281	56,60	43,40
2006	42.058	33.461	75.519	55,69	44,31
2007	43.662	35.262	78.924	55,32	44,68
2008	45.362	36.042	81.404	55,72	44,28
2009	45.813	34.631	80.444	56,95	43,05
2010	37.060	37.055	74.115	50,00	50,00
2011	37.234	37.900	75.134	49,60	50,40
2012	38.333	37.542	75.875	50,50	49,50

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 27

Moreover, as can be seen in **Table 16** the most remarkable contribution to the number of incoming ships to the Turkish ports belongs to İzmit Port with 10.644 incoming ships in 2012.

Table 16: Numbers of Incoming Ships to the Turkish Ports in 2012

PORT	TURKISH FLAG		FOREIGN FLAG		TOTAL	
	Ship Number	Gros Ton	Ship Number	Gros Ton	Ship Number	Gros Ton
İZMİT	4.253	16.865.872	6.391	88.333.875	10.644	105.199.747
AMBARLI	2.984	22.062.704	2.536	66.401.317	5.520	88.464.021
ALİAĞA	1.787	9.217.705	3.421	45.035.974	5.208	54.253.679
MERSİN	1.806	7.821.215	3.130	43.750.989	4.936	51.572.205
GEMLİK	1.464	6.443.245	2.183	39.398.207	3.647	45.841.453
İSKENDERUN	1.583	3.178.442	1.981	24.883.648	3.564	28.062.090
TUZLA	2.355	12.265.151	1.113	12.952.400	3.468	25.217.551
İSTANBUL	1.710	2.801.018	1.370	31.772.623	3.080	34.573.641
SAMSUN	888	2.622.323	1.768	8.829.646	2.656	11.451.969
İZMİR	663	4.326.342	1.893	44.726.662	2.556	49.053.004
BODRUM	1.384	280.292	767	1.917.942	2.151	2.198.233
TEKİRDAĞ	838	1.956.516	1.162	17.631.396	2.000	19.587.912
BANDIRMA	1.043	1.098.903	832	3.989.570	1.875	5.088.473
ÇEŞME	1.156	3.842.600	406	395.662	1.562	4.238.262
ÇANAKKALE	1.274	1.069.452	281	3.430.945	1.555	4.500.397
DİĞER	13.145	16.712.855	8.308	114.368.228	21.453	131.081.084
TOTAL	38.333	112.564.637	37.542	547.819.085	75.875	660.383.722

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 28

387.426.232 tons of cargo is handled at Turkish ports in 2012 with increasing gradually from 2009 to 2012 (given in **Table 17**). What is more, according to Turkish Chamber of Shipping (2013: 67) 23,6 % of handling is export with 91.307.486 tons; 49,7 % of handling is import with 192.474.928 tons; 12,1 % of handling is cabotage with 46.919.387 tons; 14,6 % handling is transit with 56.724.431 tons.

Table 17: Cargo Handling Figures at Turkish Ports According to Transport Mode

MODE OF TRANSPORT		2008	2009	2010	2011	2012
EXPORT	TURKISH	10.654.742	9.578.520	11.615.686	12.273.915	12.235.897
	FOREIGN	62.590.230	64.191.743	72.329.476	69.502.777	79.071.589
	TOTAL	73.244.972	73.770.263	83.945.162	81.776.692	91.307.486
IMPORT	TURKISH	21.136.641	20.387.046	28.878.432	30.120.033	26.476.350
	FOREIGN	130.394.670	119.475.045	133.747.337	143.426.365	165.998.578
	TOTAL	151.531.311	139.862.090	162.625.769	173.546.398	192.474.928
CABOTAGE	LOADING	18.922.148	18.305.867	18.561.807	21.257.193	22.869.458
	UNLOADING	20.134.058	19.485.900	19.434.485	22.387.290	24.049.929
	TOTAL	39.056.206	37.791.767	37.996.292	43.644.483	46.919.387
TRANSIT	LOADING	50.744.950	58.012.586	58.767.061	58.603.055	50.767.011
	UNLOADING	-	-	5.355.657	5.776.095	5.957.420
	TOTAL	50.744.950	58.012.586	64.122.718	64.379.150	56.724.431
GR.TOTAL	LOADING	142.912.070	150.088.716	161.274.030	161.636.940	164.943.955
	UNLOADING	171.665.369	159.347.990	187.415.911	201.709.783	222.482.277
	TOTAL	314.577.439	309.436.706	348.689.941	363.346.723	387.426.232

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 67

The goal of Turkey is to become a center for transit cargoes in the region. The strategical position of Turkey is increasing after the pipe lines like Baku-Tiflis-Ceyhan, and projects like Nabucco Gas Pipeline and South East Anatolia Project (GAP). Privatized and modernized ports will also add strength to its position (Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 67).

According to the regions determined by Republic of Turkey Ministry of Transport, Maritime Affairs and Communications; ports are located as in **Table 18**. According to Table, İstanbul region has the biggest number of ports with 79 ports in Turkey. In addition, the considerable number of ports has been operated by private companies with 126 ports.

Table 18: Turkish Ports According to Regions

ANTALYA REGION	7 PORTS
ÇANAKKALE REGION	24 PORTS
İSTANBUL REGION	79 PORTS
İZMİR REGION	22 PORTS
MERSİN REGION	18 PORTS
SAMSUN REGION	16 PORTS
TRABZON REGION	9 PORTS
Operated by:	
GOVERNMENT	22 PORTS
MUNICIPALITY	27 PORTS
PRIVATE	126 PORTS

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 66

Table 19 shows the ports which have maximum cargo handling among other ports in Turkey. Besides, it demonstrates growth rates according to previous year between 2011 and 2013.

Table 19: The First 10 Port Authorities in Turkey Maximum Cargo Handled

2013					2012				2011		
No	Port Authority	Total Handling (Tons)	Rate (%) in Total Handling	Growth Rate	Port Authority	Total Handling (Tons)	Rate (%) in Total Handling	Growth Rate	Port Authority	Total Handling (Tons)	Rate (%) in Total Handling
1	İZMİT	60.088.671	15,87	-0,60	İZMİT	61.458.478	15,86	11,74	İZMİT	65.523.028	18,03
2	BOTAŞ	56.085.928	14,57	-8,39	BOTAŞ	61.225.832	15,80	-6,56	BOTAŞ	55.001.840	15,14
3	AMBARLI	40.797.116	10,0	3,17	ALİAĞA	43.167.047	11,14	13,87	ALİAĞA	37.907.516	10,43
4	ALİAĞA	40.014.873	10,40	-7,30	AMBARLI	39.544.364	10,21	15,84	AMBARLI	34.137.507	9,40
5	MERSİN	32.325.970	8,40	5,14	MERSİN	30.746.922	7,94	21,35	MERSİN	25.338.009	6,97
6	İSKENDERUN	31.242.252	8,12	8,78	İSKENDERUN	28.719.919	7,41	15,64	İSKENDERUN	24.835.969	6,84
7	TEKİRDAĞ	16.124.897	4,19	-18,39	TEKİRDAĞ	19.758.745	5,10	22,76	TEKİRDAĞ	16.095.479	4,43
8	GEMLİK	12.465.179	3,24	-9,10	GEMLİK	13.712.317	3,54	-6,88	GEMLİK	14.095.479	4,05
9	İZMİR	11.096.292	2,88	16,25	İZMİR	9.545.331	2,46	-8,85	İZMİR	10.471.890	2,88
10	KARADENİZ EREĞLİ	10.386.586	2,70	14,53	KARADENİZ EREĞLİ	9.068.892	2,34	-10,19	KARADENİZ EREĞLİ	10.097.413	2,78
TOTAL		311.627.764	80,96	-1,68		316.947.847	81,81	7,76		294.134.718	80,95
OTHER PORTS		73.302.994	19,04	4,01		70.478.385	18,19	1,83		69.212.005	19,05
TOTAL HANDLING		384.930.758	100	-0,64		387.426.232	100	6,63		363.346.723	100

Source: TC Ulaştırma Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı, 2013: 30 and TC Ulaştırma Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı, 2014: 30

1.3.2. Port Management in Turkey

In this part of the study, port administration types and port organizational structure in Turkey is going to be presented. Public and private ports will be mainly classified and explained under the title of port administration types in Turkey.

1.3.2.1. Port Administration Types in Turkey

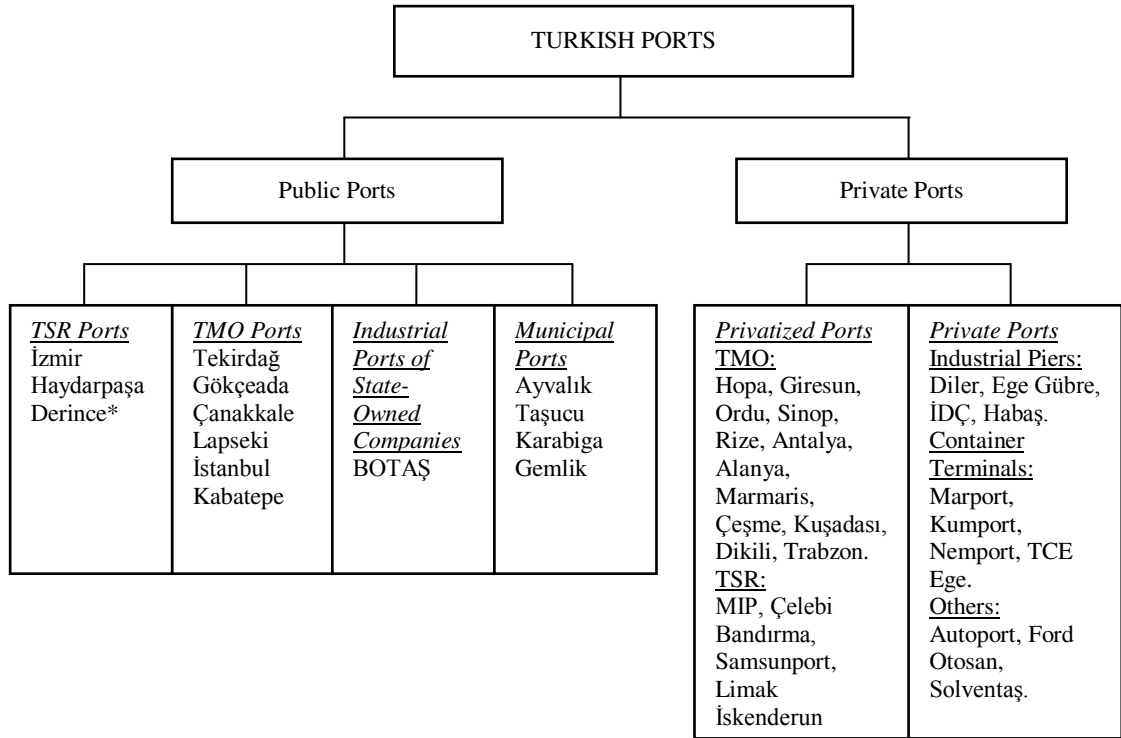
In Turkey, there are more than 200 coastal facilities (port/pier/pipeline and buoy systems) providing international transportation services. Ports in Turkey can be categorized as (Esmer and Karataş-Çetin, 2013: 409):

- Public ports (Turkish State Railways, Turkish Maritime Organizations, etc.)
- Regional municipalities (Municipal ports)
- Privately owned ports (Ambarlı, Gemport, etc.)

Turklim include industrial ports of state or private-owned companies in this categorization (Esmer and Karataş-Çetin, 2013: 410). Besides, Oral et al. (2007: 172) and Bloem et al. (2013: 65) depicted that the ports of Turkey are classified into four groups; public ports, municipal ports, affiliated ports and privately owned ports.

According to Aksoy and Terzi (2008: 435), and Esmer and Karataş-Çetin (2013: 411), ports in Turkey can be analyzed in two main categories as private and public ports. While public ports comprise municipal piers, TSR (Turkish State Railways) ports and TMO (Turkish Maritime Organizations), private ports include privatized ports and ports directly established by private sector as illustrated in **Figure 10**.

Figure 10: Classification of Turkish Ports According to Administration Models



Source: Esmer and Karataş-Çetin, 2013: 411

* Derince port has just been privatized with the method of transfer of operational rights to Safi Katı Yakıt Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. on 5th June 2014

1.3.2.1.1. Public Ports

Ports have tended to be state-owned in both developed and developing economies. In the developed world the most common form of port ownership structure until recently has been the landlord port model, wherein ‘the port maintain ownership while the infrastructure is leased to private operating companies’ (Hill et al., 2008: 97). In turkey, the main public ports are operated and/or coordinated by TSR and the TMO. The TSR manages ports connected to the railway system. The TMO was privatized as TMO Inc. Co. as a state enterprise in 1995. TSR ports are managed by the Directorate of Ports under TSR from its headquarters in Ankara. Directorate of Ports under TSR is responsible for the management, the overall planning and functioning of the ports, and their coordination (Bloem et al., 2013: 65).

1.3.2.1.1.1. Turkish State Railways(TSR)Ports

Ports managed by Turkish State Railways (TSR) in Turkey are Haydarpaşa, İzmir. Additionally, Mersin, Samsun, Bandırma, İskenderun and Derince which have been operated by TSR are privatized ports. **Table 20** demonstrated TSR ports with specifications and capacities. When number of workers of Turkish State Railways ports is considered, it can be seen that İzmir and Haydarpaşa ports had approximately the same number of workers with 682 and 600 workers. However, Mersin (MIP) which was privatized in 2007 had the biggest number of workers with 1550. In addition, MIP was the leader on total ship incoming and total handling capacity with 4692 ships and 8606000 tons among other ports operated by TSR and privatized ports used to be operated by TSR. Finally, although the maximum wharf capacity was belonged to İzmir port with 11.100.000 tons per year, İzmir port was on the third rank in total ship receipt and second rank in total handling capacity.

Table 20: Specifications and Capacities of Turkish State Railways Ports

Ports	Total Wharf Length (m)	Port Area (*1000 m2)	Max. Draught (m)	Number of Workers	Total Ship Receipt (Ship/Year)	Total Handling Capacity (*1000 Tons/Year)	Total Wharf Capacity (*1000 Tons/Year)	Capacity of Container Wharf Equipment (*1000 TEU)	Storage Capacity (*1000 Tons/Year)	
									General Cargo	Cont.
Ports Operated by TSR;										
Haydarpaşa	2765	320	-12	600	2651	5889	8558	407	689	269
İzmir	3386	525	-13	682	3640	6419	11100	549	884	343
Derince ^a	1092	366	-15	308	862	2288	2991	40	2984	100
Privatized Ports;										
Mersin (MIP)	4725	1097	-14	1550	4692	8606	10967	695	8500	371
Samsun (Samsunport)	1756	338	-12	146	1130	2380	4300	40	5471	50
Bandırma (Çelebi)	2706	250	-12	180	4280	2771	7008	40	2013	50
İskenderun	1426	750	-12	341	640	3247	6097	20	9286	146
TOTAL										
	17.856	3.646		3.807	17.895	31.600	51.021	1.791	29.827	1.329

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 73

^aDerince port has just been privatized with the method of transfer of operational rights to Safi Katı Yakıt Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. on 5th June 2014

1.3.2.1.1.2. Ports Operated by Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)

Ports operated by Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO) are İstanbul, Tekirdağ, Çanakkale, Lapseki, Kabatepe and Gökçeada. Specifications and capacities of these ports can be seen in **Table 21**. It is a considerable fact that İstanbul had the majority of passenger capacity per year among other ports operated by TMO with 90 % of total passenger capacity. Besides, the highest ship capacity with approximately 70 % was belonged to İstanbul port. However, Tekirdağ port was the port which had the longest pier with 2.100 meters.

Table 21: The Ports Operated by Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)

Ports	Pier Length (Meters)	Depth (Meters)	Handling Capacity (000x ton/year)	Ship Capacity (number/years)	Storage Capacity (000x ton/year)	Passenger Capacity (person/years)
İstanbul	1.386,00	(-8,-12)	-	3.950	-	3.860.000
Tekirdağ	2.100,00	(-12,5)				
Çanakkale	90,00	(-6,-7)	300	365	-	110.000
Lapseki	106,00	(-6,-8)	100	100	10	-
Kabatepe	295,00	(-4,-5)	-	365	-	90.000
Gökçeada (Port of Kuzu)	900,00	(-6,-7)	400	700	200	200.000
Gökçeada (Uğurlu Pier)	76,00	(-6,-8)	-	365	-	-
TOTAL	2.853,00		800	5.845	210	4.260.000

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 72

1.3.2.1.1.3. Industrial Ports of State-Owned Companies (Affiliated Ports)

Affiliated ports are owned and operated by either large state-owned or private industrial companies and these ports usually serve the tramp and bulk market (Oral et al., 2007: 174). These ports are special industrial ports and industrial enterprises, and mostly confined in purpose to the particular needs of industrial concerns (Bloem et al., 2013: 65). There are thirty seven industrial ports of state-owned companies in Turkey which possess total length of 30,662 meters (Oral et al., 2007: 180).

1.3.2.1.1.4. Municipal Ports

Municipal ports are comparatively small-scale and are operated by the municipalities where the ports are located (Oral et al., 2007: 174). Municipalities manage municipal ports. These public ports are comparatively small and limited to relatively small volumes of coastal traffic serving the local needs of provincial towns. Some municipalities manage ports with their own port management division, but this does not involve large-scale development (Bloem et al., 2013: 65).

SWOT of traditional municipal ports is given in **Table 22**.

Table 22: SWOT of Traditional Municipal Ports in General

STRENGTHS • Creates security – municipal employer • Juridical part of municipality – financial and other resources – public control • Preferential tax treatment • Superstructure development and cargo handling operations are usually the responsibility of the same organization (unity of command)	WEAKNESSES • There is no role or only a limited role for the private sector in cargo handling operations • There is lack of internal competition, leading to inefficiency • Operations are not user or market oriented • Lack of innovation • Public procurement rules • Slow decision making
OPPORTUNITIES • Arrangements of profit and financing can be more flexible inside municipality • Resource from the municipality for investment and development of operations	THREATS • There might be less problem solving capability and flexibility in case of labor problems, since the port administration also is the major employer of port labor • Wasteful use of resources and underinvestment as a result of government interference and dependence on municipal budget • Changes in tax code that remove or lessen preferential tax treatment

Source: Rönty et al., 2011: 88

Municipal ports in Turkey can be considered as negligible. They do not play an important role in the overall maritime transportation of Turkey because of their low share of cargo throughput (Oral et al., 2007: 173). There are forty five municipal ports in Turkey which have total length of 8,875 meters (Oral et al., 2007: 180).

1.3.2.1.2. Private Ports

Private ports in Turkey can be classified into two categories which are privatized and private ports.

1.3.2.1.2.1. Privatized Ports

The current environment of ports is increasingly competitive as the forces of globalization, rapid advances in transport technology, and shipping alliances affect the operation of ports and their bargaining position relative to shipping lines. Given this environment, many ports have turned to privatization with the view that increasing of container private sector participation in the ownership and operation of container terminals can help them improve their operational efficiency (Tongzon, 2008: 110). In simple terms, privatization is defined as placing a state activity or industry in the private sector of transferring the ownership of an asset into private hands (Song, 2008: 138). UNCTAD (1998: 1) defined privatization as ‘is the transfer of ownership of assets from the public to the private sector or the application of private capital to fund investments in port facilities, equipment, and systems’. Private ownership improves productivity and efficiency, thereby enhancing overall economic performance (Song, 2008: 138). Companies within the privatization portfolio are privatized through the use of one or more of the methods mentioned below (ÖİB, 2012: 19):

- **Sale:** Transfer of the ownership of companies in full or partially, or transfer of shares of these companies through domestic or international public offerings, block sales to real and/or legal entities, block sales including deferred public offerings, sales to employees, sales on the stock exchanges by standard or special orders, sales to investment funds and/or securities investment partnerships by taking into consideration the prevailing conditions of the companies.

- **Lease:** Grant of the right of use of all or some of the assets of the companies for a defined period of time.

- **Grant of Operational Rights**

- **Establishment of Property Rights other than Ownership**

•Profit Sharing Model and other Legal Dispositions Depending on the Nature of the Business

The number of service ports worldwide has steadily diminished as governments have sought to increase the efficiency of port operations through privatization. Privatization consists of (1) asset privatization, the transfer of assets from a public port to the private sector, for example, to a private port terminal operator, and (2) service privatization, the transfer of a public port service (but not public port assets) to the private sector for its provision(Talley, 2009: 127). When increasing the role of the private sector, some benefits and risks can be risen as (UNCTAD: 1993):

- Benefits
 - Improving management
 - Labor negotiations removed from political arena
 - Political/bureaucratic limits on operations eliminated
 - Sufficient compensation provided to attract good managers
 - Incentives provided in the form of promotion and bonuses
 - More efficient and cost-effective maintenance
 - Increased industrial management expertise
 - Market-oriented pricing introduces
 - Reducing port liabilities
 - Responsibility for safety of cargo
 - Responsibility for safety and health of labor
 - Responsibility for damage to structures
 - Promoting the port
 - Marketing responsibility transferred to partners
 - Long-term investment in the port encouraged
 - Reducing business risk
 - Private-sector equity participation encouraged
 - Long-term contracts signed
 - Risk shared with private sector

- Risks
 - Establishment of a private monopoly
 - Priority given to corporate goals over public service objectives
 - Loss of control of port infrastructure development

Privatization has been a key element for many governments in today's world. In a similar vein, it was also adopted in Turkey as a government policy after the liberalization policy in the economy (Yercan, 1999: 127). According to Çağlar et al. (2010: 927) the main objective of port privatization is to increase the efficiency and effectiveness based on the port capacity. However, it is hard to connect with efficiency and port ownership directly. Because currently, a great number of ports owned and managed by government were operated efficiently (Çağlar et al., 2010: 927). The privatization of ports started in 1995 through the transfer of operational rights of ports under the Turkish Maritime Organization (TMO) and the process continues for the TSR ports. Small ports under the control of TMO were privatized between 1998 and 2003 (Bloem et al., 2013: 54).

Privatization in Turkey will be carried out by a method that does not involve the transfer of the title of the ports, such as the transfer of operational rights, lease or other management method (Oral et al., 2007: 183). However, it has not been brought to the desired level yet, partly because of contractual problems during the privatization of some ports. The terms and conditions in the concession contracts should be more thoroughly investigated before the takeover begins. Another point is the concession period. With 36 and 49 years these seem longer in Turkey compared to other ports in the world (Bloem et al., 2013: 31) where the period is between 10 and 25 years (UNCTAD, 1998: 9). Privatized ports under the Turkish Maritime Organization (TMO) are given **Table 23**.

Table 23: Privatized Ports under the Turkish Maritime Organizations (TMO)

No	Ports	Date of Transfer	Company Name	Period (Years)	Sale Price M USD
1	Tekirdağ *	25.06.1997	Akport A.Ş.	30	104,9
2	Rize	13.08.1997	Asım Cillioğlu OGG	30	5,6
3	Ordu	11.07.1997	Çakıroğlu A.Ş.	30	1,6
4	Sinop	11.07.1997	Çakıroğlu A.Ş.	30	800,9
5	Giresun	11.07.1997	Çakıroğlu A.Ş.	30	3,2
6	Hopa	26.06.1997	Park Holding A.Ş.	30	4,0
7	Antalya	08.09.1998	OrtaDoğu A.Ş.	30	29,0
8	Marmaris	02.02.2001	Marmaris Liman İşl. A.Ş.	30	14,9
9	Alanya	18.12.2000	Alidaş A.Ş.	30	1,6
10	Çeşme	28.05.2003	Ulusoy Çeşme Liman İşlet. A.Ş.	30	11,3
11	Kuşadası	02.07.2003	Ege Liman İşletmeleri A.Ş.	30	24,3
12	Trabzon	20.11.2003	Albayraklar A.Ş.	30	23,4
13	Dikili	20.11.2003	Dikili Liman ve Turizm İşl. A.Ş.	30	4,3
14	Salı Pazarı (Galata Port)	24.02.2014	Doğuş Holding A.Ş.	30	702

*Redelivered to the Government in 2012 due to the problems encountered.

Source: Bloem et al., 2013: 55

Note: The date of transfer of Salı Pazarı is updated(www.oib.gov.tr)

The Turkish State Railways (TSR) are given **Table 24**. As can be seen in the table, privatization of Mersin, Bandırma, Samsun and İskenderun ports which are operated by TSR were completed. In addition, Derince port has just been privatized with the method of transfer of operational rights to Safi Katı Yakıt Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. on 5th June 2014 (ÖİB, 2014). Nonetheless, the process of privatization of İzmir ports cannot be accomplished.

Table 24: Privatized Ports under the Turkish State Railways (TSR)

Privatization Completed Ports			
PORT NAME	DATE OF APPR.	DATE OF SIGN.	PRICE (\$)
MERSİN	07.11.2005	11.05.2007	755 MILLION
BANDIRMA	19.09.2008	18.05.2010	175,5 MILLION
SAMSUN	19.09.2008	31.03.2010	125,2 MILLION
İSKENDERUN	07.01.2011	30.12.2011	372 MILLION
DERİNCE*	29.05.2013	05.06.2014	543 MILLION
Privatization Tender Cancelled Ports			
PORT NAME	DATE OF TENDER	CANCELLING DATE OF TENDER	
DERİNCE	21.06.2007	14.06.2010	
İZMİR	03.05.2007	28.04.2010	

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 81

*Derince port has just been privatized with the method of transfer of operational rights to Safi Katı Yakıt Sanayi ve Ticaret A.Ş. on 5th June 2014. The price was 543 million \$ and the date of approval was on 29th May 2013.

1.3.2.1.2.2. Private Ports

Privately owned ports; most of these primarily handle their own cargoes but do serve other customers. Private ports have specialized terminal operations that usually serve the bulk and tramp market. Some are occupied with the liner market by serving containerized cargo (Oral et al., 2007: 174). SWOT of private ports is given in **Table 25**.

Table 25: SWOT of Private Ports

STRENGTHS • No direct (local) government interference • Maximum flexibility with respect to investment and port operations • Ownership of port land enables market-oriented port development and tariff policies • In case of redevelopment, private port operator probably realizes a high price for the sale of port land • The often strategic location of port land may enable the private operator to broaden its scope of activities	WEAKNESSES • The government (national, regional or local) loses its ability to execute a long-term economic development policy with respect to the port business • In case the necessity arises to redevelop the port area, government has to spend considerable amounts of money to buy back the port land
OPPORTUNITIES • Customer and business orientation • Development potential due to business-like operation • Co-operation with the private sector is easier • Possibility to take business risks / taking advantage of opportunities • Flexibility of pricing and rewarding • Opportunities for institutional investors • Access to capital markets • External know-how to the board	THREATS • Realization of business risks • There is a serious risk of speculation with port land by private owners • Conflict between owners' will and company's interest • Prejudiced / partial treatment of customers

Source: Rönty et al., 2011: 93

The private ports/terminals are in a rather competitive position compared with publicly operated ports. Generally, they prefer to specialize and operate more efficiently. The decision-making process in private ports is much quicker and more efficient at investing, especially in cargo handling equipment. The management style of the private port sector has minimized internal bureaucracy (Oral et al., 2007: 174).

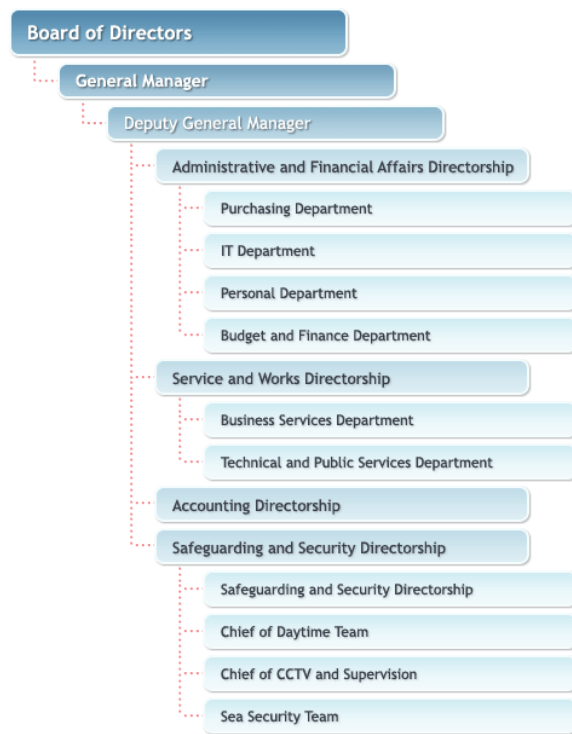
List of private port and geographical distribution of main regions in Turkey is demonstrated in **Appendix 2**.

1.3.2.2. Port Organizational Structure in Turkey

With globalization, good port governance has gained importance due to strong competition among the ports. Port governance should be taken as a key issue for the advancement of port competitiveness (Oral et al., 2007: 172).

Turkish maritime organizations have generally traditional organizational structures. Organizational structures of ports in Turkey as an example can comprise one manager, two or three deputy manager and these units: Civil defense expertise, board of auditors, research and planning department, staff and administrative services, accounting, auditor services of revenues, insurance services, auditor services of salaries, health services, editorial office/communication and records services, pilotage services, transportation services, supplies services, food and beverage services, repair and maintenance services, administration and planning services, personnel affairs, stevedoring/cargo handling department, warehousing department, passenger lounge and job security, laboratory and chemistry department, manifest services, superiority of protection and security, fire chieftainship (Yercan, 1996: 152). An example of an organization chart from a Turkish private port can be seen in **Figure 11**.

Figure 11:An Example Port Organization Chart (Altaş Ambarlı Port)



Source: Altaş Limanı, 2014

Port Authority model has not been applied in Turkey yet although it has been utilized in a widespread manner in the world. However, the requirement of port authorities in Turkey was stated in the study of National Ports Master Plan and 9th Development Plan of State Planning Organization (Aksoy and Terzi, 2008: 443). State Planning Organization stated in the 9th Development Plan (2007: 69) Turkey needs a port authority model which will provide an opportunity of a secure market in port industry; will show respect competitiveness based on free market economy; but will also intervene in the negative cases such as market failures, high tariffs and monopolization which can affect strategic objectives with using objective, explicit and reliable mechanisms.

1.3.3. Strategic Management in Turkish Ports

According to Daft (2006: 269) strategic management is “the set of decisions and actions used to formulate and implement strategies that will provide a

competitively superior fit between the organization and its environment so as to achieve organizational goals”. To make a strategy a management tool is possible thanks to planning. After that, the plan is used for the implementation tool of strategic management (Bircan, 2002: 14).

In Turkey, strategic planning has been given a considerable importance by governance. Strategic planning was made obligatory and became a tool of public reform in accordance with the law number 5018 as a significant part of Public Administration Reform (Gürer, 2006: 102). When port industry in Turkey is considered; Ministry of Transport, Maritime Affairs and Communications publishes the Strategic Plan for every 4 years periods. Nevertheless, a strategic plan of ports is not published even in private sector. Therefore, a strategic plan cannot be reached to be examined in terms of strategic management in Turkey. However, it can be known fact that privatization of ports which are substantially common in Turkey can be considered as a strategic act from the point of port industry in Turkey. On the contrary, there are various examples of strategic plans published by ports in the world. To give an example, strategic plan of port of Los Angeles, Tacoma, Long Beach, Vancouver USA, Oakland can be given. For instance, strategic objectives of port of Los Angeles in strategic plan (The Port of Los Angeles, 2012: 6-13):

1. Develop and maintain world class infrastructure
2. Retain and grow market share
3. Advance technology and sustainability
4. Optimize land use
5. Create a positive workplace culture
6. Increase stakeholder and community awareness and support
7. Strengthen financial performance

Finally, the majority of strategic objectives of port of LA are the roles of effective strategic leaders. **Chapter 2** gives criteria of effective strategic leadership in detail.

CHAPTER 2

STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT CONTEXT

2.1. STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

2.1.1. Definition of Strategic Management

Consistently and continuously increasing interest in studies of strategy showed by wide and various circles has been observed for last fifty years (Barca, 2005: 8). The appearance of strategic management dates back to second half of the 20th Century and it is much later than the appearance of management as a branch of science (Diken, Öge, and Öztürk, 2007: 904). Strategic management, which comprised one of the basic sub-disciplines of management science, originated in the USA like other concepts in management literature. It can be stated that first studies concerning the context –according to general acceptance- embarked on the USA in 1950's (Anıl and Tayşir, 2007: 2). The concept of strategy has been kept on saying by managers of organizations since especially the mid of 1960's. Likewise, strategic management has been taken attention as an application used by almost every middle and large enterprises (Ansoff and McDonnell, 1988: 75).

One of the most improved branches in management science last 30-40 years is the strategic management (Barca, 2007: 19). Strategic management, which has been understood and commented in a better way day by day, will bring specific point of direction and view to the organization in the environment that has been changing invariably, becoming ambiguous, and its risk has been increasing (Özcan, 2011: 63).

The strategic approaches to management started in the beginning of 1960's. Although the concept of strategy used before, the concept has been started to be approached since 1960 in terms of business objectives and administration. The focus of these approaches is competition and the way followed for competitive advantage (Akat et al., 1994: 42). When the progress of strategic management is considered, it is seen that strategic management came out as a result of the requirement of long-run planning and it was clarified conceptually in 1980's (Şahin, 2012: 31).

According to Certo and Peter (1991), strategic management as a concept has evolved over time and will continue to evolve. As a result there is noticeable lack of consensus about precisely what the term means (Certo and Peter, 1991: 5). Therefore, there are a great many definitions of strategic management resembling each other's in many aspects. **Table 26** gives definitions and similarities between authors who are stated in table.

Table 26:Definitions of Strategic Management from Different Authors' Perspectives

SIMILARITIES	DEFINITION OF STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT	AUTHOR
IMPORTANCE OF RELATION BETWEEN ORGANIZATIONS AND THEIR ENVIRONMENT	a continuous, iterative process aimed at keeping an organization as a whole appropriately matched to its environment	Certo and Peter (1991: 5)
	the set of decisions and actions used to formulate and implement strategies that will provide a competitively superior fit between the organization and its environment so as to achieve organizational goals	Daft (2006: 269)
MISSION AND OBJECTIVES OF ORGANIZATIONS	the process of utilizing of production factors like natural resources, labor force, capital etc. efficiently and effectively in order to achieve the objectives of an organization	Ülgen and Mirze (2010: 27)
	a process of formulating, implementing, and evaluating cross-functional decisions that enable the organization to define and achieve its mission , and ultimately to create value	Porth (2003: 2)
	the process of formulation and implementing strategies to advance an organization's mission and objectives and secure competitive advantage	Schermerhorn (1999: 159)
	the art and science of formulating, implementing, and evaluating cross-functional decisions that enable an organization to achieve its objectives	David (2003: 5)
BEING LONG-RUN AND CONTINUOUS PROCESS	related to management of businesses which can ensure the long-term survival for an organization, provide a competitive advantage and return above the average profit not related to management of daily and usual works	Ülgen and Mirze (2010: 27)
	set of managerial decisions and actions that determines the long-run performance of an organization	Robbins and Coulter (2003: 198)
	set of managerial decisions and actions that determines the long-run performance of a corporation	Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 2)
	an ongoing, never-ending process, not a start-stop event that once done can be safely put aside for a while	Thomson and Strickland (1999: 17)

Source: The Author

Robbins and Coulter (1996) explained the main functions of strategic management widely as” identifying the organization’s current mission, objectives, and strategies, analyzing the environment, identifying the opportunities and threats, analyzing the organization’s resources, identifying the strengths and weaknesses, formulating and implementing strategies, and evaluating results” (Taslak, 2004: 152).

Despite disagreement on what the term means, strategic management is carried on in most organizations today—and most organizations that practice it benefit significantly (Certo and Peter, 1991: 5). Strategic management became indispensable for organizations as a result of rapid rises especially in environmental changes and that organizations possessed even more functional structure with quick growths of organizations. Also, strategic management has been utilized as an important tool for obtaining a competitive advantage (Diken, Öge, and Öztürk, 2007: 904).

Strategic management is the part of general management process of firms. In other words, when management is considered hierarchically, strategic management comprises of the special management area which is interested more by top management (Şahin, 2012: 29). Managers have ever present responsibility for detecting when new developments require a strategic response and when they don’t. It is their job to track progress, spot problems early, monitor the winds of market and customer change, and initiate adjustments (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 17).

An organization can reap several benefits from appropriately practicing strategic management. Perhaps the most important benefit is the tendency of such organizations to increase their levels of profit (Certo and Peter, 1991: 13). Benefits of strategic management can be required to be expressed. Small business owners, chief executive officers, presidents, and managers of many for-profit and non-profit organizations have recognized and realized the benefits of strategic management (David, 2003: 15). In addition to benefiting financially, organizations can gain other distinct advantages by implementing a strategic management system (Certo and Peter, 1991: 13). Because strategic management is a philosophy or way of managing an organization, its benefits are not always quantifiable.

Overall, strategic management (Swayne et al., 2006: 29):

- ties the organization together with a common sense of purpose and shared values;
- provides the organization with a clear self-concept, specific goals, and guidance as well as consistency in decision making;
- helps managers understand the present, think about the future, and recognize the signals that suggest change;
- requires managers to communicate both vertically and horizontally;
- improve overall coordination within the organization; and
- encourages innovation and change within the organization to meet the needs of dynamic situations.

A survey of nearly 50 corporations in a variety of countries and industries found the three most highly rated benefits of strategic management to be (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 4):

- Clearer sense of strategic vision for the firm
- Sharper focus on what is strategically important
- Improved understanding of a rapidly changing environment

Benefits of strategic management to organizations are opportunity to assess the environment and predict the future; opportunity to recognize and assess organizations with learning weaknesses and strengths; ensuring coordination in organizations; and motivating organizations to analyze both internal and external environment (Özcan, 2011: 54).

2.1.2. Basic Concepts of Strategic Management

It is important to point out some basic concepts related to strategic management so that strategic management and its process can be clearer and more understandable. Vision, mission, objective, and strategy are chosen as the most important core concepts related to strategic management in this stage.

- **Vision:** Many organizations today develop a vision statement that answers the question, “What do we want to become?” Developing a vision statement considered the first step in strategic planning, preceding even development of a

mission statement (David, 2003: 9). The vision of an organization is a statement about its future, where the firm is headed, what it aspires to become, how it hopes to be viewed by the public. The vision statement expresses a view of the future that is realistic, credible, and attractive for the organization, and answers the question “What do we want to become?” (Porth, 2003: 5). Visionless companies ensure what company business position they are trying to stake out. The best vision statements are worded in a manner that clarifies the direction in which an organization needs to move (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 29).

Vision expresses targets of an organization, the place and position where an organization is seen within a specific time period. The importance of vision depends on how the target is accessible, measurable, and realistic (Gürüz and Gürel, 2006: 37). There are three distinct pieces to the task of forming a strategic vision of a company’s business future (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 29):

- Defining what business the company is presently in.
- Deciding on a long-term strategic course for the company to pursue.
- Communicating the vision in ways that are clear, exciting, and inspiring.

What is more, according to Porth (2003: 55), a clearly vision should be simple, easily understood, clearly desirable, and energizing. Also, Porth (2003: 55) pointed that a vision statement should be based on four key attributes: idealism, uniqueness, future oriented, and imagery.

- **Mission:** Organizational mission is the purpose for which, or reason why, an organization exists (Certo and Peter, 1991: 66). When mission can be thought as the beginning, present mission leads the way for strategists with regard to preparing strategies and making a decision among different choices (Şahin, 2012: 25). 2003: 10). An organization’s mission is the purpose of or reason for the organization’s existence. It tells what the company is providing to society, either a service like housecleaning or a product like automobiles (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 10). It addresses the basic question that faces all strategists: “What is our business?” A clear mission statement describes the values and priorities of an organization. Developing a mission statement compels strategists to think about the nature and scope of present

operations and to assess the potential attractiveness of future markets and activities (David, 2003: 10).

What a company is currently seeking to do for its customers is often termed the company's mission. A mission statement is useful for putting the spotlight on what business a company is presently in and the customer needs it is presently endeavoring to serve (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 4). A good mission statement is precise in identifying the domain in which the organization intends to operate, including the customers it intends to serve, the products and/or services it intends to provide, and the location in which it intends to operate (Schermerhorn, 1999: 160).

- **Objective:** An organizational objective is a target toward which the organization directs its efforts (Certo and Peter, 1991: 71). Objectives can be defined as specific results that an organization seeks to achieve in pursuing its basic mission (David, 2003: 11).

Goals (or objectives) state what is to be achieved and when results are to be accomplished, but they do not state how the results are to be achieved (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1996: 3). As can be seen in the definition, there are some approaches which the terms "goal" and "objectives" are used interchangeably. However, according to Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 12), these two terms are different concepts. In contrast to an objective, a goal is an open-ended statement of what one wants to accomplish with no quantification of what is to be achieved and no time criteria for completion. For example, a simple statement of "increased profitability" is thus a goal, not an objective, because it does not state how much profit the firm wants to make the next year. An objective would say something like "increase profits 10% over last year" (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 12).

The purpose of setting objectives is to convert managerial statements of strategic vision and business mission into specific performance targets, something the organization's progress can be measured by (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 5). Objectives are essential for organizational success because they state direction; aid in evaluation; create synergy; reveal priorities; focus coordination; and provide a basis for effective planning, organizing, motivating, and controlling activities (David, 2003: 11).

Objective setting is required of all managers. Every unit in a company needs concrete, measurable performance target that contribute meaningfully toward achieving company objectives (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 5).

Objectives are the results of planned activity. The achievement of corporate objectives should result in the fulfillment of a corporation's mission. (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 12). Although the choices and priorities will be different among firms, the objectives lists of most firms will contain the following (Ansoff and McDonnell, 1988: 31):

1. Economic objectives aimed at optimizing the efficiency of the firm's total resource-conversion process.
2. Assurance of an attractive return on investment over the long-term. If the return is not attractive, the investors will abandon the firm; if the return becomes chronically negative, the firm will go out of business.
3. Social or non-social economic objectives, which respond to the needs and aspirations of the firm's participants.
4. Objectives which respond to the aspirations of powerful external constituencies.
5. In addition to proper objectives, two related types of influence are exerted on management behavior: responsibilities and constraints.

According to Porth (2003: 127), objectives have three major tasks which are to help stakeholders understand their role in an organization's future; to provide the bases for company organization and job design; and finally to serve as standards by which divisions, departments, work groups, and individuals can be evaluated.

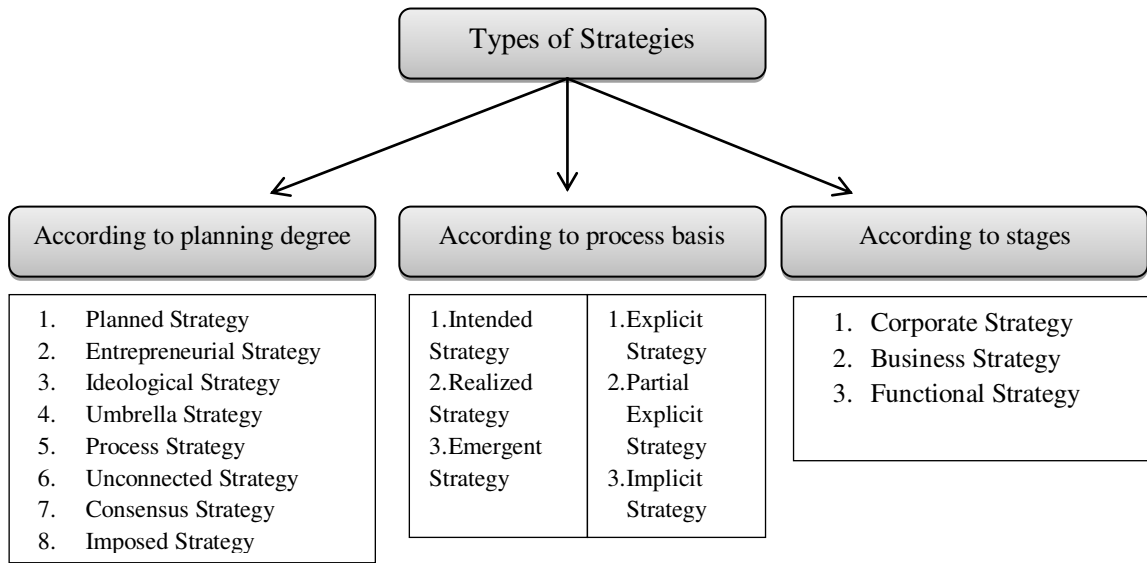
- **Strategy:** Strategy is an integrated and coordinated set of commitments and actions designed to exploit core competencies and gain a competitive advantage (Hitt, et al. 2003: 9). A strategy is the pattern or plan that integrates an organization's major goals, policies, and action sequences into a cohesive whole (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1996: 3). Strategies are the means by which long-term objectives will be achieved. Strategies are potential actions that require top management decisions and large amounts of the firm's resources. In addition, strategies affect an organization's long-term prosperity, typically for at least five years, and thus are future-oriented

(David, 2003: 11). Also, according to Johnson, Scholes, and Whittington (2008: 3), strategy is the direction and scope of an organisation over the long term, which achieves advantage in a changing environment through its configuration of resources and competences with the aim of fulfilling stakeholder expectations.

A company's strategy represents management's answers to such gut business issues as whether to concentrate on a single business or build a diversified group of businesses, whether to cater to a broad range of customers or focus on a particular market niche, whether to develop a wide or narrow product line, whether to pursue a competitive advantage based on low cost or product superiority or unique organizational capabilities, how to respond to changing buyer preferences, how big a geographic market to try to cover, how to react to new market and competitive conditions, and how to grow the enterprise over the long-term (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 7).

Strategy consists of the whole array of competitive moves and business approaches that managers employ in running a company (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 2). A strategy of a corporation forms a comprehensive master plan stating how the corporation will achieve its mission and objectives. It maximizes competitive advantage and minimizes competitive disadvantage (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 13). A well-formulated strategy helps to marshal and allocate an organization's resources into a unique and viable posture based on its relative internal competencies and shortcomings, anticipated changes in the environment, and contingent moves by intelligent opponents (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1996: 3).

Figure 12: Types of Strategies



Source: Şahin, 2012: 21

Figure 12 indicates that there are three basic types of strategies which are based on according to planning degree, process, and stages.

Strategy refers to a set of decisions and objectives regarding the nature and range of businesses a firm chooses to operate (corporate strategy) and the basic competitive approaches used in each of the businesses (business strategy) (Snow et al. 1989: 4). The typical business firm usually consider three types of strategy; corporate, business, and functional (**Figure 13**) (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 13).

- 1. Corporate Strategy:** A corporate-level strategy seeks to determine what businesses a company should be in or wants to be in (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 206). Corporate level strategy is concerned with the overall scope of an organisation and how value will be added to the different parts (business units) of the organisation (Johnson et al., 2008: 7). Corporate strategies typically fit within the three categories of stability, growth, and retrenchment (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 13).
- 2. Business Strategy:** A business-level strategy seeks to determine how an organization should compete in each of its businesses (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 210). Business strategy usually occurs at the business unit or product level, and it emphasizes improvement of the competitive position of a

corporation's products or services in the specific industry or market segment served by that business unit. Business strategies may fit within the two overall categories of competitive and cooperative strategies (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 13).

- 3. Functional Strategy:** A functional-level strategy seeks to determine how to support the business-level strategy (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 216). Functional strategy is the approach taken by a functional area to achieve corporate and business unit objectives and strategies by maximizing resource productivity (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 13).

Mintzberg and Quinn (1996: 13) analyzed strategies based on whether stages are planned or instant. **Table 27** demonstrates this approach of Mintzber and Quinn which are based on planning degrees.

Table 27: Types of Strategies

Strategy	Major features
Planned	Strategies originate in formal plans: precise intentions exist, formulated and articulated by central leadership, backed up by formal controls to ensure surprise-free implementation in benign, controllable or predictable environment; strategies most deliberate
Entrepreneurial	Strategies originate in central vision: intentions exist as personal, unarticulated vision of single leader, and so adaptable to new opportunities; organization under personal control of leader and located in protected niche in environment; strategies relatively deliberate but can emerge
Ideological	Strategies originate in shared beliefs: intentions exist as collective vision of all actors, in inspirational form and relatively immutable, controlled normatively through indoctrination and/or socialization; organization often proactive vis-à-vis environment; strategies rather deliberate
Umbrella	Strategies originate in constraints: leadership, in partial control of organizational actions, defines strategic boundaries or targets within which other actors respond to own forces or to complex, perhaps also unpredictable environment; strategies partly deliberate, partly emergent and deliberately emergent
Process	Strategies originate in process: leadership controls process aspects of strategy (hiring, structure, etc.), leaving content aspects to other actors; strategies partly deliberate, partly emergent (and, again, deliberately emergent)
Unconnected	Strategies originate in enclaves: actor(s) loosely coupled to rest of organization produce(s) patterns in own actions in absence of, or in direct contradiction to, central or common intentions; strategies organizationally emergent whether or not deliberate for actor(s)
Consensus	Strategies originate in consensus: through mutual adjustment, actors converge on patterns that become pervasive in absence of central or common intentions; strategies rather emergent
Imposed	Strategies originate in environment; environment dictates pattern in actions either through direct imposition or through implicitly pre-empting or bounding organizational choice; strategies most emergent, although may be internalized by organization and made deliberate

Source: Mintzberg and Waters, 1985: 270

Apart from these approaches to strategies, strategies can be also categorized into three categories based on process: Intended strategies, realized strategies and emergent strategies. Intended strategies are strategies that top managers create by thinking strategically and desire to realize. However, some parts of these strategies can be implemented sometimes. Therefore, the parts of these strategies which can be implemented in practice are realized strategies. On the other hand, if the strategies implemented in companies do not match with the intended strategies, they are called as emergent strategies which come into the process of operation by itself (Şahin, 2012: 22).

Additionally, Wheelen and Hunger (1995) categorized strategy as explicit strategies, partial explicit strategies and implicit strategies. Explicit strategy is a strategy that few conflicts can occur among people like creating and developing a new product line. However, some implicit strategies can show up with an advanced research. Types of strategies that Wheelen and Hunger (1995) explained resemble to intended, realized and emergent strategies. According to this, intended strategies resemble to explicit strategies; realized strategies resemble to partial explicit strategies; and emergent strategies resemble to implicit strategies (Şahin, 2012: 22).

2.1.3. Strategic Management Process

Strategic management and strategic management process are related to reach the decisions on what an organization needs to do and where it requires to go (Özalp, et al., 2009: 197). Strategic management process is the full set of commitments, decisions, and actions required for a firm to achieve strategic competitiveness and earn above-average returns (Hitt, et al. 2003: 7).

Strategic management process has been analyzed in a different ways by different authors. For example, while David (2003: 5) explained strategic management process into three stages which are strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and strategy evaluation, according to Hitt (2003: 8), strategic management process consists of strategic inputs involving the external and internal environment; strategic actions involving strategy formulation and implementation; and strategic outcomes involving feedback. On the other hand, according to Wheelen

and Hunger (2004: 9), “Strategic management consists of four basic elements: environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and evaluation and control” Thompson and Strickland (1999: 3), Schermerhorn (1999: 160) and Porth (2003: 3) depicted strategic management process containing the five tasks. The five tasks of strategic management process introduced by those three important authors are as follows:

As can be deduced from different approaches to the concept of strategic management process (**Table 28**), the content is very similar even though the number and headings of steps are different.

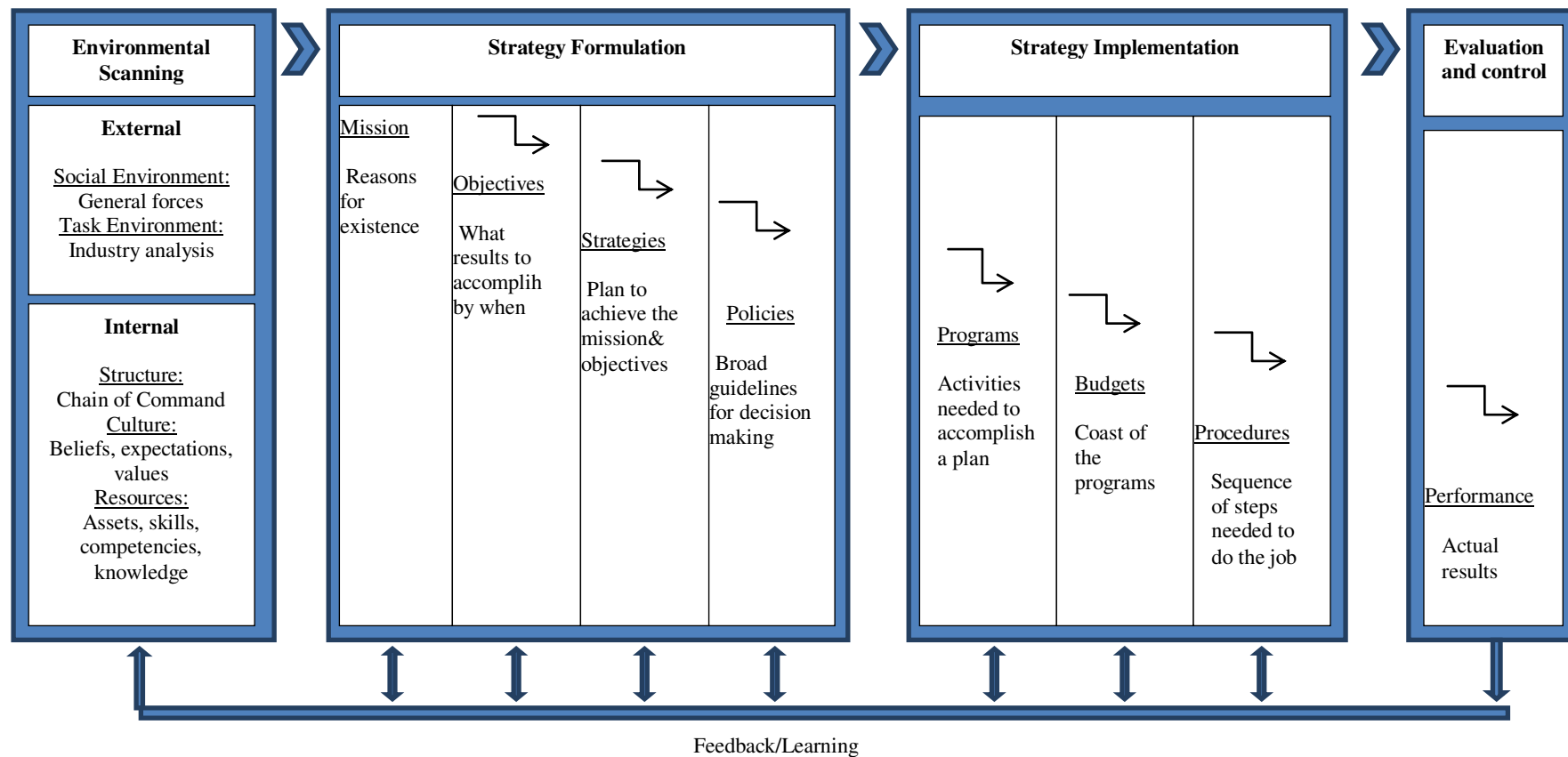
In this study, strategic management process will be explained into four steps as environmental scanning, strategy formulation, strategy implementation, and finally strategy evaluation and control like the approach of Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 9) to strategic management process as shown in **Figure 13**.

Table 28: Strategic Management Process from Different Approaches

AUTHOR	STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS	AUTHOR	STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS
Thompson and Strickland (1999: 3)	1. Forming a strategic vision of what the company's future business makeup will be and where the organization is headed – so as to provide long-term direction, delineate what kind of enterprise the company is trying to become, and infuse the organization with a sense of purposeful action. 2. Setting objectives – converting the strategic vision into specific performance outcomes for the company to achieve. 3. Crafting a strategy to achieve the desired outcomes. 4. Implementing and executing the chosen strategy efficiently and effectively. 5. Evaluating performance and initiating corrective adjustments in vision, long-term direction, objectives, strategy, or implementation in light of actual experience, changing conditions, new ideas, and new opportunities.	Porth (2003: 3)	1. Establish the vision and mission of the organization: Identify the reason for the organization and what it aspires to become. 2. Perform a situation analysis: Understand the strengths and weaknesses of the organization and scan its external environment. 3. Set objectives and craft a strategy: Determine the future direction of the organization and how it will achieve its mission and vision. 4. Implement the strategy: Execute the chosen strategy in an efficient and effective manner. 5. Assess the success of the strategy: Determine whether the strategy has created value for key stakeholders and provide feedback for corrective action if necessary.
Schermerhorn (1999: 160)	1. Identify organizational mission and objectives. Ask, "What business are we in? Where do we want to be in the future?" 2. Assess current performance Ask, "How well are we currently doing?" 3. Create strategic plans to accomplish purpose and objectives. Ask, "How can we get where we really want to be?" 4. Implement the strategic plans. Ask, "Has everything been done that needs to be done?" 5. Evaluate results; change strategic plans and/or implementation processes as necessary. Ask, "Are things working out as planned, and what can be improved upon?"	Robbins and Coulter (2003: 199)	1. Identifying the organization's current mission, objectives, and strategies 2. Analyzing the environment 3. Identifying the opportunities and threats 4. Analyzing the organization's resources 5. Identifying strengths and weaknesses 6. Formulating strategies 7. Implementing strategies 8. Evaluating results
Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 9)	1. Environmental scanning 2. Strategy formulation 3. Strategy implementation 4. Evaluation and control	Certo and Peter (1991: 13)	1. Performing an environmental analysis 2. Establishing organizational direction 3. Formulating organizational strategy 4. Implementing organizational strategy 5. Exerting strategic control

Source: The Author

Figure 13: Strategic Management Model

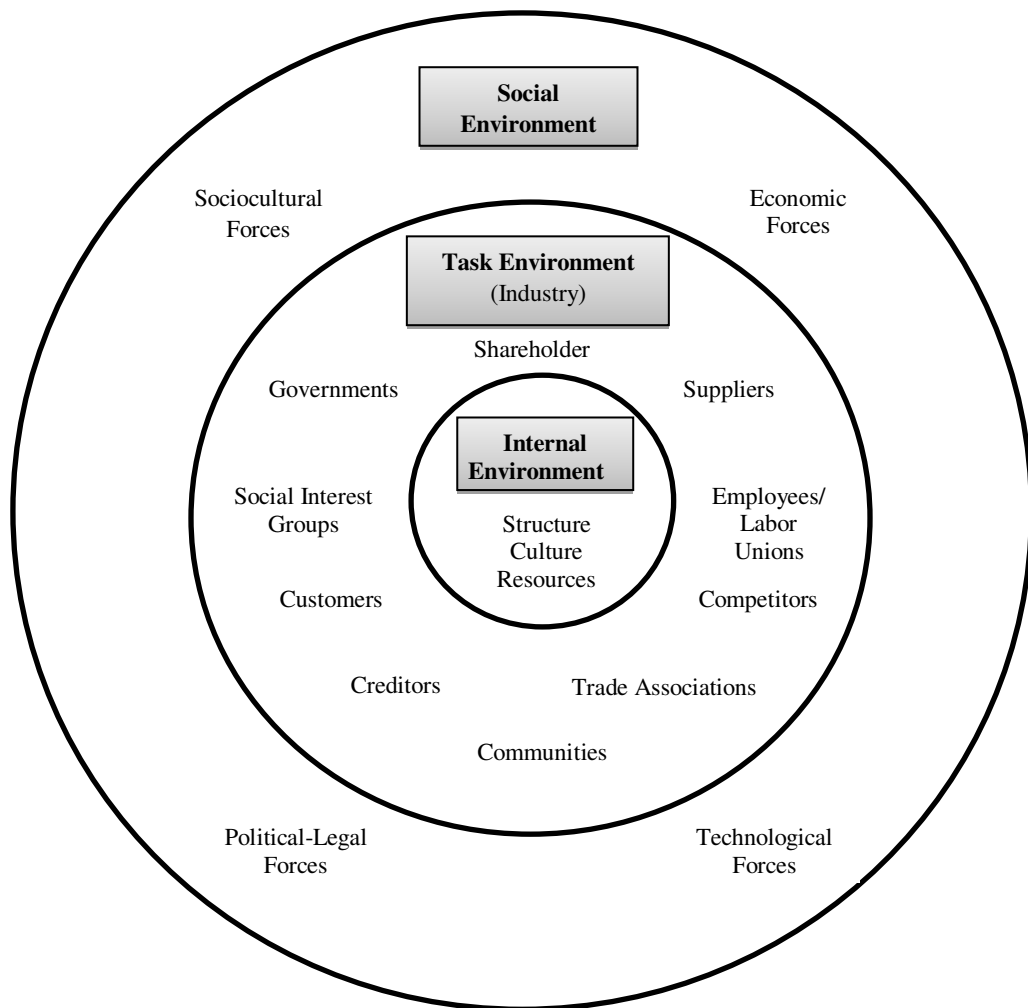


Source: Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 9

2.1.3.1. Environmental Scanning

At the stage of environmental scanning of strategic management process, internal environmental analysis is made by way of presenting weaknesses and strengths of a business and external environmental analysis is carried out by means of defining opportunities and threats of a business environment (Şahin, 2012: 32). In addition, according to Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 9), environmental scanning is the monitoring, evaluating, and disseminating of information from external and internal environments to key people within the corporation. Daft (2006: 278) defined the stage of environmental scanning as “situation analysis is an analysis of the strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats (SWOT) that affect organizational performance.” One of the basic techniques for analyzing firm and industry conditions is SWOT analysis (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 44). The purpose is to identify strategic factors-those external and internal elements that will determine the future of the corporation (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 9).

Figure 14: Environmental Variables

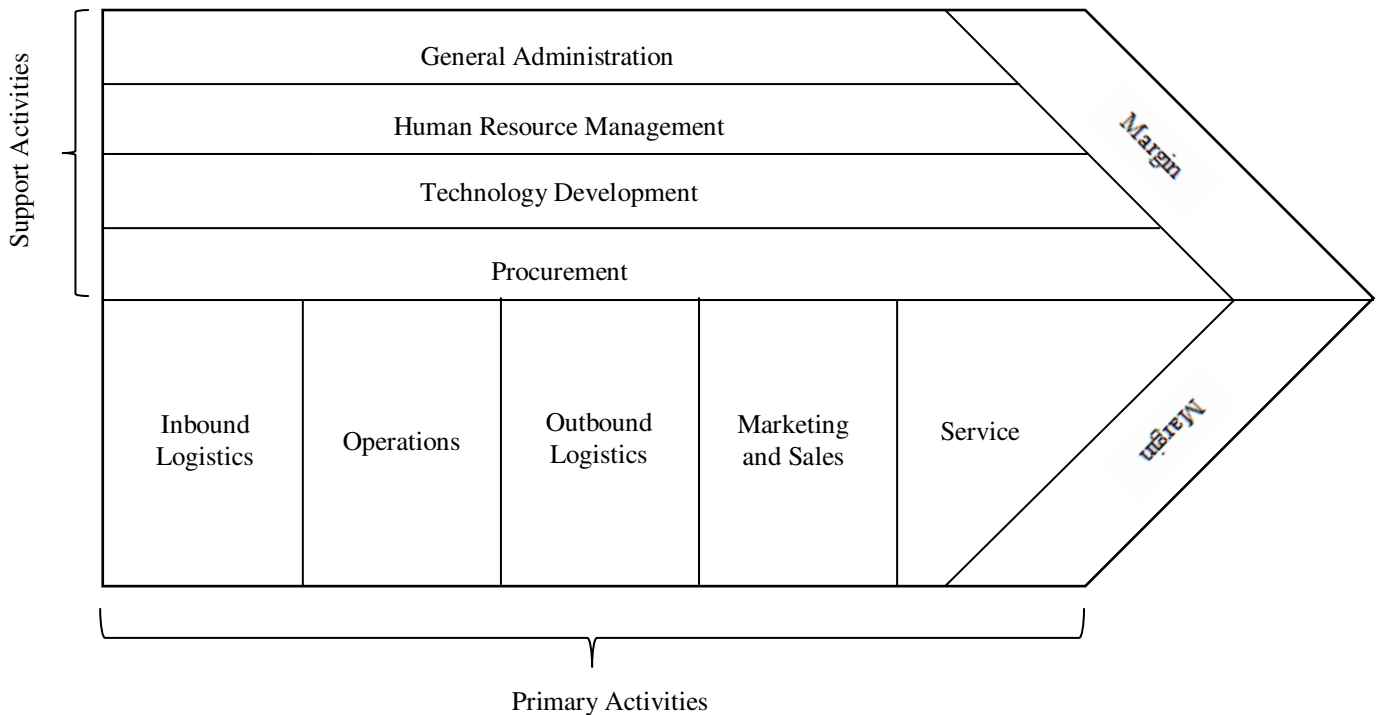


Source: Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 11

Figure 14 depicts key environmental variables. They may be general forces and trends within the overall societal environment or specific factors that operate within an organization's specific task environment-often called its industry(Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 10). **Figure 14** can help to comprehend which environmental factors are required to be analyzed in the compelling environment.

There are two frameworks that serve to complement SWOT analysis in assessing a firm's internal environment: value-chain analysis (**Figure 15**) and the resource-based view of the firm (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 96).

Figure 15: The Value Chain of a Company: Primary and Support Activities



Source: Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 72

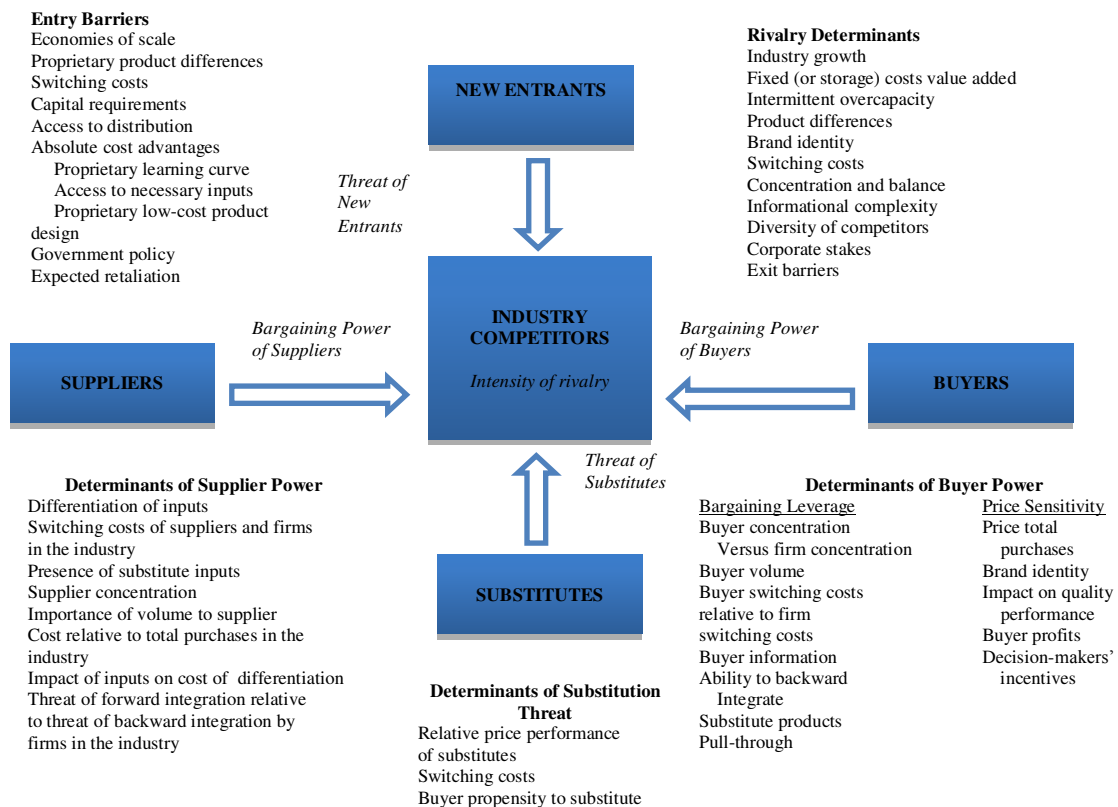
Figure 15 shows the value chain including primary and supportive activities in an organization. These activities have an important place in SWOT analysis in order to analyze internal environment.

A successful strategy will be one that aligns well with the environment (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 201). Successful environmental scanning alerts the organization to critical trends and events before the changes have developed a discernible pattern and before competitors recognize them (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 39).

Managers in every organization need to analyze the environment (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 201). In addition to the general environment, managers must also consider the competitive environment (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 54). Although the relevant environment is very broad, encompassing social as well as economic forces, the key aspect of the firm's environment is the industry or industries in which it competes (Porter, 1980: 3).

The “five forces” model (**Figure 16**) developed by Micheal E. Porter (1980: 4) has been the most commonly used tool for analysis of the competitive environment (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 54).

Figure 16: Elements of Industry Structure



Source: Mintzberg and Quinn, 1996: 76

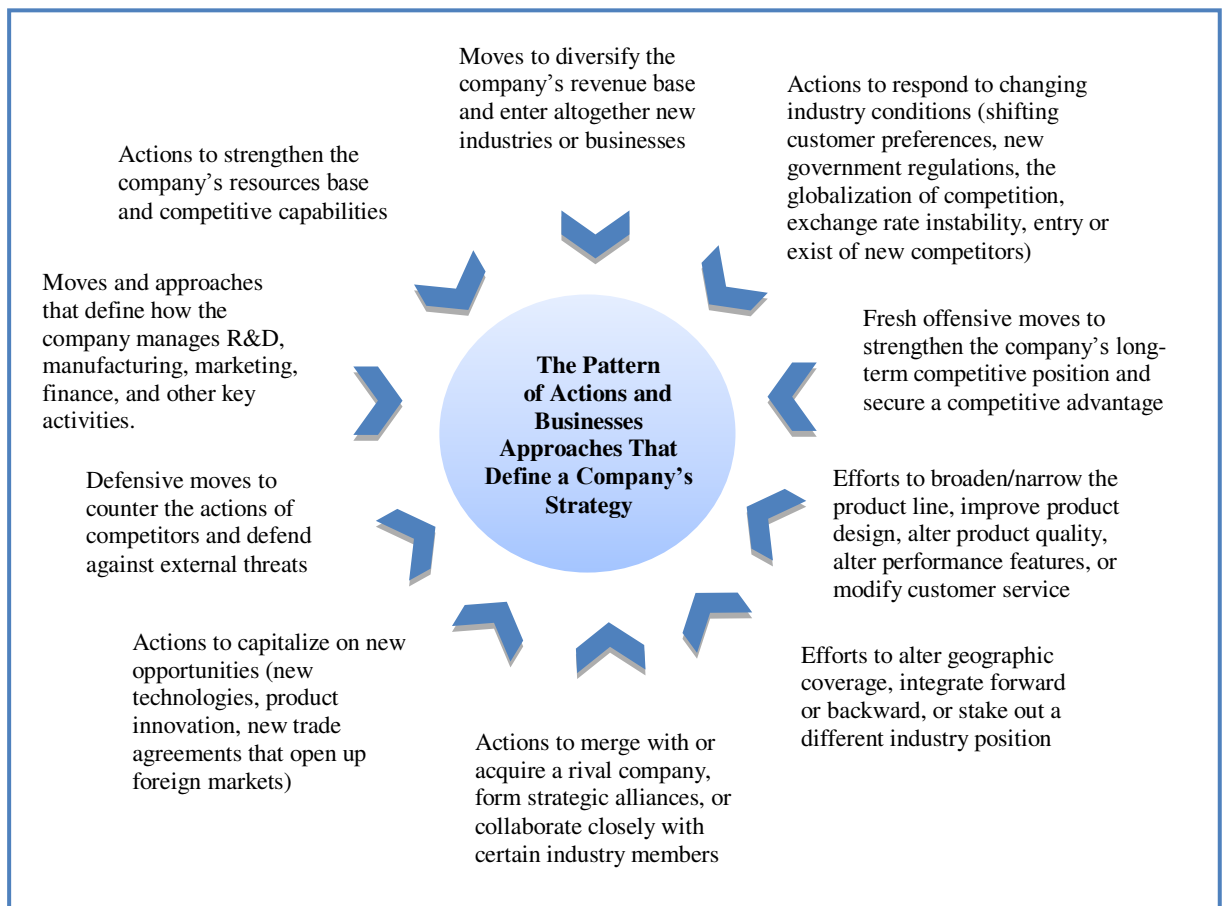
All five competitive forces jointly determine the intensity of industry competition and profitability, and the strongest force or forces are governing and become crucial (Porter, 1980: 6). From this point of view, competitive environment can be necessary to examine vigilantly by managers.

2.1.3.2. Strategy Formulation

Strategy formulation is the process of choosing among the various strategies just discussed, and adapting them to fit the organization's actual circumstances. In

other words, the essence of strategy formulation is to design a strategy that makes the most effective use of core resources and capabilities (Taslak, 2004: 152). Strategic choices are determined. Mission, objectives and targets lead to the selection of strategy. After strategies are specified, policies and how they will be conducted are determined (Şahin, 2012: 32). Strategy formulation includes the planning and decision making that lead to the establishment of the firm's goals and the development of a specific strategic plan (Daft; 2006: 278). Besides, Wheelen and Hunger (2004: 10) defined strategic formulation as “the development of long-range plans for the effective management of environmental opportunities and threats, in light of corporate strengths and weaknesses.”

Figure 17: Understanding a Company's Strategy



Source: Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 11

Figure 17 depicts the various actions and businesses approaches which enable the organizations to designate a strategy. Moves, actions or efforts stated in the figure can be considered as determiners in order to take a strategic step in the process of strategic management.

Strategic planning is one of the management tools that firms have experimented with in recent years (Kalkan and Bozkurt, 2013: 1016). Strategic planning focuses on the direction of the organization and actions necessary to improve its performance. It is the process by which firms derive a strategy to enable them to anticipate and respond to the changing dynamic environment in which they operate (O'Regan and Ghobadian, 2002: 418).

Managers need to develop and evaluate strategic alternatives and then select strategies that support and complement each other and that allow the organization to best capitalize on its strengths and environmental opportunities (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204).

- **Formulating Corporate Strategies:** It is formulated by top management and are designed to achieve the firm's overall objectives (Certo and Peter, 1991: 97).

Corporate strategies can be exemplified as (Porth, 2003: 58; Certo and Peter, 1991: 97; Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 207):

- Concentration strategy
- Grand strategies
 - Stability strategy
 - Growth strategies ((vertical integration, horizontal integration, diversification (related and unrelated diversification), strategic alliances, mergers and joint ventures, expansion strategies (market penetration, market development, product development, and diversification))
 - Retrenchment/Consolidation strategies (turnaround strategy, divestment strategy, liquidation strategy, cost-cutting strategies,)
- Combination strategies
- Portfolio models
 - BCG's growth-share matrix
 - GE's multifactor portfolio matrix

- **Formulating Business Strategies:** It involves decision making at the division level or the business-unit level. A useful approach to formulating business strategies is based on Michael Porter's "competitive analysis." (Certo and Peter, 1991: 97). Michael E. Porter studied a number of business organizations and proposed that business-level strategies are the result of five competitive forces in the company's environment (Daft, 2006: 283). These forces include threat of new entrants, bargaining power of suppliers, bargaining power of buyers, threat of substitute products, and rivalry among existing competitors (Certo and Peter, 1991: 111). In finding its competitive edge within these five forces, A company can adopt one of three strategies (Porter, 1980: 35):

- Differentiation
- Cost leadership
- Focus

An industry's competitive conditions and overall attractiveness are big strategy determining factors. When competitive conditions intensify significantly, a company must respond with strategic actions to protect its position (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 55).

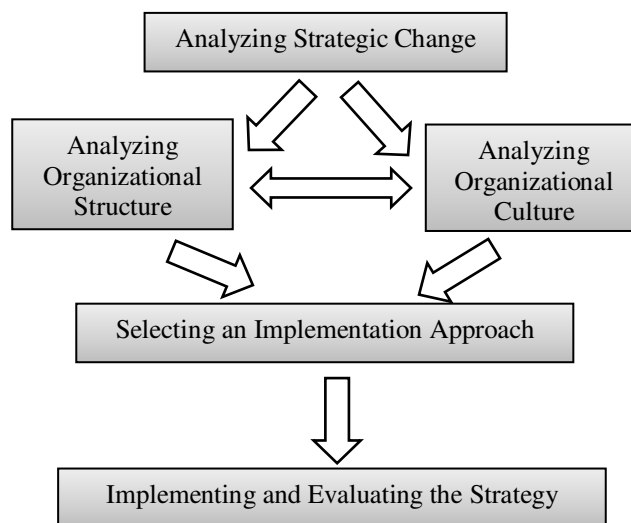
- **Formulating Functional Strategies:** Functional strategies are devised by specialists in each functional area of a business. Collectively, functional strategies spell out the specific tasks that must be performed to implement the business strategy (Certo and Peter, 1991: 115). Strategic decisions are made within the major functions of the organization such as research and development, operations, finance, marketing, human resources, logistics, and production (Porth, 2003: 10).

2.1.3.3. Strategy Implementation

The strategy implementing task is easily the most complicated and time-consuming part of strategic management (Thompson and Stickland III, 1999: 16). Strategies are realized explicitly at this stage. Especially programs, budgets and procedures are formed and assist with strategy implementation (Şahin, 2012: 32).

Strategy implementation is the stage of strategic management that involves the use of managerial and organizational tools to direct resources toward achieving strategic outcomes (Daft; 2006: 278). Strategy implementation is the process by which strategies and policies are put into action through the development of programs, budgets, and procedures. This process might involve changes within the overall culture, structure, and/or management system of the entire organization (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 15).

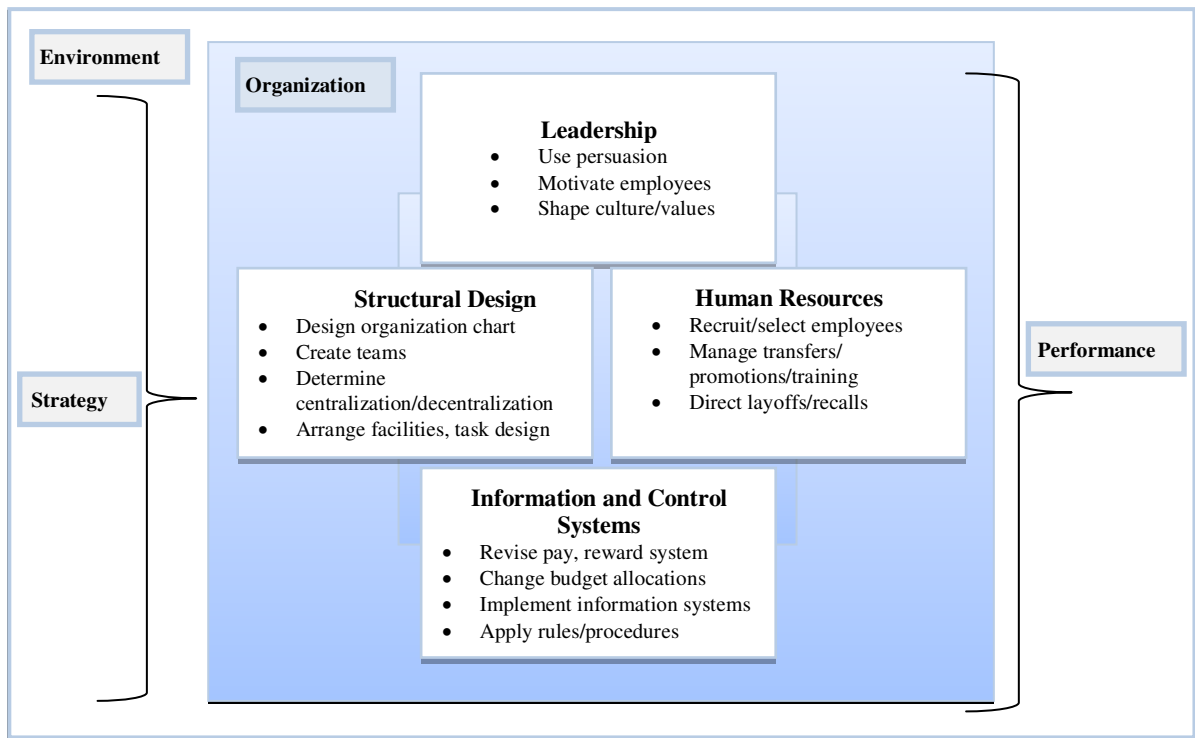
Figure 18: Strategic Implementation Tasks



Source: Certo and Peter, 1991: 132

Figure 18 depicts the gradual stages which organizations are required to apply. In strategy implementation process, it is firstly important to analyze whether or not strategic change is appropriate for the company. It is required to assess organizational structure and culture of the company because implementation should be fulfilled by people in the company. After analyzing the situation of the company for determining a way to implement the strategies, the next step is selecting an implementations approach and performing the requirements.

Figure 19: Tools for Putting Strategy into Action



Source: Daft, 2006: 291

Strategy implementation involves using several tools – parts of the firm that can be adjusted to put strategy into action – as illustrated in **Figure 19**. Once a new strategy is selected, it is implemented through changes in leadership, structure, information and control systems, and human resources (Daft, 2006: 291).

No matter how efficiently an organization has planned its strategies, it can't succeed if the strategies aren't implemented properly (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204). Implementation requires that managers set short-term objectives, reexamine the organization's structure and corporate culture in light of the new strategy, make the right resource decisions in support of the strategy, and manage the human side of the change process (Porth, 2003: 11). Implementing strategy affects an organization from top to bottom; it affects all the functional and divisional areas of a business (David, 2003: 236).

Strategy formulation and implementation can be contrasted in the following ways:

Table 29: Differences between Strategy Formulation and Strategy Implementation

Strategy Formulation	Strategy Implementation
• Strategy formulation is positioning forces before the action. • Strategy formulation focuses on effectiveness. • Strategy formulation is primarily an intellectual process. • Strategy formulation requires good intuitive and analytical skills. • Strategy formulation requires coordination among a few individuals.	• Strategy implementation is managing forces during the action. • Strategy implementation focuses on efficiency. • Strategy implementation is primarily an operational process. • Strategy implementation requires special motivation and leadership skills. • Strategy implementation requires coordination among many individuals.

Source: David, 2003: 236

2.1.3.4. Evaluation and Control of Strategies

The final stage in the strategic management process is evaluation and control. In the broadest sense, control systems can be viewed as having two basic functions: strategic control and management control. Strategic control involves managers addressing the question: Is our strategy still valid? Management control involves addressing the general question: Are our employees likely to behave appropriately (Merchant and Stede, 2003: 6). In this study, strategic control and strategic control question are examined owing to the fact that strategic leadership is related to strategies.

Evaluation and control is the process in which corporate activities and performance results are monitored so that actual performance can be compared with desired performance (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 16). Strategic controls are largely subjective criteria intended to verify that the firm is using appropriate strategies for the conditions in the external environment and the company's competitive advantages (Hitt et al., 2003: 347). It is controlled and evaluated whether strategies came through and whether strategies met performance criteria. In case a deficiency, an inefficiency or a failure is realized, the strategic management process come back to the beginning and the process embarks again (Şahin, 2012: 32). David (2003: 300) states that strategy evaluation is important because organizations face dynamic environments in which key external and internal factors often change quickly and

dramatically. Success today is no guarantee of success tomorrow. Also explained the criteria to execute an effective strategy evaluation(David, 2003: 311):

Strategy evaluation must meet several basic requirements to be effective. First, strategy evaluation activities must be economical; too much information can be just as bad as too little information; and too many controls can do more harm than good. Strategy evaluation activities also should be meaningful; they should specifically relate to a firm's objectives. Strategy evaluation activities should provide timely information; on occasion and in some areas, managers may need information daily. Strategy evaluation should be designed to provide a true picture of what is happening. Controls need to be action-oriented rather than information-oriented. The strategy evaluation process should not dominate decisions; it should foster mutual understanding, trust, and common sense.

Many methods are used in strategic control systems. Some of the control methods are (Byars, 1987: 176):

- Budgets
- Audits
 - Independent Auditors
 - Government Auditors
 - Internal Auditors
 - Management Auditors
- Time-related Control Methods
 - Critical Path Method (CPM)
 - Program Evaluation and Review Technique (PERT)
- Management by Objectives (MBO)
- Strategy Audits
- Management Information Systems (MIS)
- Decision Support System (DSS)

Some key financial ratios that are particularly useful as criteria for strategy evaluation are as follows (David, 2003: 307):

1. Return on investment (ROI)
2. Return on equity (ROE)
3. Profit margin

4. Market share
5. Debt to equity
6. Earnings per share
7. Sales growth
8. Asset growth

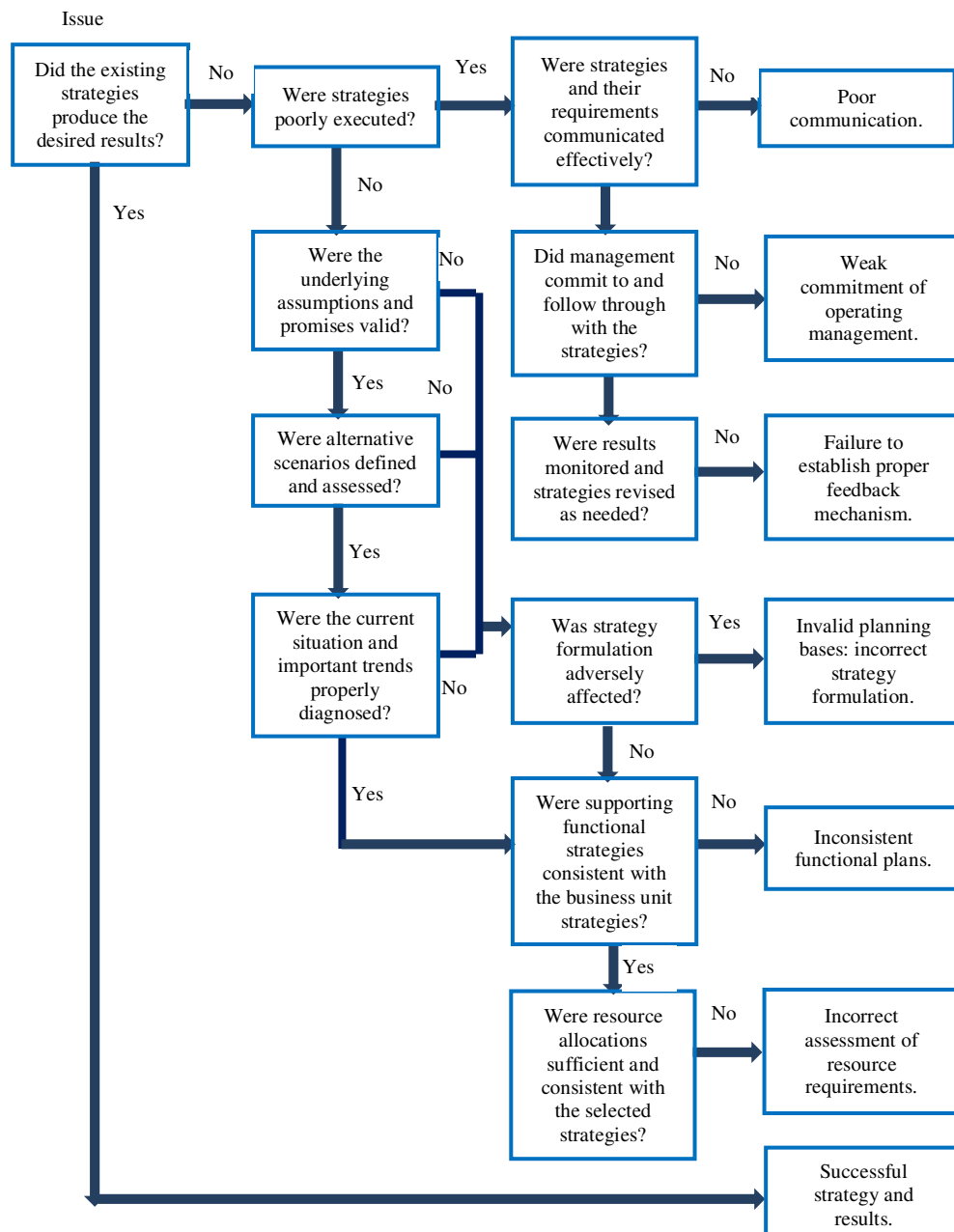
There is no one ideal strategy evaluation system. The unique characteristics of an organization, including its size, management style, purpose, problems, and strengths can determine a strategy evaluation and control system's final design (David, 2003: 312).

There are two approaches to use when evaluating a firm's performance. The first is financial ratio analysis which, generally speaking, identifies how a firm is performing according to its balance sheet and income statement. The second perspective may be considered a broader stakeholder perspective (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 90). A well-known approach for broad range stakeholders, the balanced scorecard, has been popularized by Robert Kaplan and David Norton (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 90). The balanced scorecard was initially described as a performance measurement system containing both financial and non-financial measures (Malmi, 2001; 208). Executives should understand that traditional financial accounting measures like return-on-investment and earnings-per-share can give misleading signals for continuous improvement and innovation (Kaplan and Norton, 1992: 71). The balanced scorecard provides executives with a comprehensive framework that translates a company's vision and strategy into a coherent set of performance measures organized into four different perspectives: financial, customer, internal business process and learning and growth (Lear, 2012: 88). Traditional financial framework for describing shareholder value creation, customer value proposition establishes context for value, internal processes describe how value is created and sustained, role and status of intangible assets – people, systems, alignment - are articulated (Kaplan, 2002).

Strategy evaluation includes three basic activities: (1) examining the underlying bases of a firm's strategy, (2) comparing expected results with actual results, and (3) taking corrective actions to ensure that performance conforms to plans (David, 2003: 300). In practice, managers actually control by following three

general steps: measuring performance, comparing measured performance to standards, and taking corrective action necessary to ensure that planned events actually materialize (Certo and Peter, 1991: 162).

Figure 20:Evaluating an Implemented Strategy



Source: Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 244

Figure 20 provides strategic managers with a series of questions to use in evaluating an implemented strategy. After answering the proposed set of questions, a manager should have a good idea of where the problem originated and what must be done to correct the situation (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 243).

2.2. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

2.2.1. Definitionsof Leadership

Leadership has been contemplated since the days of Greek philosophers, and it is one of the most popular research topics among organizational behavior scholars. This interest in leadership has resulted in an enormous volume of leadership literature (McShane and Glinow, 2003: 416). There is probably no topic more important to business success today than leadership. The concept of leadership continues to evolve as the needs the organizations change (Daft, 2006: 660).

Leadership can be defined as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Raes et al., 2007: 362). Leadership is the process of influencing an organization (or group within an organization) and providing an environment for them to achieve team or organizational objectives (McShane and Glinow, 2003: 416; Johnson et al., 2008: 527). This definition captures the idea that leaders are involved with other people in the achievement of goals (Daft, 2006: 660). Leadership occurs when particular individuals exert influence on the goal achievement of others in an organizational context (Johns and Saks, 2001: 272). Leadership is a “people” activity, distinct from administrative paper shuffling or problem-solving activities. Leadership is dynamic and involves the use of power to get things done (Daft, 2006: 660).

Among all the ideas and writings about leadership, three aspects stand out—people, influence, and goals. Leadership occurs among people, involves the use of influence, and is used to attain goals (Daft, 2006: 660).

Leadership is an imitative, selective, role-taking, empathetic process besides it is how to handle implementation of the strategies and source and target in

leadership is crucial. Leadership is a process, an effectiveness which creates and communicates the team in an organization (Kıyak et al., 2011: 1522). For leadership to be effective, Chemers (2002) suggests that leaders must focus on their credibility and legitimacy with followers, the development of a relationship via identification of followers' needs and motivations, and deploying resources as to draw the best out of followers in order to meet established goals (Pamfilie et al., 2012: 188).

When leadership is practiced correctly, it “ensures awareness of the mission,” fosters a mutual understanding, sets “preconditions for actions,” provides “feedback, reflection, and learning,” “strengthens a sense of community,” “promotes personal growth,” and “ensures continuous transformation and development” (Kutz, 2006: 3).

2.2.1.1. Leadership vs. Management

Leadership and management are two terms that are often confused. John Kotter (1990a and 1990b) of the Harvard Business School argues that management is about coping with complexity. Leadership, in contrast, is about coping with change (Robbins, 2005: 332). Current thinking emphasizes that leadership deals with change, inspiration, motivation, and influence. In contrast, “management deals more with maintaining equilibrium and the status quo (Kutz, 2006: 4). A primary distinction between management and leadership is that management promotes stability, order and problem solving within the existing organizational structure and systems. Leadership promotes vision, creativity, and change. In other words, “a manager takes care of where you are; a leader takes you to a new place.” (Daft, 2006: 661). The primary function of a leader is to establish the fundamental purpose or mission of the organization and the strategy for attaining it. By contrast, the job of a manager is to implement that vision. Essentially, the manager's job is to put into practice a means for achieving the vision created by the leader (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 471-472).

Managers are appointed; they have legitimate power that allows them to reward and punish. Their ability to influence is based on the formal authority inherent in their positions. In contrast, leaders may either be appointed or may emerge from within a group. Leaders can influence others to perform beyond the actions dictated by formal authority (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2004: 309).

Leadership cannot replace management; it should be in addition to management. Good management is needed to help the organization meet current commitments, while good leadership is needed to move the organization into the future (Daft, 2006: 661). This is not to say that managers and leaders (or management and leadership) are irreconcilable, good leaders must also be able to manage (Kutz, 2006: 5). Management and leadership are both important to organizations. Effective managers have to be leaders, too, because there are distinctive qualities – as shown in **Table 30** – associated with management and leadership that provide different strengths for the organization (Daft, 2006: 660). **Table 30** explains the different qualities between leaders and managers.

Table 30: Leader and Manager Qualities

LEADER QUALITIES	MANAGER QUALITIES
➤ Soul	➤ Mind
➤ Visionary	➤ Rational
➤ Passionate	➤ Consulting
➤ Creative	➤ Persistent
➤ Flexible	➤ Problem solving
➤ Inspiring	➤ Thought-minded
➤ Innovative	➤ Analytical
➤ Courageous	➤ Structured
➤ Imaginative	➤ Deliberate
➤ Experimental	➤ Authoritative
➤ Initiates change	➤ Stabilizing
➤ Personal power	➤ Position power

Source: Daft, 2006: 661

In describing the difference between managers and leaders, leaders “envision,” managers “marshal resources” for the vision, “leaders’ project power with people, managers project power over people,” leaders set goals out of desire, while managers set goals out of necessity (Kutz, 2006: 5). Leaders establish direction by developing a vision of the future; then they align people by communicating this vision and inspiring them to overcome hurdles. Management consists of implementing the vision and strategy provided by leaders, coordinating and staffing the organization, and handling day-to-day problems (Robbins, 2005: 332). As can be

seen in the definition, managers engage in the daily work of caretaking, while leaders innovate and formulate strategy for the future (Kutz, 2006: 5). It has been suggested that managers do things right while leaders do the right things (Kutz, 2006: 5).

2.2.1.2. Leadership Styles and Theories

Exactly how a leader goes about these responsibilities is often called the leadership style. There is not one standard, correct style for all leaders in all circumstances at all times. Any group or individual behaves differently. Tasks are different. Each leader has to recognize those differences and adapt according to the situation (Suresh, 2012: 156). There are different approaches to leadership styles related to leadership theories.

In order to explore the influence of effective leadership in relation to the strategic planning process, four generations of leadership theories – as indicated in **Table 31** – trait, behavioral, contingency/situational, and transformational theory are utilized (Williams, 2009: 51).

Trait Theories: The trait theories of leadership focus on personal characteristics of the leader (Robbins, 2005: 333). Traits are the distinguishing personal characteristics of a leader, such as intelligence, values, self-confidence, and appearance. (Daft: 2006: 661). Six traits have been found in which leaders differ from nonleaders (Robbins and DeCenzo, 2004: 333):

- drive (exerting high energy levels);
- the desire to lead (wanting to influence others and willingness to take responsibility);
- honesty and integrity (being truthful and nondeceitful; and being consistent in one's actions);
- self-confidence (an absence of self-doubt);
- intelligence (ability to gather, synthesize, and interpret large amounts of information); and
- job-relevant knowledge (knowledge about the company and the industry to assist in making well-informed decisions)

Table 31: Four Generations of Leadership Theory

Four Generations of Leadership Theory			
Theory	Prominent Contributors	Basic Characteristics	Time Period
Trait	Tead (1935), Stogdill (1948, 1974)	Traits or qualities of leadership are inherent to the leader. Strong belief that leaders are born with certain traits that make them different from followers. Primarily concerned with identifying the attributes and characteristics of the leader.	1920s-1940s
Behavioral	Stogdill (1947), Likert (1961), Blake & Mouton (1964)	Concentrate on the behavior of the leader rather than on their traits or qualities. Believes that leaders can make them effective. Different patterns of behavior are observed and categorized as leadership behaviors.	1950s-1960s
Contingency/ Situational	Fiedler (1964, 1967), Hersey & Blanchard (1969, 1977)	There is no universal way to lead. Views leadership as specific to the situation in which it is being exercised. Focuses on identifying the situational variables which best predict the most effective leadership style to fit the particular situation or circumstances at hand	1960s-1970s
Transformational	Burns (1978), Bass (1985, 1990), Bass & Avolio (1990, 1994)	The central concept here is change and the role of leadership in envisioning and implementing the transformation of organizational performance	1970s-1990s

Source: Williams, 2009: 54

Behavioral Approaches: Theories proposing that specific behaviors differentiate leaders from non-leaders (Robbins, 2005: 333).

- Ohio State Studies: These researchers sought to identify independent dimensions of leader behavior. Beginning with over a thousand dimensions, they eventually narrowed the list to two categories that substantially accounted for most of the leadership behavior described by employees. They called these two dimensions initiating structure and consideration (Robbins, 2005: 335). Consideration is the extent to which a leader is approachable and shows personal concern for subordinates. Initiating structure is the degree to which a leader concentrates on group goal attainment (Johns and Saks, 2001: 276).
- Michigan Studies: The Michigan group came up with two dimensions of leadership behavior that they labeled employee-oriented and product-oriented. Leaders who were employee-oriented were described as emphasizing interpersonal relations. The production-oriented leaders, in contrast, tended to emphasize the technical or task aspects of the job (Robbins, 2005: 336).
- The Leadership Grid/ The managerial grid: Blake and Mouton (1985) of the University of Texas proposed a two-dimensional leadership theory called the leadership grid that builds on the work of the Ohio State and Michigan studies (Daft, 2006: 664). They (1985) proposed a managerial grid (sometimes called the leadership grid) based on the styles of “concern for people” and “concern for production”, which essentially represent the Ohio State dimensions of consideration and initiating structure or the Michigan dimensions of employee-oriented and production-oriented (Robbins, 2005: 336).

Contingency Approaches: A model of leadership that describes the relationship between leadership styles and specific organizational situations (Daft, 2006: 666). The contingency model of leadership, according to Bass (cited by Guzman, 2007: 45), has been the most widely researched leadership model.

- Fiedler’s (1967) Contingency Theory: The theory that effective groups depend on a proper match between a leader’s style of interacting with subordinates and the degree to which the situation gives control to the leader (Robbins,

2005: 339). Fred Fiedler's (1967) theory, also called contingency theory, states that the association between leadership orientation and group effectiveness is contingent on how favorable the situation is for exerting influence (Johns and Saks, 2001: 277).

- Hersey and Blanchard's (1974 and 2001) Situational Theory: This model was called situational leadership theory (SLT)(Robbins, 2005: 342). Situational theory is a contingency theory approach to leadership that links the leader's behavioral style with the task readiness of subordinates (Daft, 2006: 666).
- Path-Goal Theory: The path-goal theory of leader effectiveness proposed by House (1971) in 1971 has its origins in the expectancy theory of motivation. This theory, according to Bass, suggests that the leader coaches, guides, and rewards subordinates for satisfaction, effective performance, and goal attainment (Guzman, 2007: 48). According to path-goal theory, the leader's responsibility is to increase subordinates' motivation to attain personal and organizational goals (Daft, 2006: 672). Path-goal theory is Robert House's (1971) theory concerned with the situations under which various leader behaviors (directive, supportive, participative, achievement-oriented) are most effective (Johns and Saks, 2001: 279).
- Leader-Member Exchange Theory: The leader-member exchange (LMX) theory argues that because of time pressure, leaders establish a special relationship with a small group of their followers (Robbins, 2005: 344).

Inspirational Approaches /Leading Change (Daft, 2006: 676):

- Transactional Leadership: These kinds of leaders guide or motivate their followers in the direction of established goals by clarifying role and task requirements (Robbins, 2005: 367). Transactional leadership relies on contingent rewards—mutually agreeable commitments of reward or recognition for performance—and management by exception. The main element of motivation in this theory is self-interest (Crossan et al., 2008: 574). According to Bass (2000: 22), transactional leaders cater to the self-interests of their constituencies by means of contingent reinforcement, positive in the case of constructive rewards, praise and promises for

constituents' success in meeting commitments to the leader and/or the organization.

- Charismatic Leadership: According to charismatic leadership theory, followers make attributions of heroic or extraordinary leadership abilities when they observe certain behaviors (Robbins, 2005: 363). Charismatic leader is a leader who has the ability to motivate subordinates to transcend their expected performance (Daft, 2006: 676).
- Transformational Leadership: Transformational leadership is a process in which leaders and followers engage in a relationship that transforms them as individuals and as members of an organization (Guzman, 2007: 51). Transformational leader is a leader distinguished by a special ability to bring about innovation and change (Daft, 2006: 678). Transformational leadership theory has tended to emphasize the study of upper-level leaders; these behaviors have proven especially helpful in leading others in dynamic environments (Crossan et al., 2008: 574). They pay attention to the concerns and developmental needs of individual followers; they change followers' awareness of issues by helping them to look at old problems in new ways; and they are able to excite, arouse, and inspire followers to put out extra effort to achieve group goals (Robbins, 2005: 367).
- Visionary Leadership: Visionary leaders have the ability to clearly communicate the organizational vision. These leaders have personal characteristics that create follower self-confidence and trust. They empower their followers by creating an organizational culture that is caring and yet drives high performance (Riesemey, 2008: 62). Visionary leaders speak to the hearths of employees, letting them be part of something bigger than themselves (Daft, 2006: 676).

Post-Heroic Leadership for Turbulent Times: A significant influence on leadership styles in recent times is the turbulence and uncertainty of the environment in which most organizations are operating. Of particular interest for leadership during these turbulent times is a post-heroic approach (Daft, 2006: 682).

- Servant Leadership: Servant leaders often work in the non-profit world because it offers a natural way to apply their leadership drive and skills to serve others. A leader who works to fulfill subordinates' needs and goals as well as to achieve the organization's larger mission (Daft, 2006: 682).
- Level 5 Leadership: They have been called level 5 leaders because they have four basic leadership qualities – individual capability, team skills, managerial competence, and the ability to stimulate others to high performance – plus a fifth dimension: a paradoxical blend of personal humility and professional will. Level 5 leaders channel their ego needs away from themselves and into the goal of building a great company (Robbins, 2005: 367).
- E-Leadership/Online Leadership: Leading virtually involves leading people from different departments, organizations, countries, and sometimes even competitor companies (Avolio et al., 2009: 439). People who excel at e-leadership tend to be open-minded and flexible, exhibit positive attitudes that focus on solutions rather than problems, and have superb communication, coaching, and relationship-building skills (Daft, 2006: 684). Online leaders have to think carefully about what actions they want their digital messages to initiate (Robbins, 2005: 375).
- Ethical/Moral Leadership: Moral leadership is about distinguishing right from wrong and choosing to do right in the practice of leadership (Daft, 2006: 685). Ethical leaders are considered to use their charisma in a socially constructive way to serve others. Because top executives set the moral tone for an organization, they need to set high ethical standards, demonstrate those standards through their own behavior, and encourage and reward integrity in others (Robbins, 2005: 373).

2.2.1.3. Characteristics of Leaders

A lot of situational traits like depression and competition, quality of the environment, nature of the leader, size of the organization affect the leadership model. Top manager can choose one of them most proper for the organization or use

different models for different strategic business units (Dinçer, 2003: 341). Personal characteristics of leaders are depicted in **Table 32**.

Table 32: Personal Characteristics of Leaders

PERSONAL CHARACTERISTICS OF LEADERS		
Physical Characteristics • Energy • Physical stamina	Personality • Self-confidence • Honesty and integrity • Enthusiasm • Desire to lead • Independence	Work-Related Characteristics • Achievement drive, desire to excel • Conscientiousness in pursuit of goals • Persistence against obstacles, tenacity
Intelligence and Ability • Intelligence, cognitive ability • Knowledge • Judgment, decisiveness	Social Characteristics • Sociability, interpersonal skills • Cooperativeness • Ability to enlist cooperation • Tact, diplomacy	Social Background • Education • Mobility

Source: Daft, 2006: 662

Scientists have acknowledged that leaders have to “be smart” in a variety of different ways. In other words, they have to demonstrate what is known as multiple domains of intelligence. Specifically, leaders have to be intelligent in three special ways (Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 474):

- *Cognitive intelligence*. Leaders must be capable of integrating and interpreting large amounts of information.
- *Emotional intelligence*. Effective leaders are keenly aware of people’s emotional states and demonstrate the ability to connect with others.
- *Cultural intelligence*. Cultural intelligence is a person’s sensitivity to the fact that leaders operate differently in different culture.

According to Clawson (2003: 271), there are four types of intelligent that a leader may have. These are intellectual intelligence (IQ) involving inherited abilities, curiosity, discipline, range of interests; emotional intelligence (EQ) involving recognizing emotions, managing emotions, suing proactive self-talk, avoiding emotional hijackings; social intelligence (SQ) involving recognizing emotions in

others, caring about the emotionality of others, counseling others in managing their emotions; and change intelligence (CQ) containing recognizing the need to change, understanding the change process, skill in managing the change process.

Maak & Pless (2006; cited by Crossan et al., 2008: 578) suggested that today's leaders act in a global, complex, uncertain and interconnected business environment. Among the challenges in this context is the need to reduce complexity and uncertainty for people and provide a desirable picture of the future, which is shared by the people they lead.

Effective leaders help groups of people define their goals and find ways to achieve them. They use power and persuasion to ensure that followers have the motivation and role clarity to achieve specified goals (McShane and Glinow, 2003: 416). Leaders need to have a sense of purpose and guiding vision. Moreover, they have to lead in a business environment, which undergoes a general crisis of legitimacy and trust (Crossan et al., 2008: 578). Leaders also arrange the work environment – such as allocating resources and altering communication patterns – so that employees can achieve corporate objectives more easily (McShane and Glinow, 2003: 416). Commercial viability and long-term business success depend on the ability of a firm and their leadership to act responsibly with respect to all stakeholders in business, society and the environment (Crossan et al., 2008: 578).

Table 33 also gives information about traits and characteristics of successful leaders with their explanations.

Table 33: Characteristics of Successful Leaders

TRAIT CHARACTERISTIC	OR DESCRIPTION
Drive	Desire for achievement, ambition, high energy, tenacity, and initiative.
Honesty and integrity	Trustworthy, reliable, and open.
Leadership motivation	Desire to influence others to reach shared goals.
Self-confidence	Trust in own abilities.
Cognitive ability	Intelligence; ability to integrate and interpret large amounts of information.
Knowledge of the business	Knowledge of industry and relevant technical matters.
Creativity	Capacity to come up with original ideas.
Flexibility	Ability to adapt to needs of followers and the situation.
Consistency	Ability to build confidence in the people.
Observation	To observe team members and their behaviors in a positive light.
Problem solving	Desire to make right decisions and solve problems, especially in critical situations.
Training friendly	To believe in the necessity of training and provide resources for training.
Humor	Ability to build happiness without non-logical stress.
Communication	Desire to have face-to-face interactions.
Responsibility	Capacity to be responsible for completing objectives.

Source: Greenberg and Baron, 2003: 473; and Slattery, 2013: 3

2.2.2. Definitions of Strategic Leadership

The study of leadership reappears in new forms. A crucial new form, consistent with societal demands of the 1980s and 1990s is “strategic leadership” (Philips and Hunt, 1992: 3). Early work in strategic leadership research was crystallized by Hambrick and Mason (1984). In recent times, there has been considerable interest in understanding effectiveness of strategic leadership, with respect to firm performance, managing organizational change, and sustaining new forms of organization structures (Wanasika, 2009: 13).

It is essential to present some definitions of strategic leadership from different references so that core traits of strategic leadership can be more understandable.

Strategic leadership sets the directions, meaning, purposes, and goals of the organization (Bass, 2007: 33). According to Ireland and Hitt (1999; cited by Bass,

2007: 36), strategic leadership requires creating meaning and purpose for the organization with a powerful vision and mission that creates a future for the organization. Hosmer (cited by Shrivastava and Nachman, 1989: 51) indicated that the creation of an overall sense of purpose and direction guide integrated strategy formulation and implementation in organizations. As can be referred from the definitions, setting directions, purposes, and meaning is one of the most important traits.

According to Hitt et al. (2003: 386), strategic leadership is “the ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, and empower others to create strategic change as necessary.” Strategic leadership is the influence process that facilitates the performance of the top management team to achieve objectives (Clegg et al., 2011: 223). Apart from Hitt et al. (2003: 386) and Clegg et al. (2011, 223), Wanasika, (2006: 11) also gave importance to the ability of “influence” of strategic leadership. Rowe (cited by Wanasika, 2006: 11) defines strategic leadership as the ability to influence others to voluntarily make day-to-day decisions that enhance long-term viability of the organization, while maintaining its short-term financial stability. In addition to “influence”, it can be seen in the definition that being long-term is as important as short-term decisions in the strategic leadership.

In addition to setting directions, purposes, and meaning; and ability of influence, maintaining and sustaining competitive advantage are also other vital traits of strategic leadership according to the definitions. According to Hitt & Ireland (2002: 4) strategic leadership sets the path for firms to gain and maintain sustainable competitive advantage. Individuals and teams enact strategic leadership when they think, act, and influence in ways that promote the sustainable competitive advantage of the organization (Hughes and Beatty, 2005: 9).

Another important point is that strategic leadership provides these fundamental characteristics in an uncertain environment. Aslan et al. (2011: 628) focused on this point as defining strategic leadership as “the wisdom and vision capabilities of planning and implementing of the plan in an unstable, complex, uncertain strategic environment that an experienced leader should have.” Strategic Leader envisages, designs the change and realizes the change by ensuring flexibility under the circumstances where the strategic changes are required. The most

distinguishing aspect of his/her is its ability to manage the uncertainty imposed by the rapid change (Tutar, et al., 2011: 1382). It can be deduced from definitions that strategic leadership is multifunctional, involves managing through others, and helps organizations cope with change that seems to be increasing exponentially in today's globalized business environment (Jooste and Fourie, 2009: 52).

In terms of business management, the strategic leadership could be defined as the ability to make a strategic choice. Strategic choices in the business is to access to a further number of customers and thus to gain high profit. In this sense, strategic leadership designates to provide a competitive advantage in the long term and to maintain this advantage as a target (Tutar, et al., 2011: 1381). When strategic leadership processes are difficult for competitors to understand and, hence, to imitate, the firm has created a competitive advantage (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 63). Strategic leadership is defined by the basic objectives like returning profit, gaining advantage against the competitors and being long-termed (Tutar, et al., 2011: 1381). Because the creation of sustainable competitive advantage is the universal objective of all companies, being able to exercise strategic leadership in a competitively superior manner facilitates the firm's efforts to earn superior returns on its investments. (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 63).

Boal and Schultz (2007: 412) explained strategic leadership in a broader aspect:

- Strategic leadership is a series of decisions and activities, both process-oriented and substantive in nature, through which, over time, the past, the present, and the future of the organization coalesce.
- Strategic leadership forges a bridge between the past, the present, and the future, by reaffirming core values and identity to ensure continuity and integrity as the organization struggles with known and unknown realities and possibilities.
- Strategic leadership develops, focuses, and enables an organization's structural, human, and social capital and capabilities to meet real-time opportunities and threats.

- Finally, strategic leadership makes sense of and gives meaning to environmental turbulence and ambiguity, and provides a vision and road map that allows an organization to evolve and innovate

Strategic leadership requires the skills of an orchestra conductor, not of a soloist, no matter how talented (Myers and Pierce: 2009: 13). A design for strategic leadership is an integrated group of practices that build a company's capacity for change (Wheeler et al., 2007). Strategic leadership is also an invariably learning process. (Ünal, 2012: 141).

It can be deduced from these definitions that creating directions, purposes, and meaning; having an considerable influence on others in order to create and maintain competitive advantage in a compelling global environment in terms of gaining high profit; being long-term and future-oriented; and executing organizational change properly are core features of strategic leadership.

In general, leadership styles can be described as managerial, visionary or strategic (Riaz and Rowe, 2008: 1). Managerial leadership necessitates to maintain existing stability and order (Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 122). In contrast, visionary leaders are proactive; they shape ideas, and they change the way people think about what is desirable, possible, and necessary (Riaz and Rowe, 2008: 1). According to Riaz and Rowe (2008: 2), strategic leaders are a synergistic combination of managerial and visionary leadership. They oversee both operating (day-to-day) and strategic (long term) responsibilities, apply both linear and non-linear thinking, and emphasize ethical behavior and value-based decisions. House & Aditya (1997) (cited by Crossan et al., 2008: 575) describe the main tasks of strategic leadership as follows: Strategic leadership includes:

- Making strategic decisions concerning the products and services of organizations and markets;
- Selection of key executives; and allocation of resources to major organizational components;
- Formulation of organizational goals and strategy;
- Providing direction for the organization with respect to the organization's domain;

- Conceptualizing and installing organizational designs and major infrastructures, such as compensation, information, and control systems;
- Representing the organization to critical constituencies such as representatives of financial institutions, government agencies, customer interest groups, and labor; and negotiating with such constituencies for legitimacy and resources.

2.2.3. Differences between Leadership and Strategic Leadership

A central issue in strategic management is why some firms perform better than others. Ireland and Hitt (1999) (cited by Hitt and Ireland, 2002: 4) argued that one answer to this question is the extent to which strategic leadership is exercised in the firm. According to them, strategic leadership is “a person’s ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organization”. Leaders at all levels of the organization should develop this ability, indicating the fact that strategic leadership can be exercised by first-, middle- and top-level managers (Hitt and Ireland, 2002: 4). In addition, Hambrick and Pettigrew (2001) (cited by Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 128) indicate two differences between leadership and strategic leadership. First difference is that while strategic leadership is related people at the organization’s top management level, leadership is about leaders at every level of the organization as stated by Hitt and Ireland (2002: 4). Secondly, whereas leadership basically focuses on leader and followers, strategic leadership does not focus on only these relational activities, but also focuses on strategic activities at the macro level. It is clear from the conceptualization of strategic leaders that they play a more active role in developing ideas and vision, while more traditional management roles work toward implementing them in the structures and processes of the organization (Boal and Schultz, 2007: 412). Boal and Hooijberg (2000: 516) differentiate “supervisory” leadership from “strategic” leadership by arguing that the first is about leadership “in” organizations, while the second is about leadership “of” organizations. Supervisory theories of leadership (e.g., path goal, contingency, LMX) focus on task and person-oriented behaviors of leaders as they attempt to provide guidance,

support, and feedback to subordinates, while strategic leadership focuses on the creation of meaning and purpose for the organization (Boal and Schultz, 2007: 412).

Raes et al. (2007: 362) also explained differences between leadership and strategic leadership. According to them, whereas leadership can be defined as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives”, the concept of strategic leadership, more specifically, is used to designate leadership at the top of organizations and has been described as a strategic and relational activity between leaders and their immediate followers.

Irrespective of what style of leadership, the various styles can support one another to achieve the aims of the company. Strategic leadership can only be affected when the leader is strategic in their access to the issues of the organization (Dimitrios et al., 2013b: 277).

Hughes and Beatty (2005: 11) emphasized that strategic leadership is different from leadership concept in terms of some characteristics. These characteristics are (Hughes and Beatty, 2005: 11):

- Strategic leadership is broad in scope.
- The impact of strategic leadership is felt over long periods of time.
- Strategic leadership often involves significant organizational change.

2.3. PROGRESS OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP CONCEPT

The concept of strategic leadership was stumbled upon firstly by Hambrick and Mason (1984) at a study related to top management of organizations in 1984 (Ünal, 2012: 140). The main theory behind strategic leadership is ‘Upper Echelon Theory’ developed by Hambrick and Mason. According to the theory, demographic characteristics of senior executives such as age, education and experience affects the type and amount of information they use therefore it affects the strategic decisions and financial performance (Kıyak et al., 2011: 1522).

In the 1960s and early 1970s, situations facing the firm were thought to be the primary determinant of managerial behaviors and organizational outcomes. Compared with the influence of conditions in the firm’s external environment,

managers were believed to have little ability to make decisions that would affect the firm's performance (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 65). However, since 1960s the concept of the "strategic leadership" began to be used for every type of organization. Strategic leadership appeared with the use of the concept of strategy in private or public businesses (Tutar, et al., 2011: 1381).

In the 1970s and 1980s several studies on the importance of top management have formed a strategic leadership (Aslan et al., 2011: 628). Since the mid-1980s, a growing body of leadership research has focused on strategic leadership, in contrast to managerial and supervisory leadership (Lear, 2012: 52). The study of strategic leadership has continued to draw interest in the past two decades (Wanasika, 2009: 9). It is only in the last 20 years that researchers have started to move away from the study of "supervisory" leadership towards the study of "strategic" leadership (Crossan et al., 2008: 569). Since the 1980s, leadership and strategic management researchers alike have been increasingly interested in phenomena pertaining to leaders at strategic levels. In short, increasing research has been conducted under the umbrella of strategic leadership based on the upper echelons theory (Wang et al., 2012: 572).

In the 21st century, the nature of the organization in which effective strategic leadership practices occur will be different. More properly thought of as citizens than as employees, people involved with an organizational community remain together to pursue a common purpose (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 65). **Table 34** shows these discrepancies between the 20th century and the 21st century.

Table 34: Strategic Leadership Practices

20th Century Practices	21st Century Practices
*Outcome focused	*Outcome and process focused
*Stoic and confident	*Confident, but without hubris
*Sought to acquire knowledge	*Seeks to acquire and leverage knowledge
*Guided people's creativity	*Seeks to release and nurture people's creativity
*Work flows determined by hierarchy	*Work flows influenced by relationships
*Articulated the importance of integrity	*Demonstrates the importance of integrity by actions
*Demanded respect	*Willing to earn respect
*Tolerated diversity	*Seeks diversity
*Reacted to environmental change	*Acts to anticipate environmental change
*Served as the great leader	*Serves as the leader and as a great group member
*Views employees as a resource	*Views organizational citizens as a critical resource
*Operated primarily through a domestic mindset	*Operates primarily through a global mindset
*Invested in employees' development	*Invests significantly in citizens' continuous development

Source: Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 74

2.4. THE IMPORTANCE OF STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

It can be said that strategic leadership is vital because it has noticeable characteristics in order to provide organizations a great many advantages and opportunities over competitors in a global and competitive environment. These advantages and opportunities can be summarized as:

- (1) enabling strategic and long-term success,
- (2) providing and maintaining sustainable competitive advantage,
- (3) providing satisfactory organizational performance,
- (4) helping organizations compete in an uncertain environment,
- (5) enhancing effectiveness and efficiency of organizations,
- (6) influence on organizations' profitability.

According to Hitt et al. (2003: 387) because strategic leadership is a requirement of strategic success, and because organizations may be poorly led and over managed, firms competing in the 21st-century competitive landscape are

challenged to develop effective strategic leaders. Like Hitt et al. indicated, Tutar et al. (2011: 1381) suggested that strategic leadership ability becomes a necessity under dynamic and unsteady environmental circumstances.

Strategic leaders can provide an organization with a sustainable competitive advantage by helping their organization compete in turbulent and unpredictable environments and by exploiting growth opportunities (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Baik (2004) (cited by Kiyak et al., 2011: 1522) mentioned that company's strategic leadership plays a critical role in developing a company's capabilities for expanding its competitive advantage and performance. Davids (1995) (cited by Mahsud, 2006: 4) asserts that without effective strategic leadership, the probability that a firm can achieve superior or even satisfactory performance while confronting global competition will be greatly reduced. Without effective strategic leadership, a company's ability to achieve or sustain a competitive advantage is greatly constrained (Lear, 2012: 47). As it can be seen in the statement of Davids (1995), effective strategic leadership practices can help firms enhance performance while competing in turbulent and unpredictable environments (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 63). Strategic leadership practices can help firms enhance their effectiveness and efficiency and, thus, their abilities to compete in dynamic and uncertain environments (Wang et al., 2012: 571). Klimoski and Koles (2001) (cited by Guzman, 2007: 42) cited past research that revealed that top, strategic leadership influenced between "20 and 40 percent of the variance in organizational effectiveness." The firm's strategic leadership practices can become a source of competitive advantage. In turn, use of this advantage can contribute significantly to achieving strategic competitiveness and earning above-average returns in the next century. (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 63). It has been demonstrated in many studies that what the top leadership did had a strong influence on the corporations' profitability (Bass, 2004: 37).

2.5. STRATEGIC LEADERS

Strategic leadership is defined as a person's ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that

will create a viable future for the organization (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 63). Strategic leaders play a central role in the organization's capacity to learn from its past, adapt to its present, and create its future (Boal and Schultz, 2007: 411). These leaders tend to pay particular attention to building their organization's resources, capabilities and competencies in order to gain an appropriate, sustained competitive advantage (Lear, 2012: 53).

2.5.1. Characteristics of Strategic Leaders

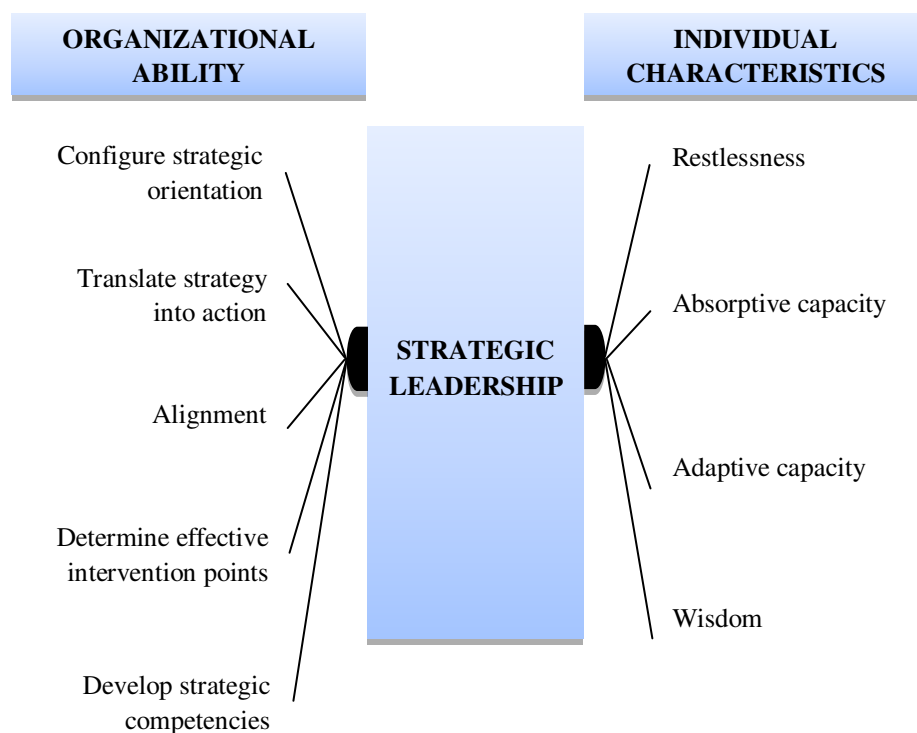
Strategic leadership refers to a leader's "ability to anticipate, envision, maintain flexibility, think strategically, and work with others to initiate changes that will create a viable future for the organization (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Strategic leaders force themselves to look beyond the present and into an uncertain future (Quong and Walker, 2010: 23). According to Hosmer (cited by Blair and Rivera, 1992: 84), strategic leaders create an overall sense of purpose that guides an organization's strategy. Personality, values, and beliefs shape the way leaders perceive, interpret and use information to decide what business to compete in, what goods or services to offer, how to allocate resources and what policies to implement (Lear, 2012: 58).

Some of the most significant elements a strategic leader must have are presented below (Dimitrios et al., 2013a: 270):

- *Think strategically*: Strategic leadership is about leading, guiding and influencing your group members to think strategically about their own competencies.
- *Ability to look at the big vision*: Strategic leadership requires the ability to predict and understand the work environment. It requires detachment and ability to look at the broader vision. They have a generic point of view and a good working ability about many issues that are of organizational importance.
- *Change Adaptability*: Adapting strategy to changing business requirements is the aim if a leader wants to remain essential to business. The procedure of estimating your available leadership knowledge and gauging your team to lead the change to enable business meet its objectives is change adaptability.

- *Dedication*: Powerful and effective leaders exhibit their dedication to the overall vision of the company and align their departmental vision to overall vision.
- *Motivation*: Strategic leaders must have a desire for work that goes beyond power and money and also they lay out in their members to motivate them to achieve objectives with power and decisiveness.

Figure 21: A Model of Strategic Leadership



Source: Davies and Davies, 2004: 36

According to **Figure 21**, strategic leaders have the organizational ability to configure strategic orientation; translate strategy into action; align people and organizations; determine effective strategic intervention points; and develop strategic competencies. In addition to organizational abilities of strategic leaders, they have also individual strategic characteristics which are restlessness; absorptive capacity; adaptive capacity; and wisdom.

Dubrin (cited by Aslan et al., 2011: 629) has identified the strategic leader must have a number of features. These qualities can be summarized as follows:

- a) High level of cognitive activity: A Conceptual Thinking ability,
- b) In formulating the strategy to provide information from different sources: The different sources of information make easy to reach formulating real strategy,
- c) Creating a future: it can predict the future leaders to make routing,
- d) The Transformational Thinking: Product, market, industry leader in the field is a revolutionary way to monitor and motivate employees,
- e) The re-designing a product or service: Adding value to your product or service, as a re-designing,
- f) Re-determine the Market: Global market focus and make it accessible to many people as possible,
- g) To determine the borders of the industry: The leader is the organization of local, regional and global perspective is the ability to reidentify,
- h) Creating a vision: The vision of the leader is also considering a long-term strategy of the followers.

Figure 22 shows also another approach to characteristics of effective strategic leadership in a broad sense.

Figure 22: Effective Strategic Leadership Characteristics



Source: Günlü and Okumuş 2012: 241

2.5.2. Strategic Leaders as Top Managers

Strategy development may be strongly associated with a strategic leader, an individual (or perhaps a small group of individuals) upon whom strategy is seen to be dependent (Johnson et al., 2008: 401). The study of strategic leadership focuses on the people who have overall responsibility for an organization—their characteristics, what they do, and how they do it (Phillips and Hunt, 1992: 4). The concept of strategic leaders who are responsible for designing and implementing the strategic management process can be used recently instead of strategists (Bakoğlu, 2010: 29). They are generally top managers and specialists and named mostly as strategists (Dinçer, 2003: 339).

First, most of the literature on strategy is focused on optimal actions rather than actors, or on disembodied behavior of organizations rather than people. Where individuals are considered, these typically are the individual executives (e.g.,

CEO(Chief Executive Officer) or divisional general managers), governance bodies (e.g., board of directors) or top management teams (Miller and Sardais, 2011: 179; and Phillips and Hunt, 1992: 4). The primary responsibility for effective strategic leadership rests at the top, in particular, with the CEO. Other commonly recognized strategic leaders include members of the board of directors, the top management team, and divisional general managers (Hitt et al., 2003: 387).

There is a general consensus that strategic leadership happens at upper echelons of the organization. However, due to different types of organization hierarchies and power structures, it is not always clear where the power to influence firm strategy is nested (Wanasika, 2009: 10). According to Hitt and Ireland (2002: 4), leaders at all levels of the organization should develop this ability, indicating the fact that strategic leadership can be exercised by first-, middle-, and top-level managers.

2.5.2.1. Board of Directors

The business which exists in corporate form has a board of directors, elected by stockholders and given ultimate authority and responsibility. The board guides the affairs of the corporation and protects stockholder interests (Certo and Peter, 1991: 9). Board of directors is an important governance mechanism for monitoring a firm's strategic direction and for representing stakeholders' interests, especially those of shareholders (Hitt et al., 2003: 390).

Most authorities on corporate governance argue that the greater board involvement in the strategic management process should be used as a means to improve the quality of strategic decision making, enabling them to better discharge their responsibility to represent stockholder interests (Certo and Peter, 1991: 9). The Board controls the CEO who will try to maximize his or her own utilities at the expense of the shareholders (Bass, 2004: 34). The strategic role of the board of directors is twofold (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 23):

1. To continuously audit the validity of a company's long-term direction and strategy, typically giving top executives free rein but always monitoring,

offering constructive critiques, and standing ready to intervene if circumstances require

2. To evaluate the strategic leadership skills of the CEO and other insiders in line to succeed the incumbent CEO, proactively making personnel changes whenever the organization's performance is deemed not to be as good as it should be.

It can be concluded that the involvement of the member of the Board of Directors as a strategic leader in the strategic management of organizations seems advisable (Certo and Peter, 1991: 9).

2.5.2.2. The Highest Level Executives

Highest level executives as a strategic leader must help the organization to create mission and vision in the organization (Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 129). Providing strategic leadership is a critical role for the CEO and many other senior executives (Lear, 2012: 49). The strategic management process of today tends to be dominated by the CEO, the executive who is responsible for and held accountable for the performance of the organization as a whole (Certo and Peter, 1991: 7). An organization's chief executive officer (CEO), as captain of the ship, is the most visible and important strategic manager (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 18) with the preeminent responsibility for positioning the organization for the future (Swayne et al., 2006: 29). The chief executive officer (CEO) is often seen as the 'chief strategist', ultimately responsible for all strategic decisions. CEOs of large companies typically spend about one-third of their time on strategy (Johnson et al., 2008: 559).

Chief executive officers sit atop huge knowledge creation and distribution systems within their organization. They have the power to shape these systems and integrate them within the operations of the company (Bolt and Brassard, 2004: 161). Sharing with their people a compelling vision for how knowledge can be a source of competitive advantage for the company and implementing the operating systems that will deliver on this vision are key levers for CEOs (Bolt and Brassard, 2004: 161).

Chief executive officers and top management set policies for acquiring and integrating resources for the organization. Among their goals are to reduce uncertainty, increase stability, increase resources, and reduce competition (Bass, 2004: 34). The successful implementation of strategies formulated by the CEO and top management will depend on their leadership and the qualities of their relations with managers and employees (Bass, 2004: 39).

Almost all agreed that it is very important for the CEO to convey a vision of the organization's future. Besides, the profitability of a firm depends on the CEO's actions (Bass, 2004: 38-39). According to public opinion, top executive leaders should act as stewards of the firms they lead by protecting the firms' reputation and the well-being of stakeholders (Guzman, 2007: 28). The more there is uncertainty and ambiguity in the organizational environment, the more the CEO will need to be adaptable, flexible, and open (Bass, 2004: 38).

2.5.2.3. Top Management Team

Strategic leadership has a direct effect on an organization's strategic flexibility and competitive advantage (Lear, 2012: 53). Strategic flexibility should be exercised by the top management team (TMT) who together with the CEO, as the most important member, are the organization's key decision makers (Lear, 2012: 53). A top management team is one that is headed by a chief executive officer or president and entails, at a minimum, the senior managers reporting directly to this position. Members of these executive committees are supposed to contribute their respective expertise and energies to the shared leadership role (Schermerhorn, 1999: 172). During the 1980s, both scholars and managers started to emphasize the importance of top management teams (TMTs) for steering strategic decision making and influencing organizational performance (Raes et al., 2007: 360).

The top management team is composed of the key managers who are responsible for selecting and implementing the firm's strategies. The quality of the strategic decisions made by a top management team affects the firm's ability to innovate and engage in effective strategic change. (Hitt et al., 2003: 389). The top management team, often an organization's executive directors, also share

responsibility for strategy. Obviously they can bring additional experience and insight to the CEO. In theory, they should be able to challenge the CEO and increase strategic debate (Johnson et al., 2008: 560).

Because of the complexity of the new competitive landscape, both in its structure and dynamism, the collective intellect generated by a top management team is necessary for effective strategic leadership to occur in the firm (Ireland and Hitt, 2005: 66). Different from other types of teams, a TMT has been defined as “the aggregate informational and decisional entity through which the organization operates and which forms the inner circle of executives who collectively formulate, articulate, and execute the strategic and tactical moves of the organization” (Raes et al., 2007: 361).

2.5.2.4. Middle Managers

Strategy is not just the preserve of top management. Middle and lower level managers have to work within their organization’s strategy, meeting the objectives set by the strategy and observing the constraints (Johnson et al., 2008: 18).

Middle managers are those in the middle of the management hierarchy; they develop plans to implement the goals of top managers and coordinate the work of first-line managers. They usually manage other managers, not workers (Bovee et al., 2007: 237). Middle managers responsible for the operations and customer relations in the acquired business are important in order to avoid internal uncertainties and maintain customer confidence (Johnson et al., 2009: 235). Effective middle managers contribute to changes in strategy by making innovative use of resources to explore and exploit opportunities for profitable activities (Bass, 2004: 44). Middle managers also support strategic leaders in terms of different aspects.

Senior executives tend to see strategy development more in terms of intended, rational, analytic planned processes whereas middle managers see strategy development more as the result of cultural and political processes (Johnson et al., 2008: 418). According to Johnson et al. (2008: 563), it brings some advantages that middle managers involve in the strategic management process:

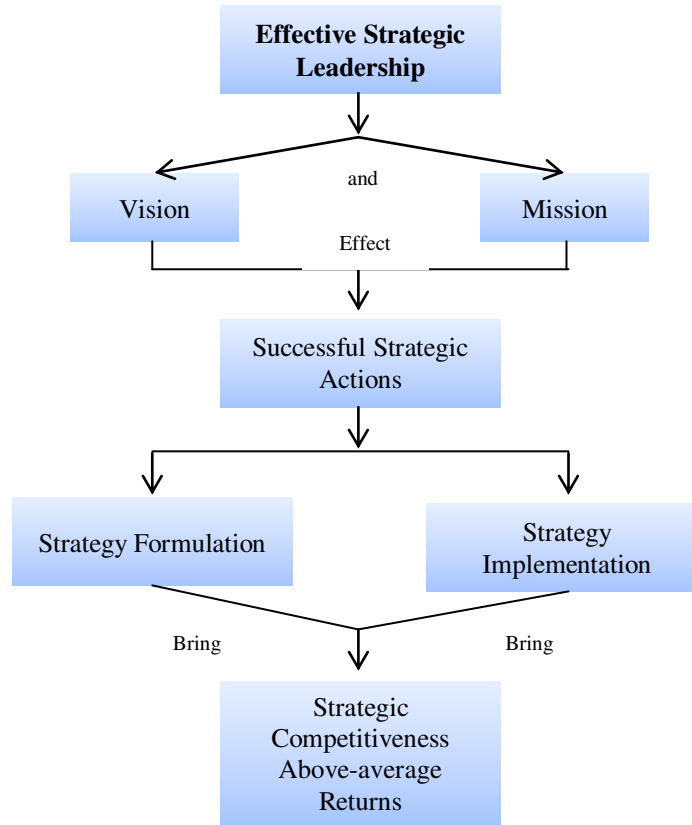
Yet involving middle managers in the strategy formulation itself can provide at least two benefits. In the first place, middle manager involvement can lead to better strategic decisions, because middle managers have direct, up-to-date experience of the realities of the organization and its market, unlike many top managers. In the second place, including middle managers in the original strategy formulation can improve implementation. Middle managers who have been involved in the original formulation process will be better at interpreting strategic intentions into action, have a stronger personal commitment to strategic goals, and communicate the strategy more effectively to their teams.

2.6. STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP IN STRATEGIC MANAGEMENT PROCESS

Strategic management is a leadership responsibility and the strategic leader is essentially the leader of the organization (Schermerhorn, 1999: 172; and Tutar, et al., 2011: 1381). Strategic leadership which is the process of forming a vision for the future, communicating it to subordinates, stimulating and motivating followers and engaging in strategy-supportive exchanges with peers and subordinates is one of the major components of strategic management process (Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 121; and Lear, 2012: 50).

Effective strategy implementation and control depends on the full commitment of all managers to supporting and leading strategic initiatives within their areas of supervisory responsibility (Schermerhorn, 1999: 172). The organizations can able to perform the strategic management process successfully by means of effective strategic leadership (**Figure 23**) (Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 129). According to **Figure 23**, vision and mission created by effective strategic leadership affects successful strategic actions. Therefore, strategic competitive advantage and above-average returns can be gained by successful strategy formulation and implementation thanks to successful strategic actions.

Figure 23: Strategic Leadership and Strategic Management Process



Source: Uğurluoğlu and Çelik, 2009: 130

2.6.1. The Role of the Strategic Leadership in Strategic Management Process

Over the past 20 years, the field of strategic management has become increasingly concerned with the influence of top-level managers on strategy formulation and organization performance (Lear, 2012: 52). When leaders engaged in the management processes of analyzing, planning, implementing, monitoring and evaluating they were basically considered to be strategic (Quong and Walker, 2010: 22).

Strategic leadership is to establish a strategy by properly analyzing the interior and exterior environment in which the organization exists, implementing the right strategy at the right time, evaluating and acting the appropriate behavior

suitable for the current environment (Tutar, et al., 2011: 1381). Strategic leaders engage in both macro and micro behaviors: direct supervision, strategy formulation, and managing the organization's relations with its environment. They use micro level strategies to build and maintain relationships, to manage conflict, or to achieve key substantive outcomes (Blair and Rivera, 1992: 85). It is essential to examine the role of the strategic leadership in all steps of strategic management one by one as follows:

a. In Environmental Scanning Step

The strategic leadership theory, as suggested by Zaccaro and Klimoski (2001 cited by Guzman, 2007: 42), indicates that organizational effectiveness materializes when top strategic leaders align the firm's strategy with the environment.

Leaders survey the complex economic, technical, political and social environment and subsequently engage in planning, organizing, and other functions needed to reduce uncertainty for lower levels (Blair and Rivera, 1992: 84). Environments have increasingly been described as fast-changing and disruptive, demanding novel approaches to strategy that involve less planning and control, and more flexibility, learning, and improvisation (Crossan et al., 2008: 571). Managers in every organization need to analyze the environment. They need to know, what the competition is doing, what pending legislation might affect the organization, and what the labor supply is like in locations where it operates (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 201). Many strategies fail because managers may want to formulate and implement strategies without a careful analysis of the overarching goals of the organization and without a thorough analysis of its external and internal environment (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 10). Before managers can define organizational objectives and choose strategies, they must understand the internal condition of the organization and its external environment (Porth, 2003: 5).

After analyzing environment, managers need to assess what they have learned in terms of opportunities that the organization can exploit, threats it faces, strengths and weaknesses related to the organization's internal resources (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 201). Leaders need a holistic understanding of an organization's stakeholders. This requires an ability to scan the environment to develop knowledge of all the

company's stakeholders and other salient environmental trends and events and integrate this knowledge into a vision of what the organization could become (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 355). Based on the SWOT analysis which is an analysis of the organization's strengths, weaknesses, opportunities, and threats, managers can identify a strategic niche that the organization might exploit. In the light of the SWOT analysis, managers also reevaluate the organization's current mission and goals (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204). Therefore, it can be concluded that this analysis is a vital tool for strategic leaders.

b. In Strategic Formulation Step

Westley and Mintzberg (1989 cited by Blair and Rivera, 1992: 84) see strategic vision as a marriage between leadership and strategic management. A clear and entrepreneurially astute strategic vision is a prerequisite to effective leadership (Thompson and Strickland, 1999: 28). Developing and implementing a vision is one of a leader's central roles (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 27). According to Hosmer (1982 cited by Blair and Rivera, 1992: 84), strategic leaders create an overall sense of purpose that guides an organization's strategy. Managers need to develop and evaluate strategic alternatives and then select strategies that support and complement each other and that allow the organization to best capitalize on its strengths and environmental opportunities (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204).

Almost all agreed that it is very important for the CEO to convey a vision of the organization's future (Bass, 2004: 38). One situation in which leadership effectiveness may be most visible is when an organization changes its strategy (O'Reilly et al., 2010: 105). A firm's strategy formulation is developed at several levels. (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 13). The roots of executive leadership are in the creation of meaning within the organization. If these messages lack clarity and consistency across leaders at different levels they may reduce members' ability to understand the importance of and implement strategic initiatives (O'Reilly et al., 2010: 106).

Finally, this step is complete when managers have developed a set of strategies that will give the organization a relative advantage over its rivals.

Successful managers will choose strategies that give their organization the most favorable competitive edge, and then they will try to sustain that advantage (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204).

c. In Strategic Implementation Step

After strategies are formulated, they must be implemented. A strategy is only as good as its implementation. No matter how effectively an organization has planned its strategies, it cannot succeed if the strategies are not implemented properly (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 204).

According to Govindarajan (1989), effective strategy implementation is affected by the quality of people involved in the process (Taslak, 2004: 156). However, a lack of leadership, and specifically strategic leadership by the top management of the organization, has been identified as one of the major barriers to effective strategy implementation (Jooste and Fourie, 2009: 52).

The successful implementation of strategies formulated by the CEO and top management will depend on their leadership and the qualities of their relations with managers and employees (Bass, 2004: 39). To implement a new strategic initiative, leaders at subordinate levels must reinforce it; that is, they must allocate resources for it, deal effectively with resistance to it, and convince employees that the new initiative is important and in the employees' interests to support (O'Reilly et al., 2010: 105). It requires that managers set short-term objectives, reexamine the organization's structure and corporate culture in light of the new strategy, make the right resource decisions in support of the strategy, and manage the human side of the change process (Porth, 2003: 11).

d. In Strategic Evaluation and Control Step

Strategy evaluation is important because organizations face dynamic environments in which key external and internal factors often change quickly and dramatically (David, 2003: 300).

In strategy evaluation, like strategy formulation and strategy implementation, people make the difference (David, 2003: 304). Ultimately, a firm's ability to maintain its competitive position in a world of rivalry and change may be best served by managers who can maintain a dual view of strategy and strategy evaluation (Mintzberg and Quinn, 1996: 63). Strategists will want reports concerned with whether the mission, objectives, and strategies of the enterprise are being achieved (David, 2003: 316). For evaluation and control to be effective, managers must obtain clear, prompt, and unbiased information from the people below them in the corporation's hierarchy. Using this information, managers compare what is actually happening with what was originally planned in the formulation stage (Wheelen and Hunger, 2004: 16). The best-formulated and best-implemented strategies become obsolete as a firm's external and internal environments change. It is essential, therefore, that strategists systematically review, evaluate, and control the execution of strategies (David, 2003: 300). Also, building a strong and effective culture is important to strategic control. Effective leaders understand its importance and strive to shape and use it as one of their important levers of strategic control (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 300).

2.6.2. Criteria of Effective Strategic Leadership

To compete in the global marketplace, organizations need to have strong and effective leadership (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 350). According to Dess and Lumpkin (2003: 350), there are three key leadership activities. These are setting a direction, designing the organization, and nurturing a culture committed to excellence and ethical behavior. Strategies cannot be formulated and implemented to achieve above-average returns without effective strategic leaders (Hitt et al., 2003: 387). If executives are able to exhibit strategic leadership that achieves a long-term focus, promotes development and application of core competences, emphasizes the development of human capital, develops an effective culture, and achieves strategic control simultaneously with the allowance of autonomy, restructuring efforts are more like to be successful (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 61).

There are different approaches to the criteria of effective strategic leadership. For example according to Bass (2007: 42) effective strategic leadership practices include:

1. focusing attention on outcomes and processes,
2. seeking to acquire and leverage knowledge,
3. fostering learning, and creativity,
4. improving work flows by attention to relationships,
5. anticipating internal and external environmental changes,
6. maintaining a global mindset,
7. meeting the diversity of the interests of the multiple stakeholders,
8. building for the long-term while meeting short-term needs, and
9. developing human capital

While Bass explains strategic leadership practices like that, Hitt et al. (1995 cited by Lear, 2012: 53) explain strategic leadership actions of (1) developing dynamic core competencies; (2) focusing and building human capital; (3) using new technology effectively; (4) engaging in valuable strategies; and (5) building new organizational structures and culture. In addition, Hitt et al. (1998; cited by Hitt, et al., 2010: 439) and Ireland and Hitt (1999; cited by Hitt, et al., 2010: 439) described the capabilities needed for effective strategic leadership in the new competitive landscape expected for the 21st century. They argued that effective strategic leaders had to: (1) develop and communicate a vision, (2) build dynamic core competencies, (3) emphasize and effectively use human capital, (4) invest in the development of new technologies, (5) engage in valuable strategies, (6) build and maintain an effective organizational culture, (7) develop and implement balanced controls, and (8) engage in ethical practices.

According to Jooste and Fourie (2009: 52), several identifiable actions characterize strategic leadership that positively contributes to effective strategy implementation, namely:

- Determining strategic direction
- Establishing balanced organizational controls
- Effectively managing the organization's resource portfolio
- Sustaining an effective organizational culture
- Emphasizing ethical practices.

In addition to Jooste and Fouries (2009: 52), Davies and Davies (2004: 15) also put forward the view that strategic leaders involve themselves in five key activities:

- Direction setting
- Translating strategy into action
- Aligning the people and the organization to the strategy
- Determining effective intervention points
- Developing strategic capabilities

Overall, Boal and Schults (2007: 411) also explain strategic leader activities as: (1) making strategic decisions, creating and communicating a vision of the future; (2) developing key competencies and capabilities; developing organizational structures, processes, and controls; (3) managing multiple constituencies; (4) selecting and developing the next generation of leaders; (5) sustaining an effective organizational culture; and (6) the infusion of ethical value systems into the organization's culture.

In this study, as can be seen in **Figure 24**, the criteria associated with effective strategic leadership include (1) determining strategic leadership; (2) exploiting and maintaining core competencies; (3) effectively managing human capital; (4) sustaining effective corporate culture; (5) emphasizing ethical practices; (6) establishing strategic control; and (7) investing in the development of new technologies. Research on this subject emphasized the importance of effective role of strategic leadership (Bass, 2007: 42; Lear, 2012: 53; Hitt et al., 2010: 439; Jooste and Fourie, 2009: 52; Bass, 2004: 42; Davies and Davies, 2004: 15).

Figure 24: Criteria of Effective Strategic Leadership



Source: The Author

2.6.2.1. Determining Strategic Direction

First stage at determining strategic direction is determining the vision (Erkuş, 2012: 255). Vision is what the enterprise leadership wants to create, in say 5–10 years. Vision is not a forecast, and nor is it just a vague dream. Vision is a concrete idea of what the enterprise should look like and stand for in the future. Vision is the driving concept that “pulls” the enterprise and its complete membership forward towards its target (Abell, 2006: 311).

The ideal long-term vision has two parts: a core ideology and an envisioned future. While the core ideology motivates employees through the company’s heritage, the envisioned future encourages employees to stretch beyond their expectations of accomplishment and requires change and progress in order to be realized (Hitt et al., 2003: 396).

The goal is to balance the firm’s short-term need to adjust to a new vision while maintaining its long-term survivability by emphasizing its current and valuable core competencies (Hitt et al., 2003: 396). The development of organizational vision and the ability to manage the change engendered by visions represent core

organizational competencies that foster a competitive advantage for organizations (Lear, 2012: 66). Determining the strategic direction of a firm involves developing a long-term vision of the firm's strategic intent. A long-term vision typically looks at least five to ten years into the future (Hitt et al., 2003: 395).

Without the guidance provided by a vision, organizations can become chaotic and are unlikely to be as successful (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Steering a firm's future and determining places where the organization will arrive in the future is doubtlessly the most important task of a strategic leader (Erkuş, 2012: 255). Strategic leaders must develop a vision and communicate that vision broadly, to help guide the formation and implementation of strategies to achieve that vision for their organizational future (Hitt et al., 2010: 439; Lear, 2012: 60). They must have a clear vision of their organization and its purpose, and provide guidelines for where the firm is going and how it will get there (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Most top executives obtain inputs regarding their vision from many people with a range of skills to help them analyze various aspects of the firm's operations. In addition, executives must structure the firm effectively to help achieve their vision (Hitt et al., 2003: 396).

It necessitates the capacity to solve increasingly complex problems, become proactive in approach, and develop viable strategic options. Developing a strategic vision provides many benefits: a clear future direction, a framework for the organization's mission and goals, and enhanced employee communication, participation, and commitment (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 355).

2.6.2.2. Exploiting and Maintaining Core Competencies

Core competencies refer to the resources, organization's functional skills (for example, manufacturing, marketing, research and development (R&D)) and capabilities that provide an organization with a competitive advantage (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294; Hitt and Keats, 1992: 54; Hitt et al., 2003: 396). A core competence is a major capability to perform important tasks (e.g., a function) quite well, and makes a valuable contribution to a firm's competitive advantage (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). According to Clardy (2007; cited by Lear, 2012: 70), a core competency is the

organizational capability to perform some aspect of a production function in a manner consistently superior to its competition, which in turn leads to above-average organizational performance.

Core competencies allow the organization to adapt to changing conditions in a competitive environment and generate more efficient and effective performance (Lear, 2012: 70). The core competencies are the organization's major value-creating skills, capabilities, and resources that determine the organization's competitive weapons (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 202). When these core skills are developed and applied through the organization, they create the opportunity for gaining competitive advantage (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 54).

This step forces managers to recognize that every organization, no matter how large or successful, is constrained in some ways by the resources and capabilities it has available (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 202). The development and application of core competences help facilitate information processing by executives (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 55). As strategic leaders, corporate managers make decisions intended to help their organisation develop, maintain, strengthen, leverage and exploit core competencies. Exploiting core competencies involves sharing resources across units. In general, the most effective core competencies are based on intangible resources, which are less visible to competitors because they relate to employees' knowledge or skills (Lear, 2012: 70). Strategic leaders must be able to develop and exploit their organization's core competencies in new and competitive ways (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Strategic leaders should understand and appreciate the importance of the firm's core competence(s) (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 56). Strategic leaders must verify that the firm's competencies are emphasized in strategy implementation efforts (Hitt et al., 2003: 396). Additionally, they must ensure that these skills are integrated and deemphasized throughout the newly refocused organization (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 56).

2.6.2.3. Effectively Managing Human Capital

In today's knowledge-based economy, human capital may be the most important resource in corporations of all types (Hitt and Ireland, 2002: 4). Hagen et

al. (1998)(cited by Lear, 2012: 72) define human capital as the knowledge and skills of the organization's workforce – employees as a capital resource. Core competencies cannot be effectively developed or exploited without appropriate human capital. Human capital refers to the knowledge and skills of an organization's entire workforce (Hitt et al., 2003: 396; Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Hitt and Hoskisson (1991) argued that the development of human capital is critical for strategic competitiveness (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 56). From the perspective of human capital, employees are viewed as a capital resource that requires investment (Hitt et al., 2003: 396).

According to Hollenbeck (2009 cited by Lear, 2012: 72), executives and executive selection are absolute keys to organization success. Finding the human capital necessary to run an organization effectively is a challenge that many firms attempt to solve by using temporary employees. Other firms try to improve their recruiting and selection techniques (Hitt et al., 2003: 397). Effective human resource recruitment benefits from core competency modeling to ensure the right person is hired for the right job (Grigoryev, 2006: 16). Achieving and sustaining a competitive edge is critically dependent on achieving the right fit. (Lear, 2012: 72). Solving the problem, however, requires more than hiring temporary employees; it requires building effective commitment to organizational goals as well. Hiring star players is also insufficient; rather, a strategic leader needs to build an effective organizational team committed to achieving the company's vision and goals (Hitt et al., 2003: 397).

Strategic leadership would entail not only maintaining appropriate investments in development programs but also designing new, innovative programs to build and take advantage of surviving employees' skills (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 57). The programs help strategic leaders improve skills that are critical to completing other tasks associated with effective strategic leadership, such as determining the firm's strategic direction, exploiting and maintaining the firm's core competencies, and developing an organizational culture that supports ethical practices. Thus, building human capital is vital to the effective execution of strategic leadership (Hitt et al., 2003: 397).

An emphasis on human capital suggests that strategic leaders attract and retain the absolute best employee talent available, and continue to develop employee

skills and capabilities (e.g., through training), rewarding staff skill development and using that talent in the best ways for the organization (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Strategic leaders invest in the education and development of their organization's workforce and view the workforce as a critical resource (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Effective training and development programs increase the probability that a manager will be a successful strategic leader. Such programs build knowledge and skills, inculcate a common set of core values, and offer a systematic view of the organization, thus promoting the firm's strategic vision and organizational cohesion. (Hitt et al., 2003: 397). To avoid such failure and to benefit from the opportunities available, strategic leaders must carefully manage resources and build effective human and social capital to create a nimble organization that is able to shift strategic actions quickly to stay ahead of competitors (Hitt et al., 2010: 443)

2.6.2.4. Sustaining Effective Corporate Culture

Organizational culture refers to the shared complex set of ideologies, beliefs, core values, and assumptions that is shared throughout the firm and influence the way business is conducted (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294; Hitt et al., 2003: 398). Besides, organizational culture provides a system of shared meanings and values held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations and that serve as an interpretational system for organizational members (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 58; Robbins, 2005: 485). Organizational culture is concerned with how employees perceive the characteristics of an organization's culture, not with whether or not they like them (Robbins, 2005: 486).

According to Robbins (2005: 485), there are seven primary characteristics that capture the essence of an organization's culture:

1. Innovation and risk taking
2. Attention to detail
3. Outcome orientation
4. People orientation
5. Team orientation
6. Aggressiveness

7. Stability

Because the organizational culture influences how the firm conducts its business and helps regulate and control employees' behavior, it can be a source of competitive advantage (Hitt et al., 2003: 398). Developing and maintaining a healthy organizational culture should be a priority and central task of strategic leaders (Hitt et al., 2010: 439; Hitt et al., 2003: 398). Strong leadership is a key element in establishing a productive organizational culture – the set of underlying values, norms, and practices shared by members of an organization (Bovee et al., 2007: 242). Therefore, strategic leaders must be able to shape an organization's culture so that it is effective and can provide the organization with a competitive advantage (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). An understanding of the organizational culture and its strengths and drawbacks is crucial. Managers should be aware that strong and weak cultures have different effects on strategy and that the content of a culture has a major effect on strategies pursued (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 203). In a strong culture, all employees will have a clear understanding of what the organization is about (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 203).

Leaders play a key role in developing and sustaining – as well as changing, when necessary – an organization's culture (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 357). The actions of top management have a major impact on the organization's culture. Through what they say and how they behave, senior executives establish norms that filter down through the organization as to whether risk taking is desirable; how much freedom managers should give their employees; what is appropriate dress; what actions will pay off in terms of pay raises, promotions, and other rewards; and the like (Robbins, 2005: 494).

Furthermore, the culture should foster an entrepreneurial spirit (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 59) and therefore, cultures differ in the degree to which they encourage taking risk, exploiting innovations, and rewarding performance (Robbins and Coulter, 2003: 203). It is critical that the culture promote diversity and individuality instead of conformity. It should promote risk taking rather than risk-averse behavior (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 59). To the extent possible, authority should be decentralized and employees involved in important operating decisions. Importantly, new product and idea champions should be identified and rewarded (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 59).

2.6.2.5. Emphasizing Ethical Practices

The effectiveness of processes used to implement the firm's strategies increases when they are based on ethical practices (Hitt et al., 2003: 400).

To properly influence employees' judgment and behavior, ethical practices must shape the firm's decision-making process and be an integral part of an organization's culture (Hitt et al., 2003: 400). Several elements must be present and reinforced for a firm to become a highly ethical organization: role models, corporate credos and codes of conduct, reward and evaluation systems, and policies and procedures (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 357). Robbins (2005: 500) also determined the practices in order to create a more ethical culture as:

- Be a visible role model
- Communicate ethical expectations
- Provide ethical training
- Visibly reward ethical acts and punish unethical ones
- Provide protective mechanisms

Strategic leaders play a critical role in establishing and emphasizing ethical behaviors and practices throughout the organization (Hitt et al., 2010: 439; Lear, 2012: 61). Strategic leaders will establish ethical principles that guide the practices and behavior of the organization and its members and will develop a culture in which ethical principles and practices are the norm and the foundation for decisions (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Effective strategic leaders place a strong emphasis on honesty, trust, and integrity in the decision-making process and in the implementation of those decisions. The core values of honesty, trust, and integrity serve as moral filters through which potential courses of actions can be evaluated (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Managers and top executives must also accept personal responsibility for developing and strengthening ethical behavior throughout the organization (Dess and Lumpkin, 2003: 357).

Strategic leaders are challenged to take actions that increase the probability that an ethical culture will prevail in their organizations (Hitt et al., 2003: 402).

Additional actions strategic leaders can take to develop an ethical organizational culture include (Hitt et al., 2003: 402):

- (1) Establishing and communicating specific goals to describe the firm's ethical standards (e.g., developing and disseminating a code of conduct);
- (2) Continuously revising and updating the code of conduct, based on inputs from people throughout the firm and from other stakeholders (e.g., customers and suppliers);
- (3) Disseminating the code of conduct to all stakeholders to inform them of the firm's ethical standards and practices;
- (4) Developing and implementing methods and procedures to use in achieving the firm's ethical standards (e.g., using internal auditing practices that are consistent with the standards);
- (5) Creating and using explicit reward systems that recognize acts of courage (e.g., rewarding those who use proper channels and procedures to report observed wrongdoings); and
- (6) Creating a work environment in which all people are treated with dignity

2.6.2.6. Establishing Balanced Controls

Organizational controls have long been viewed as an important part of strategy implementation processes (Hitt et al., 2003: 404). Organizational controls are formal procedures that guide work and organizational activities toward the achievement of performance objectives (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Control systems help organizations manage financial capital and govern practices ensuring that potential courses of action are evaluated through a positive moral filter. The right types of controls can influence and guide actions in appropriate ways (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Controls are also necessary to help ensure that organizations achieve their desired outcomes of strategic competitiveness and above-average returns (Lear, 2012: 87).

Organizational control emphasizes strategic and financial controls because strategic leaders are responsible for their development and effective use (Hitt et al., 2003: 404). Strategic leaders play an important role in determining a proper balance

between strategic controls and financial controls for their firm (Hitt et al., 2003: 406). Strategic leaders must establish strategic and financial control to facilitate flexible, creative, and innovative behaviors (Johns and Saks, 2001: 294). Strategic control focuses on the content of strategic actions rather than their outcomes (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 60). Financial controls focuses on short-term financial outcomes. In contrast, strategic control focuses on the content of strategic actions, rather than their outcomes (Hitt et al., 2003: 404).

According to Hagen et al. (1998: 4), strategic control refers to corporate leaders' understanding of the strategies being implemented in the various business units. Strategic control focuses on the content of strategic actions in order to achieve appropriate outcomes (Lear, 2012: 87). Strategic control encourages managers to make decisions that incorporate moderate and acceptable risk and that focus on long-term returns (Hitt and Keats, 1992: 60). Controls help strategic leaders build credibility, demonstrate the value of strategies to the firm's stakeholders, and promote and support strategic change (Hitt et al., 2003: 404). Effective strategic leaders establish controls that facilitate flexible and innovative employee behaviors to help the firm maintain and/or gain a competitive advantage (Hitt et al., 2010: 439). Effective use of strategic controls by corporate leaders is frequently integrated with appropriate autonomy for the subunits so they can gain a competitive advantage in their respective markets (Lear, 2012: 87).

2.6.2.7. Investing in the Development of New Technologies

An effective leader in a high technology environment must simultaneously influence the invention, development, and commercialization of new products and services (Edosomwan, 2009: 2). Effective strategic leaders take the actions necessary to remain at the forefront of new technology, developing it internally or obtaining it externally. They must also exploit the technology to ensure that the firm operates in the most efficient way possible (Hitt et al., 2010: 439).

According to these chapters, it can be demonstrated that ports are strategic links in both maritime transportation and international trade. This results in a complicated management in ports. Therefore, ports should be managed by strategic leaders because of the fact that managers are considered recently as an important factor creating a competitive advantage for organizations.

In the consideration of all of these evaluations, the need of research on strategic leadership in Turkish private ports has been arisen.

CHAPTER 3

A DELPHI RESEARCH ON PERCEPTIONS OF TOP MANAGERS OF PRIVATE PORTS IN TURKEY RELATED TO STRATEGIC LEADERSHIP

3.1.AIM OF THE RESEARCH

The objective of this study is to investigate strategic leadership characteristics and perceptions of top managers in private ports in Turkey. That top managers have features of strategic leadership is important for effective strategy implementation. Ports take a strategic place in Turkey. That's why perceptions of port top managers with regard to strategic leadership are significant to be researched. The two research were utilized in order to design the research process. These are "The Role of Strategic Leadership in Effective Strategy Implementation: Perceptions of South African Strategic Leaders" by C. Jooste and B. Fourie (2009) and "Leadership Development and the Characteristics/Traits of Ethical and Effective Leaders: The Delphi Technique" by Scott M. Shaw (2008).

The following research questions are intended to be answered by panellists and are aimed to be analyzed by using the three-round Delphi technique:

- Is it important that top managers of ports have strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management of ports? Why?
- What are the most important qualifications that make a top manager of a port a strategic leader?
- What are the most important roles that a strategic leader must fulfill in the process of port management?

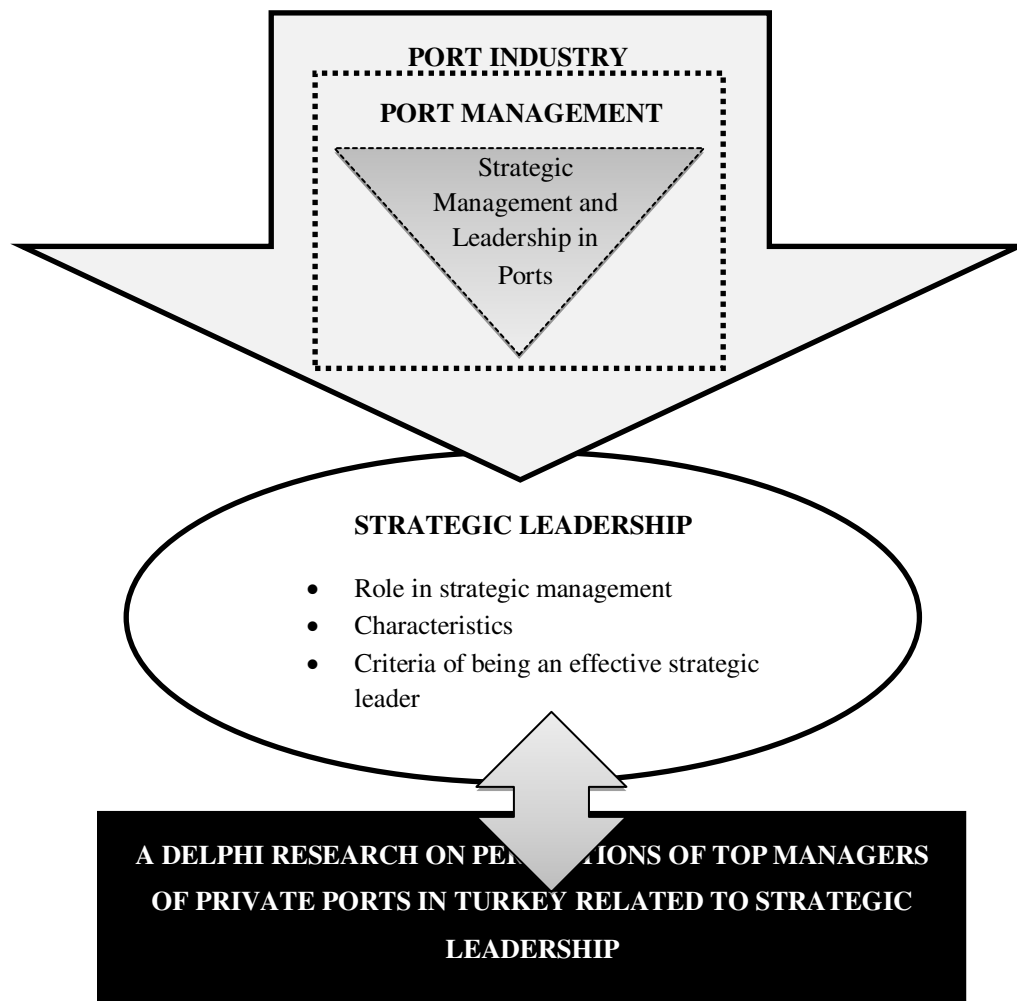
The preposition below is the unique one in this study and was asked to panelists in order to reach a consensus in the first question of the first-round Delphi survey. Other two questions were addressed to panelists owing to analyze their perceptions about strategic leadership concept.

P₀: It is important that top managers have characteristics of strategic leadership in strategic management process in ports.

3.2.CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK OF THE RESEARCH

A conceptual framework concerning evaluation of perceptions of top managers in ports related to strategic leadership is stated in **Figure 25**. The framework includes the main subjects of literature review and the Delphi research. According to the framework, port industry, port management and strategic management and leadership in ports are examined locally and globally within the scope of literature review in the first chapter. In the second chapter, a detailed literature review of strategic leadership is given. Finally, results of the Delphi research are presented by comparing the literature in the first and second chapters.

Figure 25:Conceptual Framework of the Research



Source: The Author

3.3.METHODOLOGY

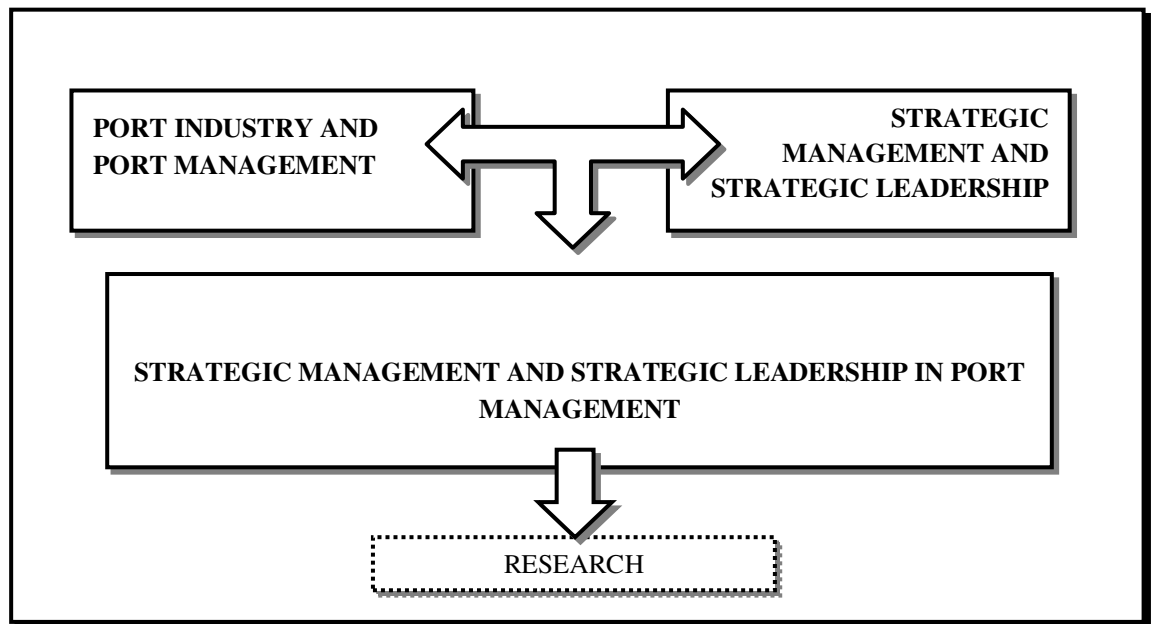
This study is based on descriptive research method and the Delphi technique. The descriptive research is used for the description of the respondents' profiles and the Delphi method is used for the assessment of the top managers' perceptions relating to strategic leadership in Turkish private ports. The Delphi method is performed into three rounds in this study.

3.3.1. Literature Survey

Literature review is a method to document published or unpublished secondary data sources on the research area which researcher determined by assessing extensively. To review the literature regarding the main subject would support researcher in focusing deeply on information to be gotten from face to face interviews (Sekaran, 2003: 63).

This study is started with the literature review. It is conducted within the scope of the main headings stated in the **Figure 26**. The literature review includes port industry and port management in Turkey and the world. Additionally, it covers strategic management and strategic leadership generally. Final and the most important part of the literature review which the framework of the Delphi research is built on is strategic leadership in ports.

Figure 26:The Scope of the Literature Review



Source: The Author

3.3.2. Descriptive Research and the Delphi Technique

Descriptive research is a type of conclusive research that has as its major objective the description of something- usually market characteristics or functions. Most commercial marketing research is descriptive in nature. Descriptive research is particularly useful when research questions seek to describe a market phenomenon, such as determining purchase frequencies, identifying relationships, or making predictions (Malhotra, 2012: 104). It is concerned not only with the characteristics of individuals but with the characteristics of the whole sample thereof. It provides information useful to the solutions of local issues (problems). Survey may be qualitative or quantitative in verbal or mathematical form of expression; such studies are factual and hence supply practical information (Salaria, 2012).

The Delphi method originated in a series of studies that the RAND Corporation conducted in the 1950's (Okali and Pawlowski, 2004: 2) for its research purposes (von der Gracht, 2012, 1525). Since its design over 55 years ago, the Delphi technique has become a widely used tool for measuring and aiding forecasting and decision making in a variety of disciplines (Rowe and Wright, 1999: 353). The objective of the Delphi technique is to obtain the most reliable consensus

of opinion of a group of experts. It attempts to achieve this by a series of intensive questionnaires interspersed with controlled opinion feedback (Dalkey and Helmer, 2002: 458). It is a technique that is useful for situations where individual judgments must be tapped and combined in order to address a lack of agreement or incomplete state of knowledge (Powell, 2003: 376). The characteristics of Delphi as it was originally developed are anonymity, iteration, feedback (Woudenberg, 1991: 133) and statistical group response (von der Gracht, 2012, 1527):

- *Anonymity*. Participants, mostly experts, are approached by mail or computer.
- *Iteration*. There are several rounds. The first round can be inventory, in which participants are asked for events to be forecasted or parameters to be estimated.
- *Feedback*. The results of an eventual first inventory round are clustered and sent back to all participants. In the first estimation round, participants give their quantitative estimates.
- *Statistical “group response”*. Statistical group response can be presented either numerically or graphically, and usually comprises measures of central tendency (mean, median), dispersion (interquartile range, standard deviation), and frequency distribution (histograms and frequency polygons).

3.3.3. Development of Delphi Questionnaire Forms

Most changes in Delphi response occur in the first two rounds (Mitchell and McGoldrick, 1994: 59). On the other hand, this method may take several weeks or months to complete and tends to be administratively complex, and the investigator must try to collect, analyze, and mail the new questionnaires in an efficient and timely manner so as to maintain respondents’ high level of interest and participation (Lloyd et al, 2000: 405). For these reasons, the three round Delphi survey (see **Appendix.3, Appendix.4 and Appendix.5**) has been developed for this study.

The first round Delphi survey covers three open-ended questions which aim to evaluate perceptions of top managers of some private ports in Turkey concerning strategic leadership in ports. The first question is designed to analyze whether possessing strategic leadership qualities is important in port management or not and

then why it is. The second and third questions are aimed to analyze perceptions of port managers about strategic leaders' characteristics and duties. The second round likert based interval scale Delphi survey contains one main part which is designed by utilizing the answers of participants to the first question in the first round Delphi survey. An interval scale including "agree", "disagree" or "unable to comment" has been used for each statement. The second survey has been developed by using the responses of top managers, who participated in the first round Delphi survey, in order to reach a consensus. The third round Delphi survey has been covered two questions which were not reached a consensus in the second round.

3.3.4. Sampling and Data Collection Process

A set of criteria were established by which to select panel members who were not only experienced in the port management but also were knowledgeable in strategic management and leadership. In addition, selection of ports was an important decision. Therefore, 44 top managers in the private ports which the majority is the members of TURKLIM (Port Operators Association of Turkey) and container is included in the area of activity have been chosen as the sample of the research. For example, top managers from TCE EGE Konteyner Terminal İşletmeleri was included in this sample because of the fact that TCE EGE is one of the most important private container ports in İzmir. TURKLIM was established in order to provide cooperation and to seek a solution to administrators' problems of the private ports and piers in a shared platform in 1966. The association provides information flow between government and related international organizations concerning the members, which are majority of Turkish Maritime Organizations. In addition, the association contributes to port managements to operate efficiently in harmony with regulations (TURKLIM, 2014).

The first round Delphi survey (see **Appendix 3**) which aims to determine profile of the top managers and assess their perceptions relating to strategic leadership in ports is conducted firstly by SurveyMonkey (www.surveymonkey.com) on 28th January, 2014 as can be seen **Appendix 6**. SurveyMonkey is a website providing a tool in order to collect data and gather responses from the field.

However, only 3 participants responded to the survey within three weeks despite reminder messages. It is because of this, all surveys were sent to participants with a cover letter by e-mail individually on 14th March, 2014. After making calls for reminding the survey, 9 participants were added. Finally, 12 *participants* responded to the first round Delphi survey within one and a half months with the last response on 30th April, 2014. The list of participants who allowed to be given their names in this study is presented in **Appendix.9**.

The second round Delphi survey (see **Appendix 4**) which aims to reach a consensus on statements concerning strategic leadership was sent to the 12 participants, who responded to the first round Delphi survey, by e-mail on 26th June, 2014. After reminder calls was made, 10 *participants* responded the survey within approximately one month with the last response on 24th July, 2014.

The third round Delphi survey (see **Appendix 5**) which goals to reach a consensus on non-consensus statements in the second round was sent to the 10 participants, who responded to the second round of the Delphi survey, by e-mail on 22th August, 2014. 7 *participants* responded the survey within 5 days.

Response rate was approximately 28 % for the first round. Fortunately, response rate has increased to roughly 84 % for the second round of the Delphi process. Finally, 70 % response rate was achieved in the third round of the Delphi research.

3.3.5. Analysis of the Delphi Survey: APMO Technique

One of the aims of using Delphi is to achieve greater consensus among panelists. Empirically, consensus has been determined by measuring the variance in responses of Delphi panelists over rounds, with a reduction in variance being taken to indicate that greater consensus has been achieved (Rowe and Wright, 1999: 363). In order to determine if consensus has been reached, the APMO (The Average Percentage of Majority Opinion) technique which is a consensus measure has been used in this study. First, the number of majority agreements and disagreements has to be calculated by expressing the participants' comments "agree", "disagree", and "no comment" in percentages per statement. Majority is actually defined as a percentage above 50%. Second, the researcher has to sum up the majority agreements and

disagreements. $\{\text{Majority Agreements} + \text{Majority Disagreements}\} \div \{\text{Total Opinions Expressed}\}$ formula has been used to calculate the APMO cut-off percentage(von der Gracht, 2012, 1531).

However, the first open ended question in the first round Delphi survey was determined to be used for the second and third round Likert based interval scale Delphi survey. The responses of the second and third questions in the first round Delphi survey were also compared with the literature of strategic leadership in the **Table 37** and **Table 38**.

3.4.RESULTS OF THE DELPHI SURVEY AND EVALUATION

3.4.1. Profile of the Respondents

Table 35 indicates the information about profile of the respondents taking part in the survey. The majority of respondents are positioned as general managers with 51,6 %. Trade manager, administrative manager and operation manager follow general manager with the percentage of 16,7. In addition, 41,6 % of the participants have been working more than 3 years in the company they have been working at present. The top managers participating in the survey are mostly between 30 and 49 years old with 67 %. What is more, 58,4 % their education status is bachelor degree and 41,6 of them graduated from a master's degree program.

Table 36 also shows some profile information of the ports included in the study. The majority of the ports has office personnel between 10 and 50 with 55,6 %. Additionally, the majority of the ports has between 50 and 100 numbers of port worker with 33,4 %. 77,8 % of the port throughput is more than 300.000 TEU.

Table 35: Profile of the Respondents in the Ports Included in the Study

	N*	%		N*	%
Position			Age		
Trade Manager	2	16,7	30-39	4	33,4
General Manager	5	51,6	40-49	4	33,4
Administrative Manager	2	16,7	50 and over	2	16,6
Head of Human Resources	1	8,3	Missing	2	16,6
Operation Manager	2	16,7	Total	12	100,0
Total	12	100,0			
Employment Duration in the Company			Education Status		
Less than 1 year	3	25,0	Bachelor degree	7	58,4
1-3 Year(s)	4	33,4	Master's degree	5	41,6
More than 3 Years	5	41,6	Total	12	100,0
Total	12	100,0			
Graduated From					
Dokuz Eylül University	2	16,6			
Ege University	1	8,3			
İstanbul University	1	8,3			
Marmara University	1	8,3			
Ankara University	1	8,3			
Boğaziçi University	1	8,3			
İstanbul Teknik University	1	8,3			
Anadolu University	1	8,3			
INSEAD	1	8,3			
Naval Academy	1	8,3			
Missing	1	8,3			
Total	12	100,0			

*Number of Respondents

Table 36: Profile of the Ports Included in the Study

	N*	%		N*	%
Number of Personnel (Office Staff)			Number of Personnel (Field Staff)		
10-50	5	55,6	50-100	3	33,4
51-100	3	33,3	101-200	1	11,1
100-150	1	11,1	201-300	1	11,1
Total	9	100,0	301-400	1	11,1
			401 and over	2	22,2
			Missing	1	11,1
			Total	9	100,0
Port Throughput			Region		
Less than 300.000 TEU	2	22,2	Aegean (İzmir)	4	44,4
300.000-1.000.000 TEU	3	33,4	Marmara (İstanbul,	5	55,6
1.000.001-10.000.000 TEU	2	22,2	Balıkesir, Kocaeli,		
More than 10.000.000 TEU	1	11,1	Tekirdağ, Bursa)		
Missing	1	11,1	Total	9	100,0
Total	9	100,0			

*Number of Ports

3.4.2. Results of the Delphi Surveys

3.4.2.1. Results of the First Round of the Delphi Survey

The first round of the Delphi survey covers three open ended questions. The first question is “Is that top managers have characteristics of strategic leadership in strategic management process in ports important according to you? Why? Why not?” The second question is “According to you, what are characteristics that make a port manager a strategic leader?” The comments of port managers are given in **Appendix.7**. The third and the last question is “According to you, what are roles that a strategic leader should fulfill in port management?” The comment of panelists are shown in **Appendix.8**. Second and third questions are not included in Delphi process.

Firstly, after the first question is answered as “YES” (Agree) or “NO” (Disagree), the respondents are asked to explain why it is important or not. The most remarkable point here is that the answer of this yes-no question showed 100 % consensus. Therefore, it can be said that all panelists believe it is important to have characteristics of strategic leadership in the process of strategic management in ports. Why they advocate this idea is given in **Table 37**. Table indicates that all answers are classified according to the subjects. It can be said that position, customer, service, international integrity, investment decisions and feasibility, vision, competition, risk, human capital and corporate responsibility of ports can be considered as the main factors determining why it is important that top managers have strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management in ports.

Table 37: Answers of Panelists to the First Question “Is it important that top managers have characteristics of strategic leadership in strategic management process in ports? Why? Why not?” and Related Categories

CATEGORIES	ANSWERS OF PANELISTS
a. Position	1. Ports are organizations of strategic importance due to their positions. 2. Ports have a strategic importance in supply chain.
b. Customer	3. Customer orientation is fundamental for ports. 4. Ports are organizations with low customer loyalty.
c. Service	5. Ports have a strategic importance with the services they provide.
d. International Integrity	6. Ports operate in an environment of extreme international integration. 7. Ports have international integration so it is important that top managers should have the characteristics of strategic leadership in ports in order to make strategic decisions not only in Turkey but also globally.
e. Investment decision and feasibility	8. Ports are organizations where the initial investment decision requires detailed knowledge, documentation and calculations. 9. Ports are organizations which are required to take an appropriate position in the long term. 10. There is no stability in the short term in port sector; it takes time to see the results of steps. 11. It is important that ports position themselves in the correct way and at the right time. 12. It is important that top managers of ports guide board of directors financially and make strategic decisions in this way in order that progress of port management can be healthy. 13. Industries managed by strategic leaders make a difference because of the fact that their principal is to work in accordance with strategic plans.
f. Vision	14. The most important things in port management are planning the future and creating a vision. 15. To predict the roles and missions of ports in the supply chain and to convince the team and shareholders by creating a vision in this direction are among the most important duties of top managers in ports.
g. Competition	16. Thanks to top managers who have strategic leadership qualifications, ports can engage in competition as well-equipped and minimize the risk.
h. Risk	17. Ports are organizations which provide services in the market with high seasonal variability.
i. Human Capital	18. Ports are organizations where workers have a tendency to quit.
j. Corporate Responsibility	19. Ports are organizations which have corporate responsibility apart from their commercial targets.

Source: The Author

According to responses of the panelists, ports have a strategic importance in terms of their positions and services they provide so they need to manage strategically by top managers. Customer issue is another subject that some of the panelists emphasized. They stated that customer orientation is a basis for port industry but customer loyalty is low. A course of actions adopted solely or jointly by customer group which is container carrier (CC) carrying the cargo to ports is of vital importance for ports. Top managers who have to contact with carriers are expected to obtain capacity and ability of thinking strategically because carriers are big size companies and they are capable of details of port management thanks to their partnerships. Therefore, it is expressed that top managers had better approach customer relationships strategically owing to deal with this situation. The responses of the panelists also demonstrated that top managers are required to have qualifications of strategic leadership in order to take strategic decisions not only in Turkey but also around the world because international integration is extreme in port

industry. Additionally, depending on the answers of the panelists it can be said that ports are strategic organizations which the first investment decision is required to detailed acknowledgement, documentation and calculations. If the investment is long-term, thinking strategically would be the most important factor. Top managers who do not have strategic leadership characteristics can cause wrong investments and guidance; and as a result the progress of the organization cannot be healthy. Some of the panelists stated that there is no opportunity of hot sale in port business therefore it takes importance to get the right position in the long-term. For this, it is necessary to make a strategic plan in port investment decisions and industries to be managed by strategic leaders make a difference because of the fact that their principal is to work in accordance with strategic plans. That is one of the reasons why they think that top managers should have strategic leadership features in port management.

To create a vision is one of the most important roles of strategic leaders and panelists stated that the most important things in port management are to plan the future and create a vision so top managers should possess characteristics of strategic leadership. Competition is another point that panelists emphasized because they indicated that ports can minimize the risk by entering into competition as well-equipped thanks to top managers who have strategic leadership qualifications. Risk in the port business is considered as a reason why top managers should have strategic leadership characteristics by the some of the panelists. Risk means seasonal variability in the port sector according to the panelists. The approach of the panelists that port labor is prone to change their jobs is considered as another risk in the port sector. To manage human capital effectively is one of the main tasks strategic leaders have to fulfill. Therefore it can be stated that top managers should be strategic leaders in port management because the tendency to change jobs in port business is an important issue for human resource management. What is more, corporate responsibility of ports was considered as a factor which top managers should manage strategically. Finally nineteen statements are proceeded to the following stage of the Delphi survey.

Secondly, **Table 38** reveals that the answers of the second question panelists gave are compared with the literature review about features of strategic leaders. Strategic leader characteristics are classified into fifteen topics as visionary and

future-oriented, ability to cope with uncertainty, ability to manage and comply with the change, flexible, ability to influence others, ability to motivate employees and communicate well, effective manager, self-questioning and self-improvement, courageous, detachment, restlessness, thinking strategically, to have superior acknowledgement of market and sector, ability to take responsibility and analytical thinking ability. Additionally, answers of the panelists can be gathered under these fifteen topics. It can be said that perceptions of top managers related to strategic leader characteristics comply with the literature. Nonetheless, panelists gave one more feature of strategic leaders which is not included in the literature as can be seen in **Table 38**. This characteristic is being customer-oriented.

Table 38: Literature and Answers of Panelists to the Second Question “According to you, what are characteristics that make a port manager a strategic leader?”

FEATURES OF STRATEGIC LEADERS IN LITERATURE	ANSWERS OF PANELISTS
1. Visionary and Future-Oriented a. Visionary b. Able to anticipate c. Able to envision d. Look beyond the present and into an uncertain future e. Ability to look at the big vision f. Ability to predict and understand the work environment g. Dedication to the overall vision of the company h. Align their departmental vision to overall vision i. Creating a future (predicting the future) j. Able to create a vision	• Able to see the big picture • Able to be pioneer • Able to create a vision • Able to envision where world trade and national trade are going to and what will needed in the future
2. Ability to Cope with Uncertainty	• Ability of crisis management • Ability of risk management • Being patient
3. Ability to Manage and Comply with the Change a. Adaptive capacity (having an ability to change to suit different conditions) b. Able to initiate changes that will create viable future for the organization c. Change adaptability d. Changing business requirements e. Able to lead change f. Re-determine the market g. Re-designing a product or service h. Work with others to initiate changes	• Being open to innovations • To have ability of change management
4. Flexible	• Being open to different ideas
5. Courageous a. Able to make courageous decisions proper for environmental conditions	• Being courageous
6. To Have Superior Acknowledgement of Market and Sector a. Wisdom b. Generic point of view c. Estimating available knowledge d. To determine the borders of the industry e. A conceptual thinking ability	• Able to follow the sector and competitors • Able to possess basic information about sector and business • Being experienced in port sector • Able to have detailed information about process in ports • Able to be close to improvements in port sector • Able to have information about competitors • Able to have information about market
7. Ability to Take Responsibility a. Determine effective intervention points	• Able to take responsibility by determining risk factors if required • Able to take initiative • Being decisive
8. Ability to influence others a. Able to influence others b. Having good relations	• Able to establish long term relationships depending on trust • Able to have superior communication skills • Able to have ability of persuasion • Being extraverted
9. Ability to motivate employees and communicate well a. Motivation b. Guiding the team to lead the change c. Leading and guiding group members to think strategically d. Able to make employees strengthen	• Able to share the success with others • Being supportive • Being a role model to his team
10. Effective Manager	• Able to have high management skills • Able to have management principles in the directions of performance indicators and objectives • Able to make a right decision at the right time
11. Self-Questioning and Self-Improvement	• Able to assume a failure • Able to research
12. Detachment	• Being detached • Being trustworthy
13. Restlessness	• Being quick in the implementation • Being proactive

Table 38: Literature and Answers of Panelists to the Second Question “According to you, what are characteristics that make a port manager a strategic leader?”

14. Analytical thinking ability a. To provide information from different sources: the different sources of information make easy to reach formulating real strategy	• Being result oriented • Able to think analytically
	• Being customer-oriented

Source: The Author

After the literature review, characteristics of strategic leaders are presented in fifteen headings as in the table. It can be said that the answers of panelists can be related to these characteristics. (1) Being visionary and future-oriented are the most considerable features of strategic leaders and the panelists also agree on this by expressing that strategic leaders should have the ability of creating a vision and envision the needs in the future. They also advocated that investments should be planned and based on the requirements of the future not of the present. It is determined that able to be pioneer should be under the first heading because one of the panelists stated that strategic managers should be pioneers of the sector by predicting the requirements of the port industry in the future. In addition, the panelists think that strategic managers should be (2) able to manage crisis and risks. When it is considered that uncertainty rises in crisis and risk increases in uncertainties, it can be stated that risk and crisis should be managed effectively by top managers. For these reasons they are linked with the feature of ability to cope with uncertainty. Another feature of strategic leaders is (3) able to manage and comply with the change. The panelists see being open to innovations and ability of change management as important characteristics of strategic leaders. Innovations can be considered as a significant factor effecting the change in port business hence strategic leaders should manage change successfully. Also (4) flexibility was accepted as another crucial feature of strategic leaders by the panelists. They advocate that being open to different ideas is a remarkable characteristic which strategic leader should have. Apart from them, (5) being courageous, (6) to have superior acknowledgement of market and the sector and (7) able to take responsibility are other characteristics of strategic leaders the panelists were demonstrated. Actually these seven features are connected with each other. It can be stated that being visionary and future-oriented require ability to cope with uncertainty since the future means an uncertain concept. To able to cope with uncertainty strategic leaders need

to manage change effectively because initiating changes will influence the uncertain future. And additionally initiating changes require flexibility in being open to different ideas and innovations; and require being courageous in order to make decisions for changes. If the change is mentioned, strategic leaders should have superior acknowledgement of market and sector owing to the fact that it is not possible to make the most correct decisions bringing success to the port without comprehensive knowledge of the improvements, competitors, business process and the market of the port sector. It is clearly seen that taking responsibility is a must for strategic leaders in order to make courageous decisions for the future of the port.

The panelists stated that ability to establish long term relations; ability of superior communication skills and persuasion; and being extraverted are needed to obtain by strategic leaders. As can be seen in table, these features are connected with (8) ability to influence others because it cannot be realized without these abilities. For instance, a top manager who does not possess ability of persuasion cannot make an impression on people. Additionally, if only extraverted people can persuade others. Another feature which strategic leaders are believed to have is (9) ability to motivate employees. The panelists stated that sharing the success with the team or others involved in the success is one of the most important features that make a port manager a strategic leader. It can be said that this approach of strategic leaders would motivate employees and team. In addition, with exhibiting this kind of behavior, they would be a role model to their team. What is more, strategic leaders are (10) effective managers and the panelists also stated that strategic leaders should have high management skills and principles. The answer “ability to make a right decision at the right time” which is demonstrated by the panelists is an additional feature related to effective manager.

While (11) self-questioning and self-improvement are considered as strategic leader’s characteristics in the literature, the panelists stated that ability to assume a failure and ability to research are features strategic leaders should have. It can be said that these features are connected with each other. If a strategic leader assumes a failure, this means he/she can criticize himself/herself. Additionally, if a strategic leader obtains to ability to research, this means he/she is open to improve himself/herself. Detachment means the state of not being influenced by other people or

by your own feelings (Oxford Dictionary, 2014). According to the literature and the answers of the panelists, (12) detachment is one of the most important characteristics of strategic leaders. The panelists also stated that reliability is also another important characteristic which can make a port manager a strategic leader. If a strategic leader is detached, he/she can gain other's trust. That's why the feature which is being trustworthy is connected with detachment. Apart from these features; a strategic leader is required to be restless. Being quick in the implementation which is one of the answers of the panelists is extremely related with (13) restlessness. Additionally, (14) thinking strategically and (15) analytically are stated as the features which make a port manager a strategic leader both in literature and in the answers of the panelists. Lastly, according to the panelists that a strategic leader in port should be customer oriented. This feature is not included in the literature. When the answers of the panelists to the first question are taken into consideration, it can be seen that the panelists advocated that the customers of ports have a comprehensive knowledge of the process of port management as stated before. For this reason, ports cannot be evaluated as the same as other industries in terms of managing customer relations. It is necessary to approach strategically to customers in port industry. In fact, being customer-oriented can be connected with eighth characteristic of strategic leaders which is ability to influence other.

Finally, **Table 39** demonstrates that the answers are compared with the literature review about features of strategic leaders. The answers of panelists can be categorized into seven topics which are explained in **Chapter 2** as factors of being an effective leader. Therefore, it can be stated that perceptions of top managers related to roles of strategic leaders comply with the literature.

Table 39:Literature and Answers of Panelists to Third Question “According to you, what are roles that a strategic leader should fulfill in port management?”

ROLES OF AN EFFECTIVE STRATEGIC LEADER IN LITERATURE		ANSWERS OF PANELISTS
1. Determining strategic direction		• To make an appropriate plan • To create a vision • To analyze recent situation and the future • To have acknowledgement on market strategies • To make feasibility • To predict future trends • To create a culture of strategic planning
2. Exploiting and maintaining core competencies		• To follow improvement in the sector • To follow improvements in the trade and maritime sectors • To increase both commercial and operational effectiveness and competitiveness of ports • To create a brand value with strategic marketing
3. Effectively managing human capital		• To provide and disseminate job security in the port field where it is categorized into dangerous organizations • To set explicit goals for the team they work with and delegate the responsibilities • To support employees with positive management and to help them for their personal development • To coordinate and integrate departments in management • To make a team in which people have differences, are well qualified and are able to create a synergy • To coach employees • To create a work environment which the company can reach medium and long term objectives • To increase commitment and satisfaction of employees
4. Sustaining effective corporate culture		• To support being participative • To create a culture of strategic planning • To create a common culture in the company
5. Emphasizing ethical practices		• To establish trust and commitment to management by protecting the rights of all employees • To manage fairly and consistently
6. Establishing balanced controls		• To make the company work productively in terms of budget target and capacity • To fulfill and maintain operations by determining sub refractions in an participative environment for the objective desired to achieve • To implement rules of total quality management
7. Investing in the development of new technologies		• To apply innovations related to port modernization if required • To invest in people, technology, consistency, sustainability and corporate memory which are proper for the future • To support being innovative • To follow closely technology, implementation and management systems
NOT INVOLVED IN THE LITERATURE	8. Port Stakeholder Relationship Management	• To establish reliable relationships with public organizations and non-governmental organizations because of corporate responsibility of ports • To establish courteous relationships with shipowners, custom brokers, carriers and shippers and to spread this consciousness to other managers • To keep finger on the pulse of customers who are life source for ports and to maintain their satisfaction • To disseminate customer relationship management to all personnel • To convince, guide and motivate port shareholders
	9. Environment	• To provide and disseminate environmental sensitivity about handling operations to be harmful for environment

Source: The Author

In the second chapter, the roles of strategic leaders were explained by being utilized from different sources. When the responses of the panelists were analyzed, it would be realized that all answers complied with these in the literature. These roles are (1) determining strategic direction, (2) exploiting and maintaining core

competencies, (3) effectively managing human capital, (4) sustaining effective corporate culture, (5) emphasizing ethical practices, (6) establishing balanced scorecard, (7) investing in the development of new technologies.

Determining strategic direction (1) is one important role of strategic leaders. According to answers of panelists, it can be demonstrated that to determine a strategic direction, they should firstly analyze recent situation and the future so that they can have acknowledgement on market strategies which guide them. Determining strategic direction requires predicting the future trends. Strategic leaders should create a vision for the port with these actions. After creating the vision, they should be capable of making feasibility and a strategic plan appropriate for this vision. That's why these answers given by port managers for the roles of strategic leaders are related to the role of determining strategic direction in the literature.

Another role of strategic leaders is exploiting and maintaining core competencies (2) of the port as can be seen in the literature. The some answers of panelists support the literature. Core competency is extremely connected with competitive advantage of organizations. In order to create a competitive advantage, strategic leaders should firstly follow improvements in trade and maritime sector. According to panelists, to increase both commercial and operational effectiveness and competitiveness of ports is one of the roles required to be fulfilled by strategic leaders. It can be said that strategic leaders would exploit and maintain core competencies by following improvement in the sector and increasing competitiveness of the port. It is an expected result to create a brand value with these strategic steps. Therefore strategic leaders can bring a value to organizations by fulfilling these responsibilities successfully.

Effectively managing human capital (3) is another role of strategic managers involved both in the literature and the answers of the panelists. Regarding the answers of the panelists, setting explicit goals for responsibilities of team is one of the important duties of strategic leaders. In the port industry, it is very crucial to comprehend job responsibilities because this industry cannot have a chance to compensate the mistakes. It can be said that setting explicit goals for employees indicates whether strategic leader manages human capital effectively or not. In addition, supporting and coaching employees is as important as setting explicit goals

in terms of effectively managing human capital. Employees are viewed as a capital resource so they are required to be supported with positive management so that this capital resource can help the organization to reach its goals and vision. In addition to support the team, increasing their commitment and satisfaction is an important duty for the organization success.

Achieving and sustaining competitiveness requires achieving the right fit in the teams. Some of the panelists indicated that strategic leaders should make a team in which people have differences, are well qualified and are able to create a synergy. The work environment is also another significant factor for the organization success. Therefore some panelists think that creating a work environment which the company can reach medium and long term objectives and coordinating departments effectively are crucial duties of strategic leaders.

Port industry is one of the most risky sectors in terms of job security. Panelists took the attention to this vital duty of strategic leaders. According to the answers, strategic leaders should provide and disseminate job security in the port field where it is categorized into dangerous organizations.

What is more, the duty of sustaining effective corporate culture (4) in literature is accepted as one of the most significant roles of strategic leaders by the panelists also. In order to sustain corporate culture, strategic leaders should support being participative. Additionally, to achieve the strategic goals of the organization and gain competitive advantage, strategic leaders should create a culture of strategic planning according to some of the panelists. Ethical practices are considerable parts of organizations' culture. Therefore, emphasizing ethical practice (5) involved in the literature is depicted as another role of strategic leaders. Some panelists advocated that managing fairly and consistently and establishing trust and commitment are duties of strategic leaders.

Establishing balanced control (6) covers both financial and strategic control of organizations. Some panelists advocated that financial control is the role of strategic leaders by giving importance to productivity for budget target of organizations while some of them thought that fulfilling and maintaining operations owing to achieve the objectives of organizations as a strategic control is the duty of strategic leaders. Finally, one of the panelists stated that implementation of total

quality management rules is also another important role of strategic leaders. Total quality management rules can be recognized as a control tool for organizations both financially and strategically.

Final role to be involved in both literature and responses of the panelists is investing in the development of new technologies (7). Innovation is vital for ports because of the fact that port performance depends on technological devices used in operations of both cargoes and vehicles. Therefore, some of the panelists demonstrated that strategic leaders should follow technology, implementation and management systems closely. Strategic leaders are visionary and future oriented people so they should invest in technology which is proper for the future.

Apart from these roles, the panelists gave some answers different from the literature. They are based on duties for customers, shareholders, stakeholders, corporate responsibility and environmental sensitivity which can be categorized under port stakeholder relationship management and environment shown in **Table 36**. It can be deduced from the answers that strategic leaders are considerable factors for ports regarding the relations with stakeholders.

3.4.2.2. Results of the Second Round of the Delphi Survey

APMO cut-off percentage rate for the second round Delphi survey has been found to be 93%. In other words, if the percentage of either “agreement” or “disagreement” for each statement is greater than 93 %, consensus is reached. Fifteen statements have been developed for the second round survey the nineteen opinions of panelists as to why it is important to have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports. These fifteen statements were used with the purpose of reaching a consensus on the view that characteristics of ports make possessing strategic leadership characteristics important in ports.

The first question proceeds to a following Delphi round in a revised state considering the answers of the panelists. These fifteen statements were aimed to reach consensus on which characteristics of ports make possessing strategic leadership features important in ports. Eleven of them reached the consensus whereas four of them did not (**See in Table 40**).

Table 40:Total Results of the Second Round Delphi Research

It is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports BECAUSE	No of Answers			No of Opinions Expressed				TOTAL RESULTS	
	Agree	Disagree	Unable to Comment	Agree		Disagree		Consensus	Non* Consensus
	N	N	N	N	%	N	%		
1. Ports are organizations of strategic importance due to their positions	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
2. Ports have a strategic importance in supply chain.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
3. Ports have a strategic importance by value added services they provide.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
4. Customer orientation is fundamental for ports.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
5. Ports are organizations with low customer loyalty.	4	5	1	4	44,4	5	55,6		44,4% (a) 55,6% (d) (Third Round applied)
6. Ports operate in an environment of extreme international integration.	9	1	0	9	90,0	1	10,0	<i>Partially agreed</i>	90,0% (a) 10,0% (d)
7. Initial investment decision in ports requires detailed knowledge, documentation and calculations.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
8. There is no stability in the short term in port sector so; it takes time to see the results of steps.	8	1	1	8	88,9	1	11,1	<i>Partially agreed</i>	88,9% (a) 11,1% (d)
9. Ports are organizations which are required to take an appropriate position in the long term.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
10. It is important that top managers guide ports' board of directors financially and make strategic decisions in this way in order that progress of port management can be healthy.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
11. The most important things in port management are planning the future and creating a vision.	9	0	1	9	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
12. Thanks to top managers who have strategic leadership qualifications, ports can engage in competition as well-equipped and minimize the risk.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
13. Ports are organizations which provide services in the market with high seasonal variability.	8	0	2	8	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	
14. Ports are organizations where workers have a tendency to quit (turnover rate).	4	5	1	4	44,4	5	55,6		44,4% (a) 55,6% (d) (Third Round applied)
15. Ports are organizations which have corporate responsibility apart from their commercial targets.	10	0	0	10	100,0	0	0,0	100 % agreed	

* (a): agree & (d): disagree

Table 40 reveals that 1st, 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 7th, 9th, 10th, 11th, 12th, 13th, and 15th statements have achieved the consensus with 100%. However, 5th, 6th, 8th, and 14th statements have not reached the consensus although 6th and 8th statements have reached the consensus partially. The non-consensus statements proceed to a following Delphi round in a revised state considering the answers of the panelists.

The first and second statements depict that ports' positions have a strategic importance both geographically and functionally, that's why it is important that top managers should possess strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management in ports. 100 % of the panelists have agreed on these statements. Also, third statement has been agreed by 100 % of the panelists. Third statement says why it is important to have features of strategic leadership in ports is because of the strategic importance of services ports provide.

All panelists have reached a consensus on the fourth statement that customer orientation is so important in ports that top managers should have strategic leadership qualifications in the management process. Nonetheless, they have not agreed on the fifth statement that low customer loyalty in port sector has a considerable effect on requirement of being strategic leader in ports. Therefore, it can be said that customers are strategic factors for ports however; it has not reached a consensus on that their loyalty or disloyalty is a reason why top managers should have strategic leadership characteristics in ports. This result may stem from the idea of some panelists that there are other determinants more important than strategic leadership in order to provide customer loyalty in port industry. In addition, strategic leadership may not affect customer loyalty directly in port industry because shipowners as customer of ports cannot always find out alternative ports in the same region so that they can be disloyal to the port. Moreover, it would not be easy to change the route in port industry due to comprehensive feasibilities and big amount of investments. On the other hand, strategic leaders are customer oriented according to responses of the panelists. Therefore high customer disloyalty requires characteristics of strategic leadership. Additionally, strategic leaders have the features of self-questioning and self-improvement. It can be demonstrated that disloyalty of customers can mean failure of the port. In this condition strategic leader can compensate this failure by questioning and developing himself because strategic leaders are responsible for the

organization success. Due to these differences of opinions it may not be reached a consensus on the fifth statement. What is more, the sixth statement has not reached a consensus. It can be stated that it has not been decided whether international integration is a cause why it is important that top managers have strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management or not. On the other hand, agreement percentage of the statement is very close to the APMO Cut-off Rate (93 %) with 88,9 %. It can be demonstrated that they have reached the *consensus partially* (See **Table 40**). International integration requires strategic leadership because international integration means a lot of competitors, more extensive services, big amount of vessels, cargoes and so customers, more bureaucracy, regulations and so on. In order to manage this internationality in all elements of port operations, top managers of ports should have strategic leadership qualifications. Strategic leaders can deal with this issue by their characteristics of being future-orientated to reach the level of other developed ports in the world, extensive knowledge of the industry to control that wider industry, courageous to take innovational steps etc.

Table demonstrates that all panelists have reached a consensus on the seventh statement. According to the statement, it is important to have strategic leader features in the strategic management process in ports due to one of the facts that first investment decisions in ports is required to detailed acknowledgement, documentation and calculations.

One of the statements which have not reached a consensus is the eighth statement. The statement depicts that there is no stability in the short term in port sector so; that it takes time to see the results of steps has not reached a consensus on whether it is a cause for the importance of being strategic leader in ports or not. However, agreement percentage of the statement is very close to the APMO Cut-off Rate (93 %) with 90 %. It can be stated that they have reached the *consensus partially* (See **Table 40**). Port sector is a global and extensive sector so there are various factors to be affected in this industry. It is an obvious outcome that stability cannot be maintained in the long term and then obtaining results of steps takes time. If there is no stability in the short term, uncertainty will rise. Therefore, strategic leadership characteristics should be possessed by top managers of ports since

strategic leaders are known with their ability to cope with uncertainty and comply with the change.

The ninth statement indicates that ports are organizations which are required to take an appropriate position in the long term, that's why it is important that top managers should possess strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management in ports. 100 % of the panelists have agreed on these statements. In addition, the tenth statement has reached a consensus with the percentage of 100. According to the statement, it is crucial that top managers possess strategic leadership qualifications in ports because it is vital that top managers of ports guide board of directors financially and make strategic decisions in this way in order that progress of port management can be healthy.

Apart from these reasons, all panelists have agreed on twelfth statement related to competition in port sector. According to results, ports can enter into competition as well-equipped and minimize the risk thanks to top managers who have strategic leadership qualifications. For this reason, it is important that top managers possess strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management process in ports. Also, the thirteenth statement has reached a consensus with 100 %. The panelists have agreed on that ports are organizations which provide service in the market in which seasonal variability is high hence it is significant to possess strategic leadership characteristics of top managers in ports. On the other hand, a consensus has not been reached for the fourteenth statement. With respect to the statement, that port labor tends to quit their jobs in port sector has not been decided whether it is a considerable reason why it is important to have strategic leadership features in ports or not. Although able to motivate, guide and lead employees are features of strategic leaders, there are other reasons why port employees want to quit their jobs. For example, when work load density and the risk factor about dangerous work field are considered, some other aspects of the issue can be easily realized. Hence, there are different determinants which strategic leaders cannot be influenced on but also there is an explicit situation that strategic leaders are responsible for their employees' commitment and satisfaction. Because of these different opinions it cannot be reached a consensus on this statement.

The final statement has reached a consensus with the percentage of 100. All panelists have agreed on that to have corporate responsibilities of ports apart from commercial meanings is one of the causes of why it is important that top managers have qualifications of strategic leadership in the process of strategic management.

3.4.2.3. Results of the Third Round of the Delphi Survey

The statements without consensus along with the answers of the panel members in the second round have been used to draw up the third round Delphi survey. APMO cut-off percentage rate for the third round Delphi survey has been found to be roughly 70 %. In other words, if the percentage of either “agreement” or “disagreement” for each statement is greater than 70 %, consensus is reached. One of the two statements “It is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports because ports are organizations which port labor tends to quit their jobs” has been reached a consensus with the rate of 83,3 %. Other statement “It is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports because ports are organizations which customer loyalty is low” has not reached a consensus.

Table 41:Total Results of The Third Round Delphi Research

It is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports BECAUSE	Number of Answers			Number of Opinions Expressed				TOTAL RESULTS	
	Agree	Disagree	Unable to Comment	Agree		Disagree		Consensus	Non Consensus*
	N	N	N	N	%	N	%		
5.Ports are organizations with low customer loyalty.	5	1	1	5	83,3	1	16,7	83,3 % agreed	
14. Ports are organizations where workers have a tendency to quit.	4	3	0	4	57,1	3	42,9		57,1% (a) 42,9% (d)

* (a): agree & (d): disagree

Source: The Author

The majority of the panelists believe that customer loyalty is low in port business. They suggested that port managers can deal with this situation with gaining strategic leader characteristics. One of the panelists stated that it would be hard to

provide customer loyalty if there are a few ports in the same region. There are different parameters to sustain customer loyalty. However, the most important two factors providing this are price and port performance. Top managers of ports in a competitive region should make strategic decisions on firstly price (profitability, cost, average of the market and etc.) and following port performance. They have to exhibit leader behaviors and make decisions in order to sustain these parameters. It can be said that customer is one of the most significant elements of ports. As customer loyalty depends on how successfully ports are managed by top managers. Ports are strategic organizations and all decisions and elements should be considered strategically. That's why ports should be managed by strategic leaders owing to deal with firstly disloyalty of customer and then other issues. It can be deduced from the comment that strategic leaders should effectively manage customer relationship which is one of the most important parameters indicating the success and efficiency of ports.

The following statement has not reached a consensus. One of the panelists depicted that turnover rate is actually low in prospering ports. The leading two factors motivating the employees are salaries and workplace environment. To improve these factors decrease the rate of job changing. Nonetheless, they are directly proportionate to port income. A high income ports can provide the satisfaction of employees but it would be hard to provide this in small sized companies. Leadership characteristics of managers can affect employees within limits. However, salary policy of the port is one of the determining factors. Despite the fact that managers have strategic leadership qualities, it cannot be possible to prevent job changes of employees if port does not have economic power. At the same time, not to enhance workplace environment because of economic reasons can be a considerable cause to quit their jobs. In risky port environment, human resource would be much more significant. That's why port managers as strategic leaders need to manage human resource successfully even though strategic leaders are not the only element affecting turnover rate.

As a conclusion, strategic leadership has an influence on customer loyalty directly whereas port labor desiring to quit jobs can be affected by some other factors

like salaries and workplace environment on which strategic leaders cannot be direct impacts. That is why a consensus could not be reached for this statement.

3.4.3. Evaluation of the Delphi Research

The aim of the Delphi research is to examine the perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in Turkish private ports. To meet the aim of the research, the three round Delphi survey was conducted. The first round Delphi survey is aimed to obtain the results concerning whether it is important that top managers should have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports or not; what are features that make a top manager a strategic leader in ports; and which duties strategic leader should fulfill in the port management process. The second round Delphi survey is also aimed to get information about why it is important to have strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management in ports. Finally the third round Delphi survey is conducted in order to reach a consensus on two statements which have not been reached a consensus in the second round Delphi survey.

In order to design the Delphi survey questions, port industry and management, strategic leadership and strategic leadership in port management are researched comprehensively by literature review. It has been realized that there is a lack of research on strategic leadership in Turkish private ports. Therefore, it has been aimed to analyze perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in ports. Firstly literatures of strategic leadership and port management have been integrated in the first chapter so that responses of the panelists and the literature review can be compared and analyzed successfully. First question of the first round Delphi survey is aimed to analyze perceptions of top managers concerning the importance of strategic leadership in ports. The answers of the panelists are designed to likert based interval scale survey in order to reach a consensus on the sub statements of the preposition of this study in two rounds. The answers of the second and third questions are just aimed to analyze the perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership.

According to results of the first question of the first round Delphi survey, all panelists agreed on that it is important to have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports. Different opinions have been expressed by panelists concerning why it is important that top managers should have strategic leadership characteristics in ports. In addition, these opinions were asked panelists for reaching a consensus in the second round of the Delphi survey.

It is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports because ports are organizations which customer loyalty is low. Providing customer loyalty in port business is difficult if there are a lot of ports in the same region. Price and port performance are the most significant effects on customer loyalty. Customers are indicators reflecting the port success. That is why they are the most important elements of ports. Ports are strategic organizations and all decisions and elements should be considered strategically. Therefore, it can be concluded that ports should be managed by strategic leaders owing to deal with firstly disloyalty of customer and then other issues.

Additionally, it is important that top managers have strategic leadership characteristics in the process of strategic management in ports because ports are in the sector in which international integration is extreme. This means that being international integrity requires strategic leadership characteristics. Ports can have interaction relations with all over the world with coming ships and cargoes to the port. These shipowners and cargo owners can have a chance to get service from different ports in the world. Therefore, a port has to compete with all ports in the world. Strategic leaders are top managers who are future oriented and have superior acknowledgement of sector involving competitors, customers, process and improvements in ports. In order to manage an international integrated port successfully, top managers should have strategic leadership characteristics because strategic leaders can envision where world trade are going to and what will needed in the future. Moreover, strategic leaders have extensive acknowledgement of competitors, customers and involvements.

What is more, it is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports because there is no

stability in the short term in port sector so; it takes time to see the results of taken steps. Ports are international and fragile businesses and also they are connected to world trade activities. Therefore, ports can be affected by various factors and it is difficult to maintain the stability in the long term. This means there are high uncertainty and risk in the port sector. Able to cope with uncertainty and risk management are strategic leadership characteristics. So it can be said that top managers in ports should have strategic leadership features so that they can cope with the instability in the port sector.

There is no consensus on whether it is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports due to the fact that ports are organizations which port labor tends to quit their jobs. It is important that top managers have strategic leadership characteristics in port management; however this requirement is not a reason of that port labor tends to quit their jobs. It can be stated that the differences of opinions may stem from the role managing human capital effectively of strategic leaders. Additionally, the panelists are managers from different sized ports possessing different economic conditions. Their perceptions can differ from ports they manage. One panelist stated that salary and workplace environment are the most effective elements influencing their choices for changing jobs. Panelists managing in big sized ports can ignore this economic factor. Apart from economic conditions managers are the most relevant factor affecting port labor. Therefore, some panelists may focus on strategic leadership characteristics.

When the second and third questions of the first round Delphi survey are concerned, it can be stated that the perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership characteristics and roles of strategic leaders were obtained. As a result, it is determined that their perceptions are connected to the literature apart from some exceptions. Regarding strategic leadership characteristics, some panelists demonstrated that being customer oriented is a feature of strategic leadership. However, this feature was not covered in the literature. They also attracted attention to customer in the third question of the first round Delphi survey. They stated that strategic leaders should disseminate customer relationship management to all personnel and keep finger on the pulse of customers who are life source for ports and

to maintain their satisfaction. Nevertheless, this customer satisfaction and customer relationship management are not involved in the literature as roles of strategic leaders. It can be result in that customers of ports are qualified with acknowledgement of the sector and they bring in ports big amount of income.

As a conclusion, position, customer, service, being international integrated, requirement of extensive investment decision and feasibility, need to be visionary, excessive competition, risk factor, human capital and corporate responsibility of ports are main titles which can be considered as reasons why it is important to have strategic leadership characteristics in ports.

3.4.4. Limitations and Further Research

This study examined perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in Turkish private ports by using the Delphi technique. Some limitations have been faced in this research process.

The first and the most compelling limitation of the study was the time constraint. The research first planned to assess perceptions of both top managers and employees about strategic leadership. However, only top managers were included in the research due to the time constraint. In addition, responses of surveys were needed to gather and analyzed as soon as possible because of this constraint. Nevertheless, another limitation was faced in the process of collecting the answers. The sample of the study covered top managers of ports. Therefore, they were so busy to answer the survey. That's why 12 panelists answered the first round Delphi survey among 44 top managers who the survey was sent and ten panelists responded to the second round Delphi survey thanks to more than once reminding telephones and e-mails. What is more, another constraint faced was limited literature on strategic management and strategic leadership in port management. Improvement of literature review on this subject was obstructed in this research. Finally, the number of ports was not proper for quantitative research so this limitation direct the study to Delphi research as one of the qualitative research.

The importance of strategic management has been increasing in the port sector. Most of the port companies have published their strategic plans in the world.

Strategic leadership has become more important as an important factor of the strategic management process in port sector. Considering these improvements, the scope of the research should be expanded. Perceptions of employees related to strategic leadership should be included in the further research. The findings may reflect the general opinions of top managers of private ports about the strategic leadership; however, strategic leadership qualifications are also important for top managers in public ports. Further study may focus on in-depth analysis of the strategic leadership qualifications of public port managers and differences or similarities of public and private port managers in this concept. Additionally this Delphi research as a qualitative research would guide for further research aiming to measure perceptions of port labors regarding strategic leadership by utilizing quantitative methods.

CONCLUSION

Port industry is one of the most crucial parts of the maritime transportation without a shadow of a doubt due to the fact that approximately 90 % of the world trade has been provided by maritime transportation which is considered as a global sector. In addition, it is an undeniable fact that ports have a strategic importance in this transportation chain. When this situation is taken into consideration, it can be stated that ports are necessary to be managed successfully and effectively. Top managers who are responsible for administration of ports are expected to have leadership qualifications.

On the other hand, strategic leadership which is one of the most significant elements of strategic management and the most important factor especially in strategic implementation stage of strategic management process has attracted attention of researchers recently. Considering the strategic importance of ports, strategic management is necessary to be implemented by top managers of ports. Additionally, ports have been dealing with a lot of risks and uncertainties. Strategic leaders bring in organizations competitive advantage by managing companies successfully especially in uncertain environments. It is clear that ports should be managed by managers displaying strategic leadership behaviors in order to be adapted well to this kind of sectoral difficulties. What is more, strategic leaders are top managers coming through requirements if the change is essential in this uncertain industry. Ports are required big amount of investments so it is vital to decide which steps should be taken and when it is the right time to invest in port industry. Therefore, the need of that top managers of ports have strategic leadership characteristics is arises. To examine perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in Turkish private ports is aimed in this study. According to the results of the Delphi research carried out in a sample of top managers of ports concerning the perceptions on whether it is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports or not if yes, why it is important; what are features that make a top manager a strategic leader in ports; and which duties strategic leader should fulfill in the port management process. The details of the research are as follows:

The main object of the study is strategic leadership in Turkish ports. In order to connect strategic leadership and port management, firstly the comprehensive literature on both global and local port industry and port management has been researched. Secondly strategic management and strategic leadership concepts have been depicted with subtitles. Strategic leadership is an important part of the strategic management process. That's why literature on strategic management has been also presented. Especially, strategic leadership roles and characteristics have been emphasized so that the literature can guide the research design. Finally, port management and strategic leadership have been harmonized. Strategic leadership characteristics and duties in port management have been searched out.

The first round Delphi survey is designed to analyze perceptions of top managers related to strategic leadership in port management. The survey covered three questions which the first one proceeded to following two round Delphi survey and the second and third one were aimed to get opinions of panelists on strategic leader characteristics and roles in ports.

It is considerably important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports. There are several opinions to be expressed why it is important to have strategic leadership characteristics in ports. When the opinions are categorized, it can be stated that position of ports, being customer-oriented, ports' services, being international integrated, extensive investment decision and feasibility of ports, vision, competition, risk, and corporate responsibility of ports are reasons why it is important that top managers should be strategic leaders in ports. However, there are also some statements not to reach a consensus on why it is important to possess characteristics of strategic leadership in strategic management process in ports in the second round Delphi survey. Although being customer-oriented is considered as a reason why being a strategic leader in ports is important, that customer loyalty is low in port sector cannot reach a consensus on whether it is important or not. However, the consensus on this statement has been reached in the final round of Delphi survey. It can be said that strategic leaders also play an important role in customer loyalty for ports. Moreover, whether international integration of ports is a reason why top managers should have qualifications of strategic leadership in ports or not has not

reach a consensus. However, it can be considered as being agreed on that it is a reason owing to the fact that it is very close to the APMO Cut-off Rate (93 %) with 90 %. Partial opinions of panelists reveal that ports are international organizations so they are needed to be administrated by a leader who has strategic leadership qualifications. What is more, the statement that “it is important to have strategic leadership qualifications in ports because there is no stability in the short term in port sector so; it takes time to see the results of steps” has not reached a consensus but it also has been partially agreed on that it is a reason because it is also very close to the APMO Cut-off Rate (93 %) with 90 %. They partially think that unbalance in port sector requires to be managed by a strategic leader. The statement “it is important that top managers have strategic leadership qualifications in the process of strategic management in ports since ports are organizations which port labor tends to quit their jobs” has not reach a consensus. Effectively managing human resource is a role of strategic leaders. However, panelists have not decide on whether tendency to quit job is a cause why it is important to be a strategic leader in ports or not according to results of the second and third round Delphi surveys.

In ports, strategic leaders should be visionary and future-oriented, able to cope with uncertainty, able to manage and comply with the change, flexible, able to manage others, able to motivate employees and communicate well, an effective manager, self-questioning and self-improvement, detachment, able to think strategically, to have superior acknowledgement of market and sector, able to take responsibility and able to think analytically. These characteristics are also stated in the literature. Nonetheless, there is a characteristic of a strategic leader in ports which panelists expressed in the first round Delphi survey. It is being customer orientated. Hence, it can be said that being customer oriented is a considerable qualification that strategic leaders of ports should have.

In ports, expressions of panelists can be categorized under the headings of determining strategic direction, exploiting managing human capital, sustaining effective corporate culture, establishing balanced controls, investing in the development of new technologies are the main responsibilities that strategic leaders of ports should take as the same as in the literature. However, there are some duties not involved in the literature. Establishing reliable relations with public organizations

and non-governmental organizations because of corporate responsibility of ports; establishing courteous relationships with stakeholders as shipowners, custom brokers, carriers and shippers; maintaining customer satisfaction and disseminating customer relationship management to all personnel; keeping awareness of managers high; convincing, guiding, and motivating shareholders; and providing and disseminating environmental sensitivity about handling operations to be harmful for environment are considered as important roles of strategic leadership in ports.

In conclusion, strategic leadership is a considerable concept in the process of strategic management especially in ports because of the fact that ports have a strategic importance in maritime transportation system in terms of requirements of strategic position, detailed investment process, long-term investment, internationality, volatility in ports sector. According to the results it can be demonstrated that top managers of ports have acknowledgement of strategic leadership concept and are aware of that strategic leadership should be extremely taken into consideration in ports. Nevertheless, top managers of ports should not force themselves for duties they are not responsible for. They should recognize well the content of strategic leadership so that they can fulfill their major responsibilities properly. Therefore, they can be more beneficial to ports they manage.

REFERENCES

- Abell, D.F. (2006). The Future of Strategy Is Leadership. *Journal of Business Research*. 59: 310-314.
- Akat, İ., Budak, G. and Budak G. (1994). *İşletme Yönetimi*. İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım.
- Aksoy, Ö.M. and Terzi, N. (2008). Liman Hizmet Tarifeleri, Liman Otoritesi ve Türkiye’deki Uygulama. *Konteyner Deniz ve Liman İşletmeciliği* (ss. 429-447). Editor Murat Erdal. İstanbul: Beta.
- Alderton, P.M. (2005). *Port Management and Operations*. London: LLP.
- Altaş Limanı. www.altasliman.com/en/sirket_profil_i_yonetim.php 25.08.2014
- Anıl, İ. and Tayşir, E.A. (2007). Stratejist Kavramı Üzerine Bir Tartışma Ve Türkçe Karşılık Önerisi.15. *Ulusal Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (ss.2-11).Sakarya Üniversitesi.İ.İ.B.F. İşletme Bölümü. Sakarya.
- Ansoff, H. Igor and Edward J. McDonell(1988). *The New Corporate Strategy*. USA: John Wiley & Sons.
- Aslan, Ş., Diken, A. and Şendoğdu, A.A. (2011). Investigation of the Effects of Strategic Leadership on Strategic Change and Innovativeness of SMEs in a Perceived Environmental Uncertainty. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 24: 627–642.
- Avolio, B.J., Walumbwa, F.O., and Weber, T.J. (2009). Leadership: Current Theories, Research, and Future Directions. *The Annual Review of Psychology*. 60: 421-449.

Baik, Y.S. (2004). *The Impact of Signal-Based Strategic Leadership on Research and Development Search Behavior*. Purdue University. Doctorate Dissertation.

Bakoğlu, R. (2010). *Çağdaş Stratejik Yönetim*. İstanbul: Beta.

Baltazar, R. and Brooks, M.R. (2007). Port Governance, Devolution and the Matching Framework: A Configuration Theory Approach. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 379-403.

Barca, M. (2005). Stratejik Yönetim Düşüncesinin Evrimi: Bilimsel Bir Disiplin Oluşum Hikayesi. *Yönetim Araştırmaları Dergisi*. 5 (1): 7-38.

Barca, M. (2007). Stratejik Yönetim Alanında Bilimsel İlerlemenin İzini Sürmek, 15. *Ulusal Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (pp.19-23). Sakarya Üniversitesi.İ.İ.B.F. İşletme Bölümü. Sakarya.

Bass, B.M. (2000). The Future of Leadership in Learning Organizations. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*. 7 (3): 18-40.

Bass, B.M. (2007). Executive and Strategic Leadership. *International Journal Of Business*. 12 (1): 33-52.

Bichou, K. And Gray, R. (2004). A Logistics and Supply Chain Management Approach to Port Performance Measurement. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 31 (1): 47-67.

Bichou, K. and Gray, R. (2005). A Critical Review of Conventional Terminology for Classifying Seaports. *Transportation Research A*. 39: 75-79

Bichou, K. (2007). Review of Port Performance Approaches and A Supply Chain Framework to Port Performance Benchmarking. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 567-598.

Bichou, K. (2009). *Port Operations, Planning and Logistics*. London: Informa.

Bircan, İ. (2002). Kamu Kesiminde Stratejik Yönetim ve Vizyon. *DPT Planlama Dergisi*. Özel Sayı - DPT'nin Kuruluşunun 42. Yılı.

Blair, J.D. and Rivera, J.B. (1992). A Stakeholder Management Perspective on Strategic Leadership. *Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-Level Perspective* (pp.81-98). Editors Robert L. Phillips and James G. Hunt . Westport: Quorum Books.

Blake, R.R. and Mouton, J.S. (1985). *The Managerial Grid III*. Houston: Gulf.

Bloem, M.; Van Putten, S.; Deveci, A. and Tuna, Okan. (2013). *Maritime Turkey: Market Research*. Rotterdam: Strichting Nederland Maritime Land.

Boal, K. B. and Hooijberg, R. (2000). Strategic Leadership Research: Moving on. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 11(4): 515–549.

Boal, K.B. and Schultz, P.L. (2007). Storytelling, Time, and Evolution: The Role of Strategic Leadership in Complex Adaptive Systems. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 18: 411-428.

Bolt, J.F. and Brassard, C. (2004). Learning at the Top: How CEOs Set the Tone for the Knowledge Organization. *Leading Organizational Learning: Harnessing the Power of Knowledge* (pp. 161-174). Editors Marshall Goldsmith, Howard Morgan, and Alexander J. Ogg. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Bovee, C.L., Thill, J.V., and Mescon, M.H. (2007). *Excellence in Business*. 3.Ed. Upper Saddle River: Prentice Hall.

Branch, Alan E. (1986). *Elements of Port Operation and Management*. New York: Chapman and Hall.

Brooks, M.R. and Cullinane, K. (2007). Governance Models Defined. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 405-435.

Brooks, M.R. (2007). Issues in Measuring Port Devolution Program Performance: A Managerial Perspective. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 599-629.

Brooks, M.R. and Pallis, A.A. (2008). Assessing Port Governance Models: Process And Performance Components. *Maritime Policy and Management*. 35(4): 411-432.

Brooks, M.R.; Schellinck, T. and Pallis, A.A. (2011). A Systematic Approach for Evaluating Port Effectiveness. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 38 (3): 315-334.

Byars, L.L. (1987). *Strategic Management: Planning and Implementation Concepts and Cases*. 2.Ed. New York: Harper&Row.

Cambridge Dictionary.

www.dictionary.cambridge.org/dictionary/british/stakeholder_1?q=stakeholder25.08.2014

Cerit, A.G. (2005). Marketing Strategies in Shipping. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 553-828). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: LLP.

Certo, S.C. and Peter, J.P (1991). *Strategic Management Concepts and Applications*. 2.Ed. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Cepolina, S. and Ghiara, H. (2013). New Trends in Port Strategies: Emerging Role for ICT Infrastructures. *Research in Transportation and Management*. 8: 195-205.

Chen, S.-L. (2009). Port Administrative Structure Change Worldwide: Its Implication for Restructuring Port Authorities in Taiwan. *Transport Reviews: A Transnational Transdisciplinary Journal*. 29 (2): 163-181.

Christiansen, M.; Fagerholt, K.; Nygreen, B. and Ronen, D. (2007). Maritime Transport. *Handbook in OR & MS*. 14: 189-284.

Clardy, A. 2007. Strategy, Core Competencies and Human Resource Development. *Human Resource Development International*. 10(3): 339–349.

Clawson, J.G. (2003). *Level Three Leadership: Getting Below the Surface*. 2.Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Clegg, S.; Carter, C., Kornberger M., and Schweitzer, J. (2011). *Strategy Theory & Practice*. Los Angeles: Sage.

Commission of the European Communities (2001). Communication from the Commission to the European Parliament and the Council. *Reinforcing Quality Services in Sea Ports: A Key for European Transport*. COM Brussels. 35 Final.

Crossan, M., Vera, D. and Nanjad, L. (2008). Transcendent Leadership: Strategic Leadership in Dynamic Environments. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 19: 569-581.

Cullinane, K. (2005). The Productivity and Efficiency of Ports and Terminals: Methods and Applications. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 803-828). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: LLP.

Çağlar, V.; Esmer, Soner and Oral, E.Z. (2010). Özelleştirme ve Özelleştirme Aşamasında Olan Limanların Sektörel İncelenmesi. *Türkiye'nin Kıyı ve Deniz Alanları VIII. Ulusal Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (pp. 925-935). Tabzon.

Daft: R.L. (2006). *The New Era of Management*. International Edt. Ohio: Thomson.

Dalkey, N. and Helmer, O. (2002). An Experimental Application of the Delphi Method to the Use of Experts. *Management Science*. 9 (3): 458-467.

Davies, B.J. and Davies, B. (2004). Strategic Leadership. *School Leadership & Management*. 24 (1): 29-38.

David, F.R. (2003). *Strategic Management Concepts & Cases*. 9th Edt. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Davids, M. 1995. Where Style Meets Substance. *Journal o f Business Strategy*, 16(1): 48-60.

Denktas Sakar, G. and Karatas-Cetin, C. (2012). Port Sustainability and Stakeholder Management in Supply Chains: A Framework of Resource Dependence Theory. *The Asian Journal of Shipping and Logistics*. 28 (3): 301-320.

Dess, G.G. and Lumpkin, G.T. (2003). *Strategic Management: Creating Competitive Advantages*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Diken, A., Öge, H.S., and Öztürk, Y.E. (2007). Stratejik Hedefleri Gerçekleştirmede Yöneticilerin Mektepli-Alaylı Oluşu İle İlgili Bir Araştırma.15. *Ulusal Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (pp.904-910).Sakarya Üniversitesi.İ.İ.B.F. İşletme Bölümü. Sakarya.

Dimitrios, N.K., Sakas, D.P. and Vlachos, D.S. (2013a). Analysis of Strategic Leadership Models in Information Technology. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 73: 268 – 275.

Dimitrios, N.K., Sakas, D.P. and Vlachos, D.S. (2013b). Analysis of Strategic Leadership Simulation Models in Non-profit Organizations. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 73: 276 – 284.

Dinçer, Ö. (2003). *Stratejik Yönetim ve İşletme Politikası*. 6.Ed. İstanbul: Beta.

Denizcilik Müsteşarlığı: Deniz Ticareti Genel Müdürlüğü. (2010). *Türk Limanları İçin Liman Yönetimi Modeli Oluşturulması Hakkında Rapor*. Ankara: TC Başbakanlık Denizcilik Müsteşarlığı.

Dooms, M; Macharis, C. and Verbeke, A. (2004). Proactive Master-Planning in Ports: Empirical Evidence from the Port of Brussels. *Proceedings of The International Association of Maritime Economists Annual Conference 2004* (pp. 1145-1164). İzmir: Dokuz Eylül.

DPT. (2007). T.C. Başbakanlık Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı. *Denizyolu Ulaşımı Özel İhtisas Komisyonu Raporu*. DPT-ÖİK678. Ankara.

Edosomwan, J.A. (2009). *Strategic Leadership and Innovation in High Technology Firms*. Leadership Institute of University of Miami. White Paper Series.

Erkuş, A. (2012). Stratejik Yönetim ve Liderlik. *İşletmelerde Stratejik Yönetim* (pp.215-248). Editors Fevzi Okumuş et al. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Esmer, S. (2009). *Konteyner Terminallerinde Lojistik Süreçlerin Optimizasyonu Ve Bir Simülasyon Modeli*. (Published Doctoral Dissertation). İzmir: Institute of Social Sciences of Dokuz Eylül University.

Esmer, S. and Karataş-Çetin, Ç. (2013). Liman İşletme Yönetimi. *Denizcilik İşletmeleri Yönetimi* (pp.379-415). Editors A. Güldem Cerit et al. İzmir: Beta.

Estache A. and Trujillo, L. (2009). Global Economic Changes and The Future of Port Authorities. *Future Challenges For The Port and Shipping Sector* (pp. 69-87). Editors Hilde Meersman; Eddy Van Der Voorde; Thierry Vanelsländer. London: Informa.

EUPAN. (2006). *Leadership and the Lisbon Strategy – A Missing Link in the Public Sector?*.A Report from the Human Resources Working Group.

Fiedler, F.E. (1967). *A Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*. New York: McGraw-Hill.

Flynn, M.; Lee, P.T.; and Notteboom, T.E. (2011). The Next Step on the Port Generations Ladder: Customer-Centric and Community Port. *Current Issues in Shipping, Ports and Logistics* (pp. 497-510). Editor Theo Notteboom. Antwerp: UPA.

Frankel, E.G. (1987). *Port Planning and Development*. Canada: John Wiley and Sons.

Freeman, R.E. (1984). *Strategic Management: A Stakeholder Approach*. Boston: Pitman.

Gaur, P. (2005). *Port Planning as a Strategic Tool: A Typology*.(Unpublished Master's Dissertation). Antwerp: Institute of Transport and Maritime Management Antwerp University of Antwerp.

Greenberg, J. and Baron, R.A. (2003). *Behavior in Organizations: Understanding and Managing the Human Side of Work*. 8.Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Guzman, P.M. (2007). *Strategic Leadership: Qualitative Study Of Contextual Factors And Transformational Leadership Behaviors Of Chief Executive Officers*. (Doctoral Dissertation). School of Advanced Studies of University of Phoenix.

Günlü, E. and Okumuş, F. (2012). Stratejilerin Uygulanması ve Değişim Yönetimi. *İşletmelerde Stratejik Yönetim* (pp.215-248). Editors Fevzi Okumuş et al. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Gürer, H. (2006). Stratejik Planlamanın Temelleri ve Türk Kamu Yönetiminde Uygulanmasına Yönelik Öneriler. *Sayıştay Dergisi*. 63: 91-105.

Gürüz, D. and Gürel E. (2006). *Yönetim ve Organizasyon: Bireyden Örgüte, Fikirden Eyleme*. Ankara: Nobel Yayın.

Hambrick, D. & Mason, P. (1984). Upper echelons: The organization as a Reflection of its Top Managers. *Academy of Management Review*. 9: 193-206.

Hambrick, D. and Pettigrew, A. (2001). Upper Echelons: Donald Hambrick on Executives and Strategy. *Academy of Management Executive*. 15(3): 36-44.

Haralambides, H.E. and Veenstra, A.W. (2005). Port Pricing. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 782-802). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: LLP.

Haugstetter, H. and Cahoon, S. (2010). Strategic Intent: Guiding Port Authorities to Their New World?. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 27: 30-36.

Heaver, T.; Meersman, H.; Moglia, F. and Van De Voorde, E. (2000). Do Mergers and Alliances Influence European Shipping and Port Competition?. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 27 (4): 363-373.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. (1974). So You Want to Know Your Leadership Style? *Training and Development Journal*. February: 1-15.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K.H. and Johnson, D.E. (2001). *Management of Organizational Behavior: Leading Human Resources*. 8th Edt. Upper Saddle River, NJ: Prentice Hall.

Hill, D.P.; Scrase T.J. and Wells, A. (2008). Privatization and Labour Relations in Asian Ports: The Case of Port Klang, Malaysia. *Port Privatisation: The Asia-Pacific Experience* (pp. 94-109). Editors James Reveley and Malcolm Tull. USA: Edward Elgar.

Hitt, M.A. and Keats, B.W. (1992). Strategic Leadership and Restructuring: A Reciprocal Interdependence. *Strategic Leadership: A Multiorganizational-Level Perspective* (pp.45-61). Editors Robert L. Phillips and James G. Hunt. Westport: Quorum Books.

Hitt, M.A. and Ireland, R.D. (2002). The Essence of Strategic Leadership: Managing Human and Social Capital. *The Journal of Leadership and Organizational Studies*. 9 (1): 3-14.

Hitt, M. A., Keats, B. W., & DeMarie, S. M. (1998). Navigating in the New Competitive Landscape: Building Strategic Flexibility and Competitive Advantage in the 21st Century. *Academy of Management Executive*. 12(4): 22-42.

Hitt, M.A., Ireland, R.D., and Hoskisson, R.E. (2003). *Strategic Management: Competitiveness and Globalization*. 5.Edt. USA: Thomson.

Hitt, M.A., Haynes, K.T. and Serpa, R. (2010). Strategic Leadership for the 21st Century. *Business Horizons*. 53: 437-444.

House, R.J. (1971). A Path-Goal Theory of Leader Effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly*. September: 321-338.

House, R.J. and Aditya, R.N. (1997). The Social Scientific Study Of Leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*. 2(23): 409-473.

Hughes, R.L. and Beatty, K.C. (2005). *Becoming a Strategic Leader: Your Role in Your Organization's Enduring Success*. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

ICS (The Institute of Chartered Shipbrokers) (2011/2012). *Economic of Sea Transport and International Trade*. Scotland: Witherby.

Ircha, M.C. (2001). Port Strategic Planning: Canadian Port Reform. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 28 (2): 125-140.

Ireland, R.D. and Hitt, M.A. (1999). Achieving and Maintaining Strategic Competitiveness in the 21st Century: The Role of Strategic Leadership. *Academy of Management Executive*. 13(1): 43-57.

Ireland, R.D. and Hitt, M.A. (2005). Achieving and Maintaining Strategic Competitiveness in The 21st Century: The Role of Strategic Leadership. *Academy of Management Executive*. 19 (4): 63-76.

Johns, G. and Saks, A.M. (2001). *Organizational Behaviour*. 5.Edt. Toronto: Addison Wesley Longman.

Johnson, Gery; Scoles, K.; and Whittington, R. (2008). *Exploring Corporate Strategy*. 8. Edt. England: Prentice Hall.

Johnson, Gery; Scoles, K.; and Whittington, R. (2009). *Fundamentals of Strategy*. England: FT Prentice Hall.

Jooste, C. and Fouries B. (2009). The role of strategic leadership in effective strategy implementation: Perceptions of South African strategic leaders. *Sothorn African Business Review*. 13 (3): 51-68.

Kalkan, A. and Bozkurt, Ö.Ç. (2013). The Choice and Use of Strategic Planning Tools and Techniques in Turkish SMEs According to Attitudes of Executives. *Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 99: 1016-1025.

Kaplan, R.S. and Norton, D.P. (1992). The Balanced Scorecard: Measures that Drive Performance. *Harvard Business Review*. January-February: 71-79.

Kaplan, Robert S. (2002) Building Strategy Focused Organizations with the Balanced Scorecard. *Harvard Business Review*. 2003.

Karatas-Cetin, .C. and Cerit, A.G. (2010a). Organizational Change and Effectiveness in Seaports from a Systems Viewpoint. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 947-984). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: Lloyd's List.

Karatas-Cetin, .C. and Cerit, A.G. (2010b). Organizational Effectiveness at Seaports: A Sytems Approach. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 37 (3): 195-219.

Karataş-Çetin, Ç. (2012). *Limanlarda Örgütsel Değişim ve Değer Zinciri Sistemlerinde Etkililik Analizi*. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Yayınları.

Karatas-Cetin, C. (2012). Port and Logistics Chains: Changes in Organizational Effectiveness. *Maritime Logistics* (pp. 233-269). Editors Dong-Wook Song and Photis M. Panayides. USA: Kogan Page.

Kıyak, M., Bozaykut, T., Güngör, P., and Akta, A. (2011). Strategic Leadership Styles and Organizational Financial Performance: A Qualitative Study on Private Hospitals. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 24: 1521–1529.

Kia, M.; Shayan, E. and Ghotb, F. (2000). The Importance of Information Technology in Port Terminal Operations. *International Journal of Physical Distribution & Logistics Management*. 30 (3/4): 331-344.

Klimoski, R. J., & Koles, K. L. K. (2001). The Chief Executive Officer and Top Management Team Interface. *The nature of organizational leadership: Understanding the performance imperatives confronting today's leaders* (pp. 219-269). Editors In S. J. Zaccaro & R. J. Klimoski. San Francisco: Jossey-Bass.

Kotter, J.P. (1990a). What Leaders Really do? *Harvard Business Review*. May-June: 103-111.

Kotter, J.P. (1990b). *A Force for Change: How Leadership Differs from Management*. New York: Free Press.

Kutz, M.R. (2006). *Importance of Leadership Competencies And Content for Athletic Training Education and Practice: A Delphi Technique And National Survey*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Lynn University.

Küçükosmanoğlu, Ö.; Tür, R. and Küçükosmanoğlu, A. (2013). Türkiye'deki Limanların Konumlarının Çevresel ve Ekonomik Açıdan Değerlendirilmesi. *I. Ulusal Liman Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (ss.275-289). Editors Soner Esmer and Çimen Karataş-Çetin. İzmir.

Latarche, M. (1998). *Port Agency*. London: Witherby.

Laudon, K.C. and Laudon, J.P. (2012). *Management Information Systems: Managing the Digital Firm*. London: Pearson.

Lear, L.W. (2012). *The Relationship Between Strategic Leadership and Strategic Alignment in High-Performing Companies in South Africa*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). Graduate School of Business Leadership of University of South Africa.

Le, X.-Q.; Vu, V.-H.; Hens, L. and Heur, B.V. (2013). Stakeholder Perceptions and Involvement in the Implementation of EMS in Ports in Vietnam and Cambodia. *Journal of Cleaner Production*. 64: 173-193.

Lee, E.-S.; Nam, H.-S. and Song, D.-W. (2012). Defining Maritime Logistics and Its Value. *Maritime Logistics* (pp. 9-21). Editors Dong-Wook Song and Photis M. Panayides. USA: Kogan Page.

Lloyd, J, J.M. La Lopa and C. G. Braunlich (2000). Predicting Changes in Hong Kong's Hotel Industry Given the Change in Sovereignty from Britain to China in 1997. *Journal of Travel Research*. 38: 405-410.

Maak, T. and Pless, N.M. (2006). Responsible Leadership in a Stakeholder Society: A Relational Perspective. *Journal of Business Ethics*. 66: 99–115.

Macario, R. and Viegas, J. (2009). Bottlenecks of Efficiency and The Development of Port Business. *Future Challenges For The Port and Shipping Sector* (pp. 109-125). Editors Hilde Meersman; Eddy Van Der Voorde; Thierry Vanellander. London: Informa.

Mahsud, R. (2006). *Results Based Strategic Leadership: Strategic Leadership and Determinants of Firm Performance*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). New York: School of Business Organizational Studies Program of State University of New York.

Majidi, T.; Jafari, P; and Hosseini, M.A. (2012). The Effect of Stress Management Technique Training on the Ports and Shipping Organization Employees' Happiness. *Procedia – Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 47: 2162-2168.

Malhotra, Naresh K. (2012) *Basic Marketing Research*. Fourth Edition. USA: Pearson.

Malmi, Teemu (2001). *Balanced Scorecards in Finnish Companies: A research Note*. Management Accounting Research.

Mangan, J.; Lalwani, C. and Butcher, T. (2008). *Global Logistics and Supply Chain Management*. USA: John Wiley and Sons.

Marlow, P.B. and Paixao Casaca, A.C. (2003). Measuring Lean Ports Performance. *International Journal of Transport Management*. 1: 189-202.

McKinnon, A. (2001). Integrated Logistics Strategies. *Handbook of Logistics and Supply-Chain Management* (pp. 157-170). Editors Ann M. Brewer; Kenneth J. Button and David A. Hensher. Amsterdam: Pergamon.

McShane, S.L. and Glinow, M.A.V. (2003). *Organizational Behavior: Emerging Realities for the Workplace Revolution*. 2.Ed. Boston: McGraw Hill.

Merk, O. and Bagis, O. (2013). *The Competitiveness of Global Port-Cities: The Case of Mersin – Turkey*. OECD Regional Development Working Papers. 2013/1. OECD Publishing.

Meersman, H. and Voorde, E.V. (2005). Port Management, Operation and Competition: A Focus on North Europe. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 765-802). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: LLP.

Meersman, H.; Voorde, E.V. and Vanelander, T. (2009a). Scenarios and Strategies for The Port and Shipping Sector. *Future Challenges For The Port and Shipping Sector* (pp. 143-160). Editors Hilde Meersman; Eddy Van Der Voorde; Thierry Vanelander. London: Informa.

Meersman, H.; Voorde, E.V. and Vanelander, T. (2009b). The Economic Fabric of Ports. *Future Challenges For The Port and Shipping Sector* (pp. 89-107). Editors Hilde Meersman; Eddy Van Der Voorde; Thierry Vanelander. London: Informa.

Merchant, K.A. and Stede, W.A.V. (2003). *Management Control Systems: Performance Measurement, Evaluation and Incentives*. New York: FT Prentice Hall.

Mintzberg H. and Waters J.A.(1985). Of Strategies, Deliberate and Emergent. *Strategic Management Journal*. Jul-Sep. 6 (3): 257-272.

Mintzberg, H. and James B.Q.(1996), *The Strategy Process*, New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Mitchell, V.W. and McGoldrick, P.J. (1994). The Role of Geodemographics in Segmenting and Targeting Consumer Markets: A Delphi Study. *European Journal of Marketing*. 28 (5): 54-72.

Musso, E. (2009). Future Developments in Ports. *Future Challenges For The Port and Shipping Sector* (pp. 53-67). Editors Hilde Meersman; Eddy Van Der Voorde; Thierry Vanelslander. London: Informa.

Myers, R.B. and Pierce, A.C. (2009). On Strategic Leadership. *Joint Force Quarterly*. 54 (3): 12-13.

Notteboom, T. and Winkelmanns, W. (2001). Reassessing Public Sector Involvement in European Ports. *International Journal of Maritime Economics*. 3 (2): 242-259.

Notteboom, T. and Winkelmanns, W. (2002). *Stakeholder Relations Management in Ports: Dealing with the Interplay of Forces among Stakeholders in a Changing Competitive Environment*. Panama.

OECD. (2011). *Competition in Ports and Port Services*. UNCTAD/SDD/PORT/2.

OECD. (2013). *The Competitiveness of Global Port-Cities: Synthesis Report*. Editor Olaf Merk. www.oecd.org/regional/portcities

Okali, C. and Pawlowski, S.D. (2004). The Delphi Method as a Research Tool: An Example, Design Considerations and Applications. *Information & Management*. 42 (1): 15-29.

Oral, E.Z.; Kisi, H.; Cerit, A.G.; Tuna, O. and Esmer, S. (2007). Port Governance in Turkey. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 171-184.

O'Regan, N. and Ghobadian, A. (2002). Formal Strategic Planning. *Business Process Management Journal*. 8(5): 416-429.

O'Reilly, C.A., Caldwell, D.F., Chatman, J.A., Lapid, M., and Self, W. (2010). How Leadership Matters: The Effects of Leaders' Alignment on Strategy Implementation. *The Leadership Quarterly*. 21: 104-113.

Oxford Dictionary.

<http://www.oxfordlearnersdictionaries.com/definition/english/detachment> 11.09.2014

ÖİB (T.C. Başbakanlık Özelleştirme İdaresi Başkanlığı). (2012). *Rakamlarla Özelleştirme: Türkiye’de ve Dünyada Özelleştirme Uygulamaları ve Özelleştirme Fonu’nun Kaynak ve Kullanımları*. Editor M. Necati Doğan. Ankara.

ÖİB (T.C. Başbakanlık Özelleştirme İdaresi Başkanlığı). <http://www.oib.gov.tr/yayinlar/yayinlar.htm> 29.07.2014

ÖİB (T.C. Başbakanlık Özelleştirme İdaresi Başkanlığı). <http://www.oib.gov.tr/portfoy/tdi.htm> 29.07.2014

Özalp, İ., Besler, S., and Oruç, İ. (2009). İş Arenasındaki Gerçekler: Yöneticilerin Kullandıkları Stratejik Araçlar, 17. *Ulusal Yönetim Ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı* (ss.197-203). Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi.İ.İ.B.F. İşletme Bölümü. Eskişehir.

Özcan, T.E. (2011). *Çok Uluslu Şirketlerde Stratejik Planlama*. (Master's Dissertation). İstanbul: Institute of Social Sciences of Kadir Has University.

Quong, T. And Walker, A. (2010). Seven Principles of Strategic Leadership. *International Studies in Educational Administration*. 38 (1): 22-34.

Pamfilie, R., Petcu, A.J., and Draghici, M. (2012). The Importance of Leadership in Driving a Strategic Lean Six Sigma Management. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 58: 187-196.

Pantouvakis, A.M.; Chlomoudis, C.I. and Dimas, A.G. (2010). Marketing Strategies in Port Industry: An Exploratory Study and a Research Agenda. *American Journal of Economics and Business Administration*. 2 (1): 64-72.

Parola, F.; Satta, G.; Penco, L. and Profumo, G. (2013). Emerging Port Authority Communication Strategies: Assessing the Determinants of Disclosure in the Annual Report. *Research in Transportation Business and Management*. 8: 134-147.

Phillips R.L. and Hunt J.G. (1992). Strategic Leadership: An Introduction. *Strategic Leadership A Multiorganizational-Level Perspective* (pp.3-13). Editors Robert L. Phillips and James G. Hunt. Westport: Quorum Books.

Porter, M.E. (1980). *Competitive Strategy: Techniques for Analyzing Industries and Competitors*. New York: The Free Press.

Porth, S.J. (2003). *Strategic Management: A Cross-Functional Approach*. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Powell, C. (2003). The Delphi Technique: Myths and Realities. *Journal of Advanced Nursing*. 41 (4): 376-382.

Raes, A.M.L.; Glunk, U., Heijltjes, M.G. and Roe, R.A. (2007). Top Management Team and Middle Managers: Making Sense of Leadership. *Small Group Research*. 38 (3): 360-386.

Riaz, S. and Rowe, W.G. (2008). Strategic Leadership at Coca-Cola: The Real Thing. *Ivey Management Services*.

Riesenmy, K.R. (2008). The Moderating Role of Follower Identification in the Relationship Between Leader and Follower Visionary Leadership. *Emerging Leadership Journeys*. 1(2): 62-77.

Robbins, S.P. (2005). *Organizational Behavior*. 11.Edt. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Robbins, S.P. and Coulter, M. (1996). *Management*. 5th.Edt. NJ: Prentice-Hall, Englewood Cliffs.

Robbins, S.P. and Coulter, M. (2003). *Management*. 7.Edt. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Robbins, S.P. and DeCenzo, D.A. (2004). *Fundamentals of Management: Essential Concepts and Applications*. 4.Ed. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Robinson, R. (2004). Shipping Networks, Liner Shipping Strategies and Competitive Advantage: An Analytical Framework. *Proceedings of the International Association of Maritime Economists Annual Conference 2004* (pp. 1037-1049). İzmir: Dokuz Eylül.

Rodrigue, J.P. (2004). Appropriate Models of Port Governance: Lessons from the Port Authority of New York and New Jersey. *Shipping and Ports in the Twenty-first Century: Globalization, Technological Change and the Environment* (pp. 63-81). Editors David Pinder and Brian Slack. London: Routledge.

Rowe, G. and Wright, G. (1999). The Delphi Technique as a Forecasting Tool: Issues and Analysis. *International Journal of Forecasting*. 15: 353-375.

Rönty, J.; Nokkala, M. and Finnila, K. (2011). *Port Ownership and Governance Models in Finland: Development Needs and Future Challenges*. VTT Working Papers 164.

Salaria, N. (2012). Meaning Of The Term- Descriptive Survey Research Method. *International Journal of Transformations in Business Management*. 1 (6).

Schermerhorn, J.S. Jr. (1999). *Management*. 6.Edt. New York: John Wiley.

Sekaran, Uma (2003) *Research Methods for Business: A Skill – Building Approach*. USA:John Wiley and Sons, Inc.

Shaw, Scott M. (2002). *Leadership Development and The Characteristics/Traits of Ethical and Effective Leaders: The Delphi Technique*. (Unpublished Doctoral Dissertation). School of Business and Technology of Capella University.

Shrivastava, P. and Nachman, S.A. (1989). Strategic Leadership Patterns. *Strategic Management Journal*. 10: 51-66

Slattery, J. (2013). Change Management. *Journal of Strategic Leadership*. 4 (2): 1-5.

Snow, C.C., Joyce, W.F., and Hrebiniak, L.G. (1989). *Strategy, Organization Design, and Human Resource Management*. Greenwich, Conn: JAI Press.

Slawinski, N. (2011). Strategic Leadership. *Cases in Leadership* (pp. 344-379). Editors W. Gleen Rowe and Laura Guerrero. USA: Sage.

Song, D.W. (2008). Port Reform and Privatization in Korea. *Port Privatisation: The Asia-Pacific Experience* (pp. 138-151). Editors James Reveley and Malcolm Tull. USA: Edward Elgar.

Song, D.-W. and Parola F. (2015). Background: Special Issue on “Strategizing Port Logistics Management and Operations for Value Creation in Global Supply Chains”. *International Journal of Logistics: Research and Applications*. 18.

Suykens, F. and Van De Voorde, E. (1998). A Quarter a Century of Port Management in Europe: Objectives and Tools. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 25 (3): 251-261.

Stevens, H. (1999). *The Institutional Position of Seaports: An International Comparison*. London: Kluwer Academic.

Stopford, M. (2009). *Maritime Economics*. USA: Routledge.

Suresh, B.K. (2012). Strategic Leadership Practices and Organizational Effectiveness—A Conceptual Framework. *International Conference on Applied and Management Sciences (IAMS'2012)* (pp.156-159). Planetart Scientific Research Centre. Thailand. June 16-17, 2012.

Swayne, L.E., Duncan W.J., and Ginter, P.M. (2006). *Strategic Management of Health Care Organizations*. 5.Ed. Malden: Blackwell.

Şahin, M.D. (2012). Stratejik Yönetime Giriş. *İşletmelerde Stratejik Yönetim* (pp.13-34). Editors Fevzi Okumuş et al. Ankara: Seçkin Yayıncılık.

Taneja, P.; Walker, W.E.; Lighterinen, H.; Van Schuylenburg, M. and Van Der Plas, R. (2010). Implications of an Uncertain Future for Port Planning. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*. 37 (3): 221-245.

Talley, W.K. (2009). *Port Economics*. New York: Routledge.

Talley, W.K. (2007). Port Performance: An Economics Perspective. *Research in Transportation Economics*. 17: 499-516.

Taslak, Soner (2004). Factors Restricting Success of Strategic Decisions: Evidence From The Turkish Textile Industry. *European Business Review*. 16 (2): 152-164.

Taylor, L.G. (1974). *Seaports*. Glasgow: Brown, Son and Freguson.

TC Başbakanlık – Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı. (2007). *Dokuzuncu Kalkınma Planı Denizyolu Ulaşımı: Özel İhtisas Komisyonu Raporu*. Ankara. <http://ekutup.dpt.gov.tr/http://www.kalkinma.gov.tr/> 29.07.2014

TC Ulaştırma Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı. (2013). *Deniz Ticaret İstatistikleri*. Deniz Ticareti Genel Müdürlüğü. Ankara.

TC Ulaştırma Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı. (2014). *Deniz Ticaret İstatistikleri*. Deniz Ticareti Genel Müdürlüğü. Ankara.

Tharamangalam, M. (2007). *Governance and Leadership: A Tale of Two Ports*. Halifax: Atlantic Institute for Market Studies (AIMS).

The Port of Los Angeles. (2012). *Strategic Plan 2012-2017*. http://www.portoflosangeles.org/pdf/strategic_plan_2012_lowres.pdf

The World Bank. (2000). *The Evolution Of Ports in A Competitive World*. DAF/COMP(2011)14

The World Bank. (2007a). *The Evolution of Ports in a Competitive World*. Port Reform Toolkit. Module 2. USA.

The World Bank. (2007b). *Alternative Port Management Structures and Ownership Models*. Port Reform Toolkit. Module 3. USA.

The World Bank. (2007c). *Framework for Port Reform*. Port Reform Toolkit. Module 1. USA.

Thompson, A.A. and Strickland III, A.J. (1999). *Strategic Management Concepts and Cases*. 11.Edt. Boston: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Tongzon, J. and Heng, W. (2005). Port Privatization, Efficiency and Competitiveness: Some Empirical Evidence from Container Ports (Terminals). *Transportation ResearchA*. 39: 405-424.

Tongzon, J. (2008). Port Reform in Singapore: Towards Privatization?. *Port Privatisation: The Asia-Pacific Experience* (pp. 110-119). Editors James Reveley and Malcolm Tull. USA: Edward Elgar.

Turkish Chamber of Shipping. (2013). *Maritime Sector Report 2012*. İstanbul.

TURKLİM. <http://www.turklim.org/> 07.09.2014

Tutar, H., Altınöz, M. and Çakıroğlu, D. (2011). Is ethical leadership and strategic leadership a dilemma? A descriptive survey. *Procedia Social and Behavioral Sciences*. 24: 1378–1388.

Uğurluoğlu, Ö. and Çelik, Y. (2009). Örgütlerde Stratejik Liderlik ve Özellikleri. *Hacettepe Sağlık İdaresi Dergisi*. 12 (2): 121-156.

UNCTAD. (1976). *Port performance indicators*. TD/B/ C.4/131/Supp.1/Rev.1. New York: United Nations.

UNCTAD. (1985). *Port Development: A Handbook for Planners in Developing Countries*. TD/B/C.4/175/Rev. 1. New York: United Nations.

UNCTAD. (1990). *Port Marketing and the Challenge of the Third Generation Port*. TD/B/C.4/AC.7/14.

UNCTAD. (1993). *Strategic Planning for Port Authorities*. UNCTAD/SHIP/646.

UNCTAD. (1995a). *Marketing Promotion Tools for Ports*.

UNCTAD. (1995b). *Comparative Analysis of Deregulation, Commercialization and Privatization of Ports*. UNCTAD/SDD/PORT/3.

UNCTAD. (1995c). *Strategic Port Pricing*. UNCTAD/SDD/PORT/2.

UNCTAD. (1996). *Sustainable Development Strategies for Cities and Ports. Monographs on Port Management*. UNCTAD/SHIP/494(14). New York and Geneva: United Nations.

UNCTAD. (1998). *Guidelines for Port Authorities and Governments on the Privatization of Port Facilities*. UNCTAD/SDTE/TIB/1.

Ülgen, H. and Mirze, S.K. (2010). *İşletmelerde Stratejik Yönetim*. İstanbul: Literatür Yayıncılık.

Ulaştırma, Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı. (2013). 11. *Ulaştırma, Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Şurası: Denizcilik Çalışma Grubu Raporu*. Ankara: TC Ulaştırma, Denizcilik ve Haberleşme Bakanlığı.

Ünal, M. (2012). *Stratejik Yönetim ve Liderlik*. İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım.

Van Der Lugt, L.; Dooms, M. and Parola, F. (2013). Strategy Making by Hybrid Organizations: The Case of the Port Authority. *Research in Transportation Business and Management*. 8: 103-113.

Van Niekerk, H.C. (2004). Contestability, Competition, Concessioning. *Proceedings of The International Association of Maritime Economists Annual Conference 2004* (pp. 1342-1354). İzmir: Dokuz Eylül.

Vermeulen, K.J. (2010). Framing a Canvas For Shipping Strategy. *The Handbook of Maritime Economics and Business* (pp. 851-887). Editor Costas Th. Grammenos. London: Lloyd's List.

Von der Gracht, H. A. (2012). Consensus measurement in Delphi studies: Review and Implications for Future Quality Assurance. *Technological Forecasting & Social Change*. 79: 1525-1536.

Wanasika, I. (2009). *Strategic Leadership And Rationale For Economizing-Strategizing Principles*. (Doctoral Dissertation). New Mexico: Business Administration Graduate School of New Mexico State University.

Wang, H., Waldman, D.A. and Zhang H. (2012). Strategic Leadership Across Cultures: Current Findings and Future Research Directions. *Journal of World Business*. 47: 571–580.

Wang, T.F; Cullinane, K. and Song, D.W. (2005). *Container Port Production and Economic Efficiency*. England: Palgrave Macmillan.

Wheelen, T.L. and Hunger, J.D. (1995). *Strategic Management and Business Policy*. 5.Edt. USA: Addison-Wesley.

Wheelen, T.L. and Hunger, J.D. (2004). *Strategic Management and Business Policy*. 9.Edt. New Jersey: Prentice Hall.

Wheeler, S., McFarland, W. and Kleiner, A. (28.11.2007). A Blueprint for Strategic Leadership. *Strategy Business*.

<http://www.strategy-business.com/article/07405?pg=all> (25.09.2013).

Williams, T.S. (2009). *Strategic Planning Leadership in Illinois Community Colleges: Who is Leading the Process?* (Doctoral Dissertation). Chicago: National-Louis University.

Winkelmanns, W. and Notteboom, T. (2007). Port Master Planning: Balancing Stakeholders' Interests. *The Reality and Dilemmas of Globalization*. Editors Dobrowolski, K. and Zurek, J.

Woundenberg, F. (1991). An Evaluation of Delphi. *Technological Forecasting and Social Change*. 40: 131-150.

Yercan, H.F. (1996). *Liman İşletmeciliği ve Yönetimi*. İzmir: Mersin deniz Ticaret Odası.

Yercan, F. (1999). Analysis of Privatization Actions in the Maritime Industry in Turkey. *Strategic Approaches for Maritime Industries in Poland and Turkey* (pp. 127-136). Editors Mustafa Ergün and Janusz Zurek. İzmir: Dokuz Eylül Publications.

Zhang, A.; Lam, J.S.L. and Huang, G.Q. (2013). Port Strategy in the Era of Supply Chain Management: the Case of Hong Kong. *Maritime Policy and Management: The Flagship Journal of International Shipping and Port Research*.

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Procedure for Individual Port Master Planning (1/2)

The 11 main tasks (B1 to B11) are as follows:

1. Set up an ongoing traffic analysis (if this does not already exist).
2. Prepare a broad long-term traffic forecast.
3. Initiate any broad engineering surveys needed.
4. Analyze the port's role as laid down by the national authority.
5. Determine the long-term phased area requirements.
6. Determine the long-term wafer and channel requirements.
7. Assign traffic to major port zones.
8. Calculate the rough cost of each terminal/berth group in each phase.
9. Prepare the draft master plan and submit for national approval.
10. Revise and publish the port master plan and obtain local approval.
11. Install a control system for initiating a project at the right time.

Each of these tasks is described in more detail below.

Task B1. Set up an ongoing traffic analyzer

The data required are shown in chapter III, "Traffic forecasting".

The UNCTAD "Manual on a uniform system of port statistics and performance indicators" contains a complete system for collecting the data both for planning and for operational purposes.

Task B2. Prepare a broad long-term traffic forecast

Strictly speaking, the ports cannot start forecasting until their role has been defined at national level, but there is a lot of preparatory work and simple projections which need not wait for this. At the master planning stage, forecasting is to be broad and long term only.

Task B3. Initiate any broad engineering surveys needed

The surveys that should be initiated for master planning are those which provide a broad picture on which major zone decisions can be based, plus those [like siltation studies] which are themselves of a long-term nature. The range of surveys which may be needed are described in chapter VII, "Civil engineering aspects."

Task B4. Analyze the port's role as laid down by the national authority

If the national plan has not been prepared, it may be necessary to analyze the port's role as seen locally and submit this as a proposal.

Task B5. Determine [the long-term phased area requirements

For each of the traffic streams likely to result from the defined role of the port:

1. Review characteristics of each class of traffic (transport, storage, ship size and draught, pollution).
2. Review industrial development plans and possibilities in port area.
3. Calculate broad land area requirements for the range of feasible long-term cargo throughputs.
4. Estimate land area requirements for long-term industrial development within port limits.
5. Estimate land area requirements for ancillary land-use (housing, amenities) within port limits.
6. Tabulate the various area requirements phased according to each traffic alternative.

Task B6. Determine the long-term wafer and channel requirements

For each class of ship traffic, calculate the broad water area and depth requirements for the range of ship types and sizes expected in the long term.

Task B7. Assign traffic to major port zones

This task is discussed further in chapter V of this handbook. The following is a sequence of work which is appropriate at the master planning stage:

1. Examine environmental impact of each class of port activity (both independently and as they affect each other).
 2. Survey existing water areas and approaches and compare different ways of deepening and extending these, including new land cuts.
-

Appendix 1: Procedure for Individual Port Master Planning (2/2)

3. Survey existing and available land areas and compare alternative ways of extending them, including reclamation.
4. Draw alternative zone configurations with corresponding communications corridors.
5. Broadly evaluate alternative phased configurations for transportation economy, capital cost and flexibility.
6. Prepare zoning plan for the preferred solution.
7. Draw outline charts of water depth for the chosen zoning configuration, corresponding to the successive phases of each alternative.

Task B8. Calculate the rough cost of each terminal/berth group

1. Identify likely terminal or berth group developments, in each zone within the zoning plan, for each future alternative.
 2. Estimate the rough costs of each terminal development.
- N.B. Although it will be difficult to obtain such cost estimates, it is important to find any indicate figure, however rough. This is because without such figures it will be impossible to build up a long-term investment plan, which is essential to show whether the master plan is feasible.
3. Tabulate the results.

Task B9. Prepare the draft master plan and submit for national approval

The contents of a master plan should include:

- (a) The long-term forecast and its rationale;
- (b) The planning maps;
- (c) The investment implications.

One way of organizing the preparation of the plan is as follows:

1. For each class of port activity, combine the successive stages of development in the alternative cases into a single framework independent of time.
2. Draw planning maps showing the proposed zoning and alternative development sequences within the framework.
3. Prepare order-of-magnitude investment cost figures for the development sequence of each activity.
4. For the time-scales both of a conservative and of a radical alternative, calculate the total investment implications over the period.
5. Assemble this material into a draft master plan, with a supporting commentary on assumptions and rationale.

Task B10. Revise and publish the agreed pm muter plan

This should be published in such a form that it can be easily revised and amended each year.

Task B11. Install a control system for initiating a project at the right time

It is essential to initiate a project feasibility study as soon as there is an indication that, by the time the development is complete, there will be enough traffic to justify it. Master planning is not complete until a routine is established for checking when projects should be initiated. The following procedure is one way of doing this:

On completion of the master plan

1. Identify each individual investment project within the plan over the next ten years.
2. For each of these projects, estimate the likely development time that will elapse between initiating project action and bringing the facilities on stream. This will include: the whole sequence of project planning; funding and time for decision making; tendering; design and construction.

Every year

1. Bring the traffic forecast up to date, for each traffic class.
2. Estimate the future growth rate of traffic in that class, taking account of latest developments and customer requests.
3. At this growth rate, calculate the traffic level a number of years in advance of the date at which the project capacity is needed. This is the triggering level.
4. Activate the project if the triggering level has been reached.

Source: UNCTAD, 1985: 10

**Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regionsin
Turkey (1/3)**

PRIVATE PORTS ACCORDING TO REGION	
ANTALYA DISTRICT	
1.	ALİDAŞ ALANYA LİMANI
2.	ANTALYA LİMANI SERBEST BÖLGE RIHTIMI
3.	ÇEKİSAN ŞAMANDIRASI
4.	MOBİL ŞAMANDIRA PLATFORMU
5.	ORTADOĞU ANTALYA LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş. (PORT AKDENİZ)
6.	POAŞ ANTALYA ŞAMANDIRA TERMİNALİ
ÇANAKKALE DISTRICT	
1.	AKÇANSA ÇANAKKALE LİMANI
2.	BAGFAŞ İSKELESİ
3.	PORT OF BANDIRMA
4.	BORUSAN LİMANI
5.	BP GEMLİK İSKELESİ
6.	GEMLİK GÜBRE LİMANI
7.	GEMPORT
8.	RODA LİMAN DEPOLAMA VE LOJİSTİK İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş.
9.	İÇDAŞ İSKELESİ
10.	DOLAMİT MADENCİLİK RIHTIMI
11.	ÖZGÜMÜŞ MADENCİLİK RIHTIMI
İSTANBUL DISTRICT	
1.	ASYAPORT
2.	AUTOPORT LİMANİŞLETMELERİ A.Ş.
3.	AKÇANSA AMBARLI LİMANI
4.	AMBARLI DEPOLMA TESİSLERİ
5.	ANADOLU ÇİMENTO TESİSLERİ
6.	SET ÇİMENTO SANAYİ VE TİCARET A.Ş.
7.	AYGAZ LPG DEPOLAMA VE DOLUM TESİSLERİ
8.	ÇEKİSAN ÇEKMECE DEPOLAMA
9.	KUMPORT LİMANI
10.	MARDAŞ
11.	MARPORT
12.	PETROL OFİSİ HARAMİDERE TESİSLERİ
13.	TOTAL HARAMİDERE İSKELESİ
14.	ANADOLU YAKASI KUMCULARI İSKELELERİ
15.	MOBİL OIL SERVİBURNU İSKELESİ
16.	PETROL OFİSİ ÇUBUKLU TESİSLERİ
17.	ZEYPORT
18.	AKÇANSA YALOVA ÇİMENTO TERMİNALİ İSKELESİ
19.	AKSA AKRİLİK KİMYA SANAYİ A.Ş.
20.	AKTAŞ TERMİNALİ
21.	ALEMDAR DİLİSKELESİ
22.	ALTINEL İSKELESİ
23.	AYGAZ YARIMCA DOLUM TESİSİ
24.	ÇOLAKOĞLU METALURJİ TESİSLERİ
25.	DİLER LİMAN TESİSLERİ
26.	EVYAP DENİZ İŞLETMECİLİĞİ LOJİSTİK VE İNŞAAT A.Ş.
27.	FORD OTOSAN YENİKÖY İSKELESİ

Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regionsin Turkey (2/3)

28. GÜBRETAŞ TESİSLERİ
29. HABAŞ TERMİNALİ
30. İGSAŞ İSTANBUL GÜBRE SANAYİ A.Ş.
31. EFESAN PORT
32. KIZILKAYA LİMANI
33. KORUMA KLOR ALKALİ SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.
34. KROMAN ÇELİK LİMAN TESİSLERİ
35. LAFARGE ASLAN ÇİMENTO İSKELESİ
36. LİMAN İZMİT TERMİNALİ
37. MARMARA TRANSPORT İSKELESİ
38. MİLANGAZ ŞAMANDIRA TESİSLERİ
39. NUH ÇİMENTO SAN A.Ş. (NUHPORT)
40. OPAY PLATFORM İSKELESİ
41. PETLINE PLATFORMU
42. PETROL OFİSİ DERİNCE İSKELESİ
43. POLİPORT
44. SEDEF KONTEYNER TERMİNALİ VE LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ
45. SHELL DERİNCE TESİSLERİ
46. SOLVENTAŞ
47. TOTAL GEBZE TERMİNALİ
48. TURKUAZ İSKELESİ
49. TÜPRAŞ İZMİT RAFİNERİ TESİSLERİ
50. TÜPRAŞ KÖRFEZ SIVI YÜK İSKELESİ
51. YALOVA ELYAF İSKELESİ
52. YARIMCA ROTA LİMANI
53. DP WORLD YARIMCA LİMANI
54. ERDEM EREĞLİ ÇİMENTO ÖZEL LİMANI
55. ERDEMİR LİMANI
56. EREN HOLDİNG LİMANI
57. BÜTÜNGAZ TERMİNALİ
58. OPET MARMARA TERMİNALİ İSKELE VE PLATFORMU
59. AKPORT
60. MARTAŞ MARMARA EREĞLİ LİMAN TESİSLERİ
61. ÇAYIROVA CAM SANAYİ İSKELESİ
62. GİSAŞ TUZLA İSKELESİ
63. U.N. RO-RO PENDİK LİMANI
64. YILPORT

İZMİR DISTRICT

1. AKDENİZ KİMYA NEMPORT LİMANI
2. EGE ÇELİK LİMANI
3. EGE GÜBRE LİMANI
4. EGE GAZ LNG TERMİNALİ
5. HABAŞ İSKELESİ
6. BATIÇİM A.Ş. BATI LİMAN TESİSLERİ
7. İDÇ LİMANI
8. PETROL OFİSİ ALİAĞA TESİSLERİ
9. TOTAL OIL İSKELESİ
10. TÜPRAŞ LİMANI
11. PETKİM LİMANI
12. BODRUM CRUISE PORT
13. GÜLLÜK GEMİ YANAŞMA İSKELESİ
14. ÇEŞME LİMANI
15. DİKİLİ İSKELESİ

Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regions in Turkey (3/3)

16. MOPAK İSKELESİ 17. KUŞADASI YOLCU LİMANI 18. MARMARİS LİMANI
MERSİN DISTRICT
1. LİMAKPORT İSKENDERUN 2. TOROS CEYHAN TERMİNALİ 3. ADVANSA SASA POLYESTER TESİSLERİ 4. ÇEKİSAN ŞAMANDIRASI 5. GÜBRETAŞ SARİSEKİ İSKELESİ 6. İSDEMİR LİMANI 7. DELTA PETROL LİMANI 8. ORHAN EKİNCİ İSKELESİ 9. YAZICI İSKELESİ 10. AKTAŞ TERMİNALİ 11. MERSİN LİMANI 12. MMK ATAKAŞ DÖRTYOL LİMAN İŞLETMESİ 13. MESBAŞ RIHTIMI
SAMSUN DISTRICT
1. SAMSUNPORT 2. TOROS TARIM SANAYİİ SAMSUN LİMAN İŞLETMESİ 3. SÜRSAN ŞAMANDIRASI 4. ORDU LİMANI 5. AYGAZ ŞAMANDIRALARI 6. PETROL OFİSİ ŞAMANDIRALARI 7. TOTAL OIL ŞAMANDIRASI 8. YILDIZ ENTEGRE AĞAÇ SAN. ŞAMANDIRASI 9. SİNOP LİMANI
TRABZON DISTRICT
1. GİRESUN LİMANI 2. PARK DENİZCİLİK HOPA LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş. 3. RİPORT 4. ÜNYE ÇİMENTO TESİSİ LİMANI 5. POAŞ ŞAMANDIRA TESİSLERİ 6. TRABZON LİMANI

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 85

Appendix 3: The First Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (1/2)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

Sayın Yetkili,

Dünyada limanlar, uluslararası pazarlara ulaşmada stratejik bir kapı ve tedarik zincirinin değer yaratan önemli bir halkası konumundadırlar. Bu konum küresel ticarete ve teknolojiye yaşanan hızlı değişimler ile birlikte, limanlar arasında rekabet artışını ve bunun yanında liman operasyonlarına daha ticari bir anlayışı beraberinde getirmiştir. Liman faaliyetlerinin çeşitlendiği ve tedarik zinciri ile bütünleştiği bir ortamda yönetimin kısıtlı insan kaynakları ile karmaşık operasyonları yürütmesi giderek zorlaşmaktadır. Bu bağlamda limanların üst düzey yönetim takımı stratejik liderlik özellikleri önem kazanmaya başlamıştır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmak ve stratejik liderlik kavramına bakışlarını belirlemektir. Bu amaca ulaşmak için nitel bir araştırma yöntemi olan Delphi tekniği seçilmiştir. Uzlaşma sağlama aracı olarak ifade edilen Delphi, bir problem durumuna ilişkin uzman görüşlerini sistematik bir şekilde elde eden bir tekniktir. Delphi tekniği kullanılarak bir problem durumuna farklı açılardan bakan bireylerin ve grupların yüz yüze gelmeden uzlaşmaları amaçlanmaktadır. İki aşamada yürütülecek olan araştırmanın ilk aşamasını, örnekleme oluşturan üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik algıları ile ilgili cevaplayanın yorumuna dayalı soru formu oluşturmaktadır. Bu aşamadaki bulgulardan yola çıkılarak araştırmanın ikinci aşaması hazırlanacaktır. Araştırma sürecinde elde edilen tüm bilgiler istatistik amaçlı kullanılacak olup, firmaların adları ve özel bilgileri **kesinlikle açıklanmayacaktır.**

Soru formunun, limanın üst düzey yöneticileri tarafından doldurulmasını rica eder ve cevapların da yukarıda belirtilen posta adresimize, faksımıza (0 232 301 88 48) veya e-posta adresimize (cagdasemiroglu@gmail.com) en kısa zamanda ulaştırılmasını rica ederiz. Çalışma tamamlandığında isteğiniz doğrultusunda sonuçların bir kopyasına bizden ulaşabilirsiniz. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür eder ve işlerinizde başarılar dileriz.

Saygılarımla,

Çağdaş Emiroğlu

Bu çalışma Yrd.Doç.Dr. Didem ÖZER ÇAYLAN’ın danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilmektedir.

Tel: 0 232 301 88 22

Fax: 0 232 301 88 48

E-Posta: didem.ozer@deu.edu.tr

Appendix 3: The First Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (2/2)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

1. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Öncelikle Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ilk aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için **teşekkür ederiz.**

A- SORULAR

Açıklama: Araştırmanın bu aşamasında sizden tecrübeleriniz ve gözlemlerinizi doğrultusunda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili üç soru cevaplamanız beklenmektedir. Sorulara olabildiğince kapsamlı yanıtlar vermenizi rica ederiz.

1. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?

2. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli kişisel özellikler nelerdir?

3. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?

B- PROFİL BİLGİLERİ

(Aşağıdaki sorular istatistiksel amaçlı kullanılacak ve kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır.)

Profil Bilgileri:

Ad Soyad:.....

Göreviniz:

Şirket içindeki çalışma süresiniz:.....(ay/yıl)

Yaşınız:.....

Eğitim durumunuz: () Lise () Lisans () Yüksek Lisans () Doktora

En son mezun olduğunuz kurum:

Liman Bilgileri:

Liman Adı:

Kuruluş yılı:.....

Bulunduğu şehir:.....

Mevcut departmanlar:.....

Yaklaşık personel sayısı:(ofis içinde).....(liman sahasında)

Yıllık elleçleme kapasitesi:.....

Hizmet verilen yük tipleri:

Çalışmanın sonuçlarını tarafınıza iletmemizi ister misiniz? () EVET () HAYIR

Katılımınız için Teşekkür ederiz.

Appendix 4:The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (1/3)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Algıları Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

2. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Öncelikle Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ikinci aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için *teşekkür ederiz*.

Araştırmamızın ikinci aşamasındaki amaç, ilk etapta toplanan fikirlerin oylanarak ortak bir sonuç elde edilmesidir. Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizlerin birinci etap açık uçlu sorulara verdiğiniz değerli yorumlarınız doğrultusunda oluşturulmuştur.

İfadeler hakkındaki düşüncenizi yanlarındaki **E-Evet Katılıyorum**, **H-Hayır Katılmıyorum** ya da **Y-Yorumsuz** kutucuklarından birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

A. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önemlidir çünkü;	E	H	Y
1. Limanlar, konumları gereği stratejik öneme sahip işletmelerdir.			
2. Limanlar, tedarik zinciri içerisinde stratejik öneme sahiptir.			
3. Limanlar, verdikleri hizmetlerle stratejik öneme sahiptirler.			
4. Limanlarda müşteri odaklılık esastır.			
5. Limanlar, müşteri sadakatının zayıf olduğu işletmelerdir.			
6. Limanlar, uluslararası entegrasyonun yoğun olduğu bir sektördedir.			
7. Limanlarda ilk yatırım kararları çok detaylı bilgi, belge ve hesaplamalar gerektirir.			
8. Limancılıkta dengeler kısa sürede değişmez; atılan ve atılmayan adımların sonuçlarını görmek zaman alır.			
9. Limanlar, uzun vadede doğru pozisyon almayı gerektiren işletmelerdir.			
10. Liman işletmesinin gelişiminin sağlıklı olması için liman üst düzey yöneticilerinin finansal ölçüler doğrultusunda Yönetim Kurulu’nu yönlendirmesi ve stratejik yatırım kararlarını bu yolla alması önemlidir.			
11. Liman yönetiminde önemli olan geleceği planlamak ve vizyon oluşturabilmektir.			
12. Stratejik liderlik özelliklerini taşıyan yöneticiler sayesinde, limanlar rekabete daha donanımlı bir şekilde girebilirler, riski minimuma indirebilirler.			
13. Limanlar, dönemsel değişikliğin (<i>volatile</i>) yüksek olduğu piyasada hizmet sağlayan işletmelerdir.			
14. Limanlar, liman çalışanlarının iş değişikliğine yatkın işletmelerdir.			
15. Limanlar, ticari anlamlarının dışında kurumsal sorumlulukları da olan işletmelerdir.			

Appendix 4: The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (2/3)

B. Liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli özelliği:	E	H	Y
1. Vizyon oluşturabilmesidir.			
2. Dünya ve ülke ticaretinin nereye doğru çevrildiğini ve gelecekte nelere ihtiyaç duyulacağını herkesten önce görebilmesidir.			
3. Öncü olabilmesidir.			
4. Kriz yönetim becerisine sahip olmasıdır.			
5. Risk yönetim becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
6. Yeniliklere açık olmasıdır.			
7. Doğru zamanda doğru kararı verebilmesidir.			
8. Değişim yönetimi becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
9. Farklı fikirlere açık olmasıdır.			
10. Başarıyı paylaşılabilmektedir.			
11. Güvenilir olmasıdır.			
12. Paylaşımçı olmasıdır.			
13. Yüksek iletişim becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
14. Yeterli ikna kabiliyetine sahip olmasıdır.			
15. Dışa dönük olmasıdır.			
16. Güvene dayalı uzun vadeli ilişkiler kurabilmesidir.			
17. Ekibine rol model olabilmesidir			
18. Destekleyici olmasıdır.			
19. Yönetim kabiliyeti yüksek olmasıdır.			
20. Performans göstergeleri ve hedefler doğrultusunda yönetim anlayışına sahip olmasıdır.			
21. Başarısızlığı sahiplenebilen biri olmasıdır.			
22. Araştırmacı olmasıdır.			
23. Cesur olmasıdır.			
24. Uygulamada hızlı olabilmesidir.			
25. Stratejik düşünebilmesidir.			
26. Sektör takibi yapabilmesidir.			
27. Rekabet takibi yapabilmesidir.			
28. Sektör ve işin temel bilgilerine hakim olmasıdır.			
29. Rakipler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmasıdır.			
30. Pazar/piyasa hakkında bilgi sahibi olmasıdır.			
31. Risk faktörlerini belirleyerek gerektiğinde sorumluluk alabilmesidir.			
32. İnisiyatif alabilmesidir.			
33. Analitik düşünmesidir.			
34. Sonuç odaklı çalışmasıdır.			
35. Sabırlı olmasıdır.			
36. Kararlı olmasıdır.			
37. Müşteri merkezli düşünebilmesidir.			

Appendix 4: The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (3/3)

C. Limanların yönetim sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler:	E	H	Y
1. Sektörel gelişmeleri takip etmek			
2. İşletmenin orta ve uzun vadeli hedeflerine varabileceği çalışma ortamını yaratmak			
3. Vizyon belirlemek			
4. Katılımcı bir ortamda gerekli aksiyonların alınmasını sağlamak ve takip etmek			
5. Mevcut durum ve gelecek analizi yapabilmek			
6. Pazar stratejilerini iyi okuyabilmek			
7. Mevcut piyasa trendlerini iyi analiz etmek			
8. Fizibilite yapabilmek			
9. Gelecek trendleri öngörebilmek			
10. Stratejik planlama kültürünü oluşturmak			
11. Stratejik pazarlama ile marka değeri yaratmak			
12. Limanın hem ticari hem de operasyonel etkinliğini ve rekabet gücünü arttırabilmek			
13. Müşteri ilişkileri yönetimini tüm personele yaymak			
14. Liman sahasında iş güvenliğini sağlamak ve bu bilinci yaymak			
15. Birlikte çalıştığı ekibine açık hedefler koymak ve sorumlulukları net bir şekilde delege etmek			
16. Çalışanları pozitif yönetimle desteklemek ve kişisel gelişimlerine yardımcı olmak			
17. Teknolojiye, sürekliliğe ve sürdürülebilirliğe, kurumsal hafızaya ve insana yatırım yapmak			
18. Paylaşımcılığa, katılımcı olmaya ve yenilikçi olmaya destek olmak			
19. Yönetim içindeki departmanlar arasındaki koordinasyonu ve entegrasyonunu tam sağlamak			
20. Birbirine göre farklılıkları olan, iyi yetişmiş ve bir arada ekip çalışması yaparak sinerji yaratabilecek ekipler kurmak			
21. Çalışanlara koçluk yapmak			
22. Çalışan bağlılığını/memnuniyetini yükseltmek			
23. Bütün çalışanların haklarını en iyi şekilde savunarak onların yönetime olan güven ve bağlılıklarını tesis etmek			
24. Şirket içinde ortak bir kültür yaratmak			
25. Adil ve tutarlı bir performans yönetimi sağlamak			
26. İşletmenin bütçe hedef ve kapasitesi oranında verimli çalışmasını sağlamak			
27. Liman modernizasyonu ile ilgili yenilikleri ihtiyaç durumunda uygulamak			
28. Teknoloji, uygulama ve yönetim sistemlerini yakından takip etmek			
29. Limanların kurumsal sorumluluğu gereği, bölgedeki kamu kuruluşları ve sivil toplum kuruluşları ile sağlam ilişkiler inşa etmek			
30. İş paydaşları olan armatör, gümrükçü, nakliyeciler, taşıyıcılar, ihracatçı-ithalatçı tüm firmalarla düzeyli ilişkiler kurmak ve bu bilinci diğer yöneticilere de geçirebilmek			
31. Limanın müşterilerinin nabzını iyi tutmak, memnuniyetlerini kalıcı kılmak			
32. Diğer yöneticilerin farkındalığını sürekli en üst düzeyde tutmak			
33. Liman paydaşlarını yönlendirmek ve gerektiğinde ikna etmek			
34. Liman paydaşlarını motive etmek			

Anketi Cevaplayanın Adı Soyadı:.....

TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ

Appendix 5: The Third Round Delphi Questionnaire

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Algıları Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

3. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Sayın,

Limanlarda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili **yüksek lisans tezime** daha önce anketimi cevaplandırarak vermiş olduğunuz destekten dolayı **çok teşekkür ederim.**

Araştırmamızın daha kapsamlı sonuçlar verebilmesi için aşağıdaki 2 ifadeye ***katılıp katılmadığınızı kısaca*** belirtirseniz çok seviniriz,

1. Limanlarda **müşteri sadakati zayıf** olduğu için üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

() KATILIYORUM () KATILMIYORUM () YORUMSUZ

Yorumunuz:

2. limanlar, **liman çalışanlarının sürekli iş değiştirdiği** işletmeler olması nedeniyle üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

() KATILIYORUM () KATILMIYORUM () YORUMSUZ

Yorumunuz:

Appendix 6: Conducted Survey via Survey Monkey

Türkiye'deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

Türkiye'deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

1. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Öncelikle Türkiye'deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ilk aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için teşekkür ederiz.

Açıklama: Araştırmanın bu aşamasında sizden tecrübeleriniz ve gözlemlerinizi doğrultusunda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili üç soru cevaplamanız beklenmektedir. Sorulara olabildiğince kapsamlı yanıtlar vermenizi rica ederiz.

1. Profil Bilgileri

Ad Soyad	
Göreviniz	
Şirket İçindeki Çalışma Süreniz	
Yaşınız	
Eğitim Durumunuz (Lise/Lisans/Yüksek Lisans/Doktora)	
En Son Mezun Olduğunuz Kurum	

2. Liman Profil Bilgileri

Liman Adı	
Kuruluş Yılı	
Bulunduğu Şehir	
Mevcut Departmanlar	
Yaklaşık Personel Sayısı (Ofis İçinde)	
Yaklaşık Personel Sayısı (Liman sahasında)	
Yıllık Elleçleme Kapasitesi	
Hizmet Verilen Yük Tipleri	

3. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?

4. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli kişisel özellikler nelerdir?

5. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?

6. Çalışmanın sonuçlarını tarafınıza iletmemizi ister misiniz?

- ☐ Evet
☐ Hayır

Source: www.surveymonkey.com

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (1/4)

1. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?
Cevaplar
1. Limanlar, konumları ve verdikleri hizmetlerle stratejik öneme sahip işletmelerdir. Limanların ticari anlamlarının dışında Kurumsal sorumlulukları da vardır. Her iki konuda da, belirlenen hedefe ulaşmak için, eldeki kaynakların tespit edilmesi ve bu kaynaklardan optimum yararlanmak suretiyle, uygulanacak eylem planının belirlenmesi ve bu plan üzerinden harekete geçilmesi başarıyı getirir. Bu yüzden, kurum ister liman olsun, isterse başka bir işletme, yönetim kadrosundaki tüm üst düzey yöneticilerin, liderlik vasıflarının yönettikleri personeli ve görev aldıkları işletmeyi hedefe taşıyacak yeterlilikte olmalıdır.
2. Evet.Limancılığın en zor taraflarından biri müşteri sadakatinin zayıf olması , çalışanların iş değişikliğine yatkın olması ve piyasada volatilitenin yüksek olmasıdır.
3. Limanlar için müşteri odaklılık esastır. Önem bakımından birinci sırada yer alan müşteri grubu, yükü limana getiren “Container Carrier” (CC) olduğundan bunların münferiden ya da birlikler içerisinde müştereken alacakları aksiyonlar limanlar için hayati önemdedirler. CC’ler aynı zamanda iştirakleri aracılığı ile liman işletmeciliği de yapan dolayısıyla işin detayına vakıf organizasyonlara sahip büyük şirketler olduklarından bunlarla irtibatla bulunmak durumunda olan liman üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik düşünebilme kapasite ve becerisine sahip olmaları beklenir.
4. Tedarik zinciri içerisinde limanların gelecekteki rollerinin ve görevlerinin ne olacağını öngörmek ve bu doğrultuda vizyon oluşturup ekibi ve sermayedarları ikna etmek önemlidir.
5. Üst düzey yöneticinin stratejik yönetimi sadece limancılık sektöründe değil genelde tüm sektörlerde olması gereken unsur ve önemlidir..Ayrıca, özellikle limancılığın uluslararası entegrasyonu olması nedeniyle sadece Türkiye de değil tüm dünya üzerindeki stratejik kararları alabilmek adına,bu liderlik özelliğinin olması gereklidir..
6. Son derece önemlidir. Limanlar stratejik tesislerdir ve ilk yatırım kararlarının verilmesi çok detaylı bilgi, belge ve hesaplamalar gerektirir. Şayet böyle orta ve uzun vadeli yatırım yapıyorsanız stratejik bakmak ve strateji yapmak yapabilmek belki de en önemli unsurdur.
7. Çok önemlidir çünkü limanlarda sıcak satış yapılmaz, armatörlerin ihtiyaçlarına göre uzun vadeli doğru pozisyon almak önem taşır.
8. kesinlikle önemlidir. limancılıkta dengeler kısa sürede değişmez. attığınız/atmadığınız adımların sonuçlarını almak/görmek zaman alır. bu bazen 10yılları bulabilir. içinde bulunduğunuz durumu çok iyi değerlendirip çok doğru kararlar alıp emin adımlarla ilerlemek uygulamak,takip etmek çok önemli.

Appendix 7:The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (2/4)

9. Evet önemlidir. Liman yönetiminde önemli olan geleceği planlama ve vizyon oluşturabilme süreçlerinde yön belirleyici olan üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması gerekmektedir.
10. Önemlidir. Üst düzey yönetici konuya, pazar ve rekabet koşullarına, pazar ve rekabetin geleceğine, 3 kişilerle iletişime vs konulara en hakim kişi olarak çizmiş olduğu stratejiyi Yönetim Kurulu ile paylaşmalı, finansal ölçüler doğrultusunda stratejik yatırım kararları aldırılmalı, bu konularda hem Yönetim Kuruluna yön göstericilik ve liderlik etmeli, hem de bu stratejiler konusunda ekip çalışanlarına hedefler koyup, birlikte aksiyon planları geliştirmelidir. Bu özellikleri taşımayan yöneticiler hatalı yatırımlara, hatalı yönlendirmelere neden olur ve şirketin gelişimi sağlıklı olmaz.
11. Kesinlikle önemlidir. Günümüz rekabet şartlarında limanların kendini doğru zamanda doğru bir şekilde konumlandırması elzemdir. Stratejik liderlik özelliklerini taşıyan yöneticiler sayesinde, limanlar rekabete daha donanımlı bir şekilde girebilirler, riski minimuma indirebilirler.
12. Evet önemlidir. Stratejik liderlerin olduğu endüstriler, stratejik planlar doğrultusunda çalışmayı prensip edindikleri için farklılıklarını ortaya koyarlar.

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (3/4)

2. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli özellikler nelerdir?
Cevaplar
1. Risk ve faktörlerini belirleyerek gerektiğinde sorumluluk alma, kriz yönetimi becerisi, müşteri merkezli düşünce, sektör ve rekabet takibi, sonuç odaklı çalışma, başarısızlığı sahiplenme, başarıyı paylaşma.
2. Sektör ve işin temel bilgilerine hakim olmak, dürüst, güvenilir ve proaktif bir yaklaşım sergilemektir.
3. Düşüncede analitik ve sabırlı uygulamada hızlı ve kararlı olmaktır.
4. Analitik düşünmek, yeniliklere açık olmak, paylaşımcı ve destekleyici olmak.
5. Limancılık sektöründe bilgi, deneyim ve tecrübesi olmalı, ayrıca araştırmacı ve sektördeki gelişimlere çok yakın olmalı..
6. Dünya ve ülke ticaretinin nereye doğru evrildiğini gelecekte nelere ihtiyaç duyulacağını herkesten önce görebilmek ve öncü olabilmek. Yatırımları bugünün ihtiyaçları ile değil yarının ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda yapmak ve planlamak. Yarının faydalı bekarlı işletmelerini bugünden planlamak ve yapmak.
7. Büyük resmi görmek, güvene dayalı uzun vadeli ilişkiler kurmak, stratejik düşünmek.
8. analitik düşünmek. liman süreçleri hakkında detaylı bilgi sahibi olmak. sektör bilgisi ve çevre. yeniliklere ve farklı fikirlere açık olma. katılımcı ve destekleyici olmak.
9. -vizyon oluşturabilme -geleceği tahmin edebilme -yeniliklere açık olma -doğru zamanda doğru kararı verebilme
10. - İletişim becerileri - Değişim yönetimi becerileri - Cesaret - İnisiyatif alabilme becerisi - Risk yönetim becerisi - Analitik düşünce tarzı - Yaratıcılık - Güvenilirlik
11. İyi bir araştırmacı ve analiz yeteneği yüksek, gerekli aksiyonların doğru zamanda alınabilmesi için yeterli cesarete ve ikna kabiliyetine sahip olabilmesi, dışa dönük, yönetim kabiliyeti yüksek
12. Vizyon sahibi olması, Pazar/piyasa/rakipler hakkında bilgi sahibi olması, performans göstergeleri ve hedefler doğrultusunda yönetim ilkelerine sahip olması, ekibine rol/model olabilmesi

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (4/4)

3. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?
Cevaplar
1. Limanların kamusal sorumluluğu gereği, bölgedeki kamu kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ile sağlam ilişkiler inşa etmek. İşletmenin bütçe hedef ve kapasitesi oranında verimli çalışmasını sağlamak. Müşteri ilişkileri yönetimini, tüm personele yaymak. Sektörel Gelişmeleri takip etmek, Liman modernizasyonu ile ilgili yenilikleri ihtiyaç durumunda uygulamak. Tehlikeli işletmeler olarak sınıflandırılan Liman sahasında Is güvenliğini sağlamak ve bu bilinci yaymak. Liman operasyonlarında çevreye zarar verebilecek ellecmeler konusunda çevre hassasiyetini oluşturmak ve bunu tüm personele yaymak. Toplam Kalite yönetimi kurallarını uygulayarak, limanı tercih edilen bir uğrak haline getirmek. Is paydaşları olan, Armator, Gümrukcu, Nakliyeciler, Taseron, İhracatçı, İthalatçı tüm firmalarla düzeyli ilişkiler kurmak ve bu bilinci diğer yöneticilere de geçirebilmek.
2. Birlikte çalıştığı ekibine açık hedefler koymak ve sorumlulukları net bir şekilde delege etmek, onları pozitif yönetimle desteklemek ve kişisel gelişimlerine yardımcı olmak, bütün çalışanların haklarını en iyi şekilde savunarak yönetime olarak güven ve bağlılıklarını tesis etmektir. Buna ek olarak limanın yaşam kaynağı olan müşterilerinin nabzını iyi tutmak, memnuniyetlerini kalıcı kılmak ta esas görevlerinden biridir.
3. Yöneticilerinin farkındalığını sürekli en üst düzeyde tutmaktır.
4. Geleceğe uygun İnsana, teknolojiye ,sürekliliğe ve sürdürülebilirliğe, kurumsal hafızaya yatırım yapmak. Paylaşımcılığa , katılımcı olmaya ve yenilikçi olmaya destek olmak.
5. Yönetim içindeki departmanlar arasındaki koordinasyonu ve entegrasyonunu tam sağlamalıdır..
6. Birbirinden farklılıkları olan, iyi yetişmiş ve bir arada ekip çalışması yaparak sinerji yaratabilecek ekipler kurmak ve onların önünü açarak, koçluk yaparak organizasyonun orta ve uzun vadeli hedeflerine varabileceği ortamı yaratmak, bu hedef doğrultuda tüm paydaşları ikna etmek, motive etmek ,yönlendirmek.
7. Ticaret ve denizcilik alanındaki gelişmeleri takip etmek, ihtiyaca göre doğru planlama yapmak.
8. ufuklara bakmak. yeni ufuklar , vizyon belirlemek. ulaşılacak istenen vizyon için alt kırılımları katılımcı bir ortamda belirleyip aksiyonların alınmasını sağlamak, takip etmek. teknoloji , uygulama ve yönetim sistemlerini yakından takip etmek.
9. - Teknik bilgiye sahip olması - Mevcut durum ve gelecek analizi yapabilmesi - Pazar stratejilerini iyi okuyabilmeli - Performans ve müşteri odaklı yönetim - Fizibilite yapabilme yetkinliği
10. Mevcut piyasa trendlerini iyi analiz ederek, gelecek trendleri öngörebilmek ve ilgili aksiyonları doğru zamanda alarak, limanın hem ticari hem de operasyonel etkinliğini ve rekabet gücünü arttırabilmek.
11. Stratejik planlama kültürünü oturtmak, adil ve tutarlı bir performans yönetimi sağlamak, stratejik pazarlama ile marka değeri yaratmak, şirket içinde ortak bir kültür yaratmak, çalışan bağlılığını/memnuniyetini yükseltmek

Appendix 8: The Comment of the Panelists to Two Questions of the Third Round Delphi Survey

Aşağıdaki 2 ifadeye ***katılıp katılmadığınızı kısaca*** belirtiniz.

1. Limanlarda **müşteri sadakati zayıf** olduğu için üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

Limanlarda müşteri devamlığını sağlayacak birçok parametre bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte limanın hangi tip işler yaptığının müşteri profili üzerinde etkisi vardır; konteyner limanın birincil müşterileri konteyner hatlarıdır, açık yük (konteynerize olmamış yükler, katı, sıvı vb) elleçleyen limanlar alternatifsizse müşteriler süreklilik arz edebilir, ancak aynı bölgede aynı işi yapan birkaç liman varsa müşteri sadakati sağlamak biraz daha zordur.

Bu anlamda müşteri sadakatini sağlayan en önemli iki unsur fiyat ve liman performansdır. Bununla birlikte karar verme aşamasında pek çok etmen vardır, ancak karar aşamasında etkileri ilk ikisi kadar önem arz etmez. Rekabet olan bölgelerdeki limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin öncelikle fiyat (karlılık, maliyet, piyasa ortalamaları vs) ve akabinde liman performansı konusunda stratejik kararlar alması gerekmektedir. Bu parametrelerin sürekliliğini sağlayacak yönde lider davranışlar ve kararlar almak zorunluluğu bulunmaktadır.

2. Limanlar, **liman çalışanlarının sürekli iş değiştirdiği** işletmeler olması nedeniyle üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

Öncelikle şunu belirtmek isterim ki, iyi bir limanda iş dönüşüm oranları düşüktür.

Çalışanları motive eden unsurların başında aldıkları ücreti ve işin yapıldığı ortam şartları gelmektedir. Bu unsurların iyileştirilmesi iş dönüşüm oranını düşürür. Ancak bu da doğrudan liman gelirleri ile doğru orantılıdır. Kazancı yüksek olan bir işletme çalışanlarını da mutlu edebilir, küçük hacimli işletmelerde bunu sağlamak zorlaşır. Başka bir faktörde çalışanların ikame edilebilirliğidir. İş talebinin çok olduğu bir ortamda yöneticiler daha rahat davranabilir ve buna göre kararlar alabilir. Kritik pozisyonları sıradan pozisyonlardan da ayırmak gerekir. Yöneticilerin liderlik özellikleri bir dereceye kadar çalışanları etkileyebilir, ancak daha önce dediğim gibi ücret politikaları belirleyici unsurdur. Yöneticiler ne kadar stratejik liderlik özelliklerine sahip olursa olsun, şirket kazanmıyorsa çalışanları da tutmak pek mümkün değildir, aynı zamanda ekonomik nedenlerle ortam şartlarının iyileştirilememesi de çalışanları bağlamaz, ayrılmalarına neden olabilir.

Appendix 9:List of Panelists in Delphi Process*

Name Surname	Port
1. Ali Şenel (Trade Manager)	Çelebi Bandırma
2. Mehmet S. Bosna (General Manager)	TCEEGE
3. M. Hakan Genç (Group President)	Marport
4. Uygun Değirmenci (Administrative Manager)	Borusan
5. Ali Keskin (Administrative Manager)	Evyapport
6. Çağdaş Kapkan (Operation Manager)	TCEEGE
7. Oğuz Tümiş (General Manager)	Nemport
8. Özlem Sevilkan (Head of Human Resources)	APM Terminals

*The list of panelists published their names on this thesis and future research

APPENDICES

Appendix 1: Procedure for Individual Port Master Planning (1/2)

The 11 main tasks (B1 to B11) are as follows:

1. Set up an ongoing traffic analysis (if this does not already exist).
2. Prepare a broad long-term traffic forecast.
3. Initiate any broad engineering surveys needed.
4. Analyze the port's role as laid down by the national authority.
5. Determine the long-term phased area requirements.
6. Determine the long-term wafer and channel requirements.
7. Assign traffic to major port zones.
8. Calculate the rough cost of each terminal/berth group in each phase.
9. Prepare the draft master plan and submit for national approval.
10. Revise and publish the port master plan and obtain local approval.
11. Install a control system for initiating a project at the right time.

Each of these tasks is described in more detail below.

Task B1. Set up an ongoing traffic analyzer

The data required are shown in chapter III, "Traffic forecasting".

The UNCTAD "Manual on a uniform system of port statistics and performance indicators" contains a complete system for collecting the data both for planning and for operational purposes.

Task B2. Prepare a broad long-term traffic forecast

Strictly speaking, the ports cannot start forecasting until their role has been defined at national level, but there is a lot of preparatory work and simple projections which need not wait for this. At the master planning stage, forecasting is to be broad and long term only.

Task B3. Initiate any broad engineering surveys needed

The surveys that should be initiated for master planning are those which provide a broad picture on which major zone decisions can be based, plus those [like siltation studies] which are themselves of a long-term nature. The range of surveys which may be needed are described in chapter VII, "Civil engineering aspects."

Task B4. Analyze the port's role as laid down by the national authority

If the national plan has not been prepared, it may be necessary to analyze the port's role as seen locally and submit this as a proposal.

Task B5. Determine [the long-term phased area requirements

For each of the traffic streams likely to result from the defined role of the port:

1. Review characteristics of each class of traffic (transport, storage, ship size and draught, pollution).
2. Review industrial development plans and possibilities in port area.
3. Calculate broad land area requirements for the range of feasible long-term cargo throughputs.
4. Estimate land area requirements for long-term industrial development within port limits.
5. Estimate land area requirements for ancillary land-use (housing, amenities) within port limits.
6. Tabulate the various area requirements phased according to each traffic alternative.

Task B6. Determine the long-term wafer and channel requirements

For each class of ship traffic, calculate the broad water area and depth requirements for the range of ship types and sizes expected in the long term.

Task B7. Assign traffic to major port zones

This task is discussed further in chapter V of this handbook. The following is a sequence of work which is appropriate at the master planning stage:

1. Examine environmental impact of each class of port activity (both independently and as they affect each other).
 2. Survey existing water areas and approaches and compare different ways of deepening and extending these, including new land cuts.
-

Appendix 1: Procedure for Individual Port Master Planning (2/2)

3. Survey existing and available land areas and compare alternative ways of extending them, including reclamation.
4. Draw alternative zone configurations with corresponding communications corridors.
5. Broadly evaluate alternative phased configurations for transportation economy, capital cost and flexibility.
6. Prepare zoning plan for the preferred solution.
7. Draw outline charts of water depth for the chosen zoning configuration, corresponding to the successive phases of each alternative.

Task B8. Calculate the rough cost of each terminal/berth group

1. Identify likely terminal or berth group developments, in each zone within the zoning plan, for each future alternative.
 2. Estimate the rough costs of each terminal development.
- N.B. Although it will be difficult to obtain such cost estimates, it is important to find any indicate figure, however rough. This is because without such figures it will be impossible to build up a long-term investment plan, which is essential to show whether the master plan is feasible.
3. Tabulate the results.

Task B9. Prepare the draft master plan and submit for national approval

The contents of a master plan should include:

- (a) The long-term forecast and its rationale;
- (b) The planning maps;
- (c) The investment implications.

One way of organizing the preparation of the plan is as follows:

1. For each class of port activity, combine the successive stages of development in the alternative cases into a single framework independent of time.
2. Draw planning maps showing the proposed zoning and alternative development sequences within the framework.
3. Prepare order-of-magnitude investment cost figures for the development sequence of each activity.
4. For the time-scales both of a conservative and of a radical alternative, calculate the total investment implications over the period.
5. Assemble this material into a draft master plan, with a supporting commentary on assumptions and rationale.

Task B10. Revise and publish the agreed pm muter plan

This should be published in such a form that it can be easily revised and amended each year.

Task B11. Install a control system for initiating a project at the right time

It is essential to initiate a project feasibility study as soon as there is an indication that, by the time the development is complete, there will be enough traffic to justify it. Master planning is not complete until a routine is established for checking when projects should be initiated. The following procedure is one way of doing this:

On completion of the master plan

1. Identify each individual investment project within the plan over the next ten years.
2. For each of these projects, estimate the likely development time that will elapse between initiating project action and bringing the facilities on stream. This will include: the whole sequence of project planning; funding and time for decision making; tendering; design and construction.

Every year

1. Bring the traffic forecast up to date, for each traffic class.
2. Estimate the future growth rate of traffic in that class, taking account of latest developments and customer requests.
3. At this growth rate, calculate the traffic level a number of years in advance of the date at which the project capacity is needed. This is the triggering level.
4. Activate the project if the triggering level has been reached.

Source: UNCTAD, 1985: 10

**Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regionsin
Turkey (1/3)**

PRIVATE PORTS ACCORDING TO REGION	
ANTALYA DISTRICT	
1.	ALİDAŞ ALANYA LİMANI
2.	ANTALYA LİMANI SERBEST BÖLGE RIHTIMI
3.	ÇEKİSAN ŞAMANDIRASI
4.	MOBİL ŞAMANDIRA PLATFORMU
5.	ORTADOĞU ANTALYA LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş. (PORT AKDENİZ)
6.	POAŞ ANTALYA ŞAMANDIRA TERMİNALİ
ÇANAKKALE DISTRICT	
1.	AKÇANSA ÇANAKKALE LİMANI
2.	BAGFAŞ İSKELESİ
3.	PORT OF BANDIRMA
4.	BORUSAN LİMANI
5.	BP GEMLİK İSKELESİ
6.	GEMLİK GÜBRE LİMANI
7.	GEMPORT
8.	RODA LİMAN DEPOLAMA VE LOJİSTİK İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş.
9.	İÇDAŞ İSKELESİ
10.	DOLAMİT MADENCİLİK RIHTIMI
11.	ÖZGÜMÜŞ MADENCİLİK RIHTIMI
İSTANBUL DISTRICT	
1.	ASYAPORT
2.	AUTOPORT LİMANİŞLETMELERİ A.Ş.
3.	AKÇANSA AMBARLI LİMANI
4.	AMBARLI DEPOLMA TESİSLERİ
5.	ANADOLU ÇİMENTO TESİSLERİ
6.	SET ÇİMENTO SANAYİ VE TİCARET A.Ş.
7.	AYGAZ LPG DEPOLAMA VE DOLUM TESİSLERİ
8.	ÇEKİSAN ÇEKMECE DEPOLAMA
9.	KUMPORT LİMANI
10.	MARDAŞ
11.	MARPORT
12.	PETROL OFİSİ HARAMİDERE TESİSLERİ
13.	TOTAL HARAMİDERE İSKELESİ
14.	ANADOLU YAKASI KUMCULARI İSKELELERİ
15.	MOBİL OIL SERVİBURNU İSKELESİ
16.	PETROL OFİSİ ÇUBUKLU TESİSLERİ
17.	ZEYPORT
18.	AKÇANSA YALOVA ÇİMENTO TERMİNALİ İSKELESİ
19.	AKSA AKRİLİK KİMYA SANAYİ A.Ş.
20.	AKTAŞ TERMİNALİ
21.	ALEMDAR DİLİSKELESİ
22.	ALTINEL İSKELESİ
23.	AYGAZ YARIMCA DOLUM TESİSİ
24.	ÇOLAKOĞLU METALURJİ TESİSLERİ
25.	DİLER LİMAN TESİSLERİ
26.	EVYAP DENİZ İŞLETMECİLİĞİ LOJİSTİK VE İNŞAAT A.Ş.
27.	FORD OTOSAN YENİKÖY İSKELESİ

Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regionsin Turkey (2/3)

28. GÜBRETAŞ TESİSLERİ
29. HABAŞ TERMİNALİ
30. İGSAŞ İSTANBUL GÜBRE SANAYİ A.Ş.
31. EFESAN PORT
32. KIZILKAYA LİMANI
33. KORUMA KLOR ALKALİ SAN. VE TİC. A.Ş.
34. KROMAN ÇELİK LİMAN TESİSLERİ
35. LAFARGE ASLAN ÇİMENTO İSKELESİ
36. LİMAN İZMİT TERMİNALİ
37. MARMARA TRANSPORT İSKELESİ
38. MİLANGAZ ŞAMANDIRA TESİSLERİ
39. NUH ÇİMENTO SAN A.Ş. (NUHPORT)
40. OPAY PLATFORM İSKELESİ
41. PETLINE PLATFORMU
42. PETROL OFİSİ DERİNCE İSKELESİ
43. POLİPORT
44. SEDEF KONTEYNER TERMİNALİ VE LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ
45. SHELL DERİNCE TESİSLERİ
46. SOLVENTAŞ
47. TOTAL GEBZE TERMİNALİ
48. TURKUAZ İSKELESİ
49. TÜPRAŞ İZMİT RAFİNERİ TESİSLERİ
50. TÜPRAŞ KÖRFEZ SIVI YÜK İSKELESİ
51. YALOVA ELYAF İSKELESİ
52. YARIMCA ROTA LİMANI
53. DP WORLD YARIMCA LİMANI
54. ERDEM EREĞLİ ÇİMENTO ÖZEL LİMANI
55. ERDEMİR LİMANI
56. EREN HOLDİNG LİMANI
57. BÜTÜNGAZ TERMİNALİ
58. OPET MARMARA TERMİNALİ İSKELE VE PLATFORMU
59. AKPORT
60. MARTAŞ MARMARA EREĞLİ LİMAN TESİSLERİ
61. ÇAYIROVA CAM SANAYİ İSKELESİ
62. GİSAŞ TUZLA İSKELESİ
63. U.N. RO-RO PENDİK LİMANI
64. YILPORT

İZMİR DISTRICT

1. AKDENİZ KİMYA NEMPORT LİMANI
2. EGE ÇELİK LİMANI
3. EGE GÜBRE LİMANI
4. EGE GAZ LNG TERMİNALİ
5. HABAŞ İSKELESİ
6. BATIÇİM A.Ş. BATI LİMAN TESİSLERİ
7. İDÇ LİMANI
8. PETROL OFİSİ ALİAĞA TESİSLERİ
9. TOTAL OIL İSKELESİ
10. TÜPRAŞ LİMANI
11. PETKİM LİMANI
12. BODRUM CRUISE PORT
13. GÜLLÜK GEMİ YANAŞMA İSKELESİ
14. ÇEŞME LİMANI
15. DİKİLİ İSKELESİ

Appendix 2: Private Port List and Geographical Distribution of Main Regions in Turkey (3/3)

16. MOPAK İSKELESİ 17. KUŞADASI YOLCU LİMANI 18. MARMARİS LİMANI
MERSİN DISTRICT
1. LİMAKPORT İSKENDERUN 2. TOROS CEYHAN TERMİNALİ 3. ADVANSA SASA POLYESTER TESİSLERİ 4. ÇEKİSAN ŞAMANDIRASI 5. GÜBRETAŞ SARİSEKİ İSKELESİ 6. İSDEMİR LİMANI 7. DELTA PETROL LİMANI 8. ORHAN EKİNCİ İSKELESİ 9. YAZICI İSKELESİ 10. AKTAŞ TERMİNALİ 11. MERSİN LİMANI 12. MMK ATAKAŞ DÖRTYOL LİMAN İŞLETMESİ 13. MESBAŞ RIHTIMI
SAMSUN DISTRICT
1. SAMSUNPORT 2. TOROS TARIM SANAYİİ SAMSUN LİMAN İŞLETMESİ 3. SÜRSAN ŞAMANDIRASI 4. ORDU LİMANI 5. AYGAZ ŞAMANDIRALARI 6. PETROL OFİSİ ŞAMANDIRALARI 7. TOTAL OIL ŞAMANDIRASI 8. YILDIZ ENTEGRE AĞAÇ SAN. ŞAMANDIRASI 9. SİNOP LİMANI
TRABZON DISTRICT
1. GİRESUN LİMANI 2. PARK DENİZCİLİK HOPA LİMAN İŞLETMELERİ A.Ş. 3. RİPORT 4. ÜNYE ÇİMENTO TESİSİ LİMANI 5. POAŞ ŞAMANDIRA TESİSLERİ 6. TRABZON LİMANI

Source: Turkish Chamber of Shipping, 2013: 85

Appendix 3: The First Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (1/2)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

Sayın Yetkili,

Dünyada limanlar, uluslararası pazarlara ulaşmada stratejik bir kapı ve tedarik zincirinin değer yaratan önemli bir halkası konumundadırlar. Bu konum küresel ticarete ve teknolojiye yaşanan hızlı değişimler ile birlikte, limanlar arasında rekabet artışını ve bunun yanında liman operasyonlarına daha ticari bir anlayışı beraberinde getirmiştir. Liman faaliyetlerinin çeşitlendiği ve tedarik zinciri ile bütünleştiği bir ortamda yönetimin kısıtlı insan kaynakları ile karmaşık operasyonları yürütmesi giderek zorlaşmaktadır. Bu bağlamda limanların üst düzey yönetim takımı stratejik liderlik özellikleri önem kazanmaya başlamıştır.

Bu çalışmanın amacı, Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik özelliklerini ortaya çıkarmak ve stratejik liderlik kavramına bakışlarını belirlemektir. Bu amaca ulaşmak için nitel bir araştırma yöntemi olan Delphi tekniği seçilmiştir. Uzlaşma sağlama aracı olarak ifade edilen Delphi, bir problem durumuna ilişkin uzman görüşlerini sistematik bir şekilde elde eden bir tekniktir. Delphi tekniği kullanılarak bir problem durumuna farklı açılardan bakan bireylerin ve grupların yüz yüze gelmeden uzlaşmaları amaçlanmaktadır. İki aşamada yürütülecek olan araştırmanın ilk aşamasını, örnekleme oluşturan üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik algıları ile ilgili cevaplayanın yorumuna dayalı soru formu oluşturmaktadır. Bu aşamadaki bulgulardan yola çıkılarak araştırmanın ikinci aşaması hazırlanacaktır. Araştırma sürecinde elde edilen tüm bilgiler istatistik amaçlı kullanılacak olup, firmaların adları ve özel bilgileri **kesinlikle açıklanmayacaktır.**

Soru formunun, limanın üst düzey yöneticileri tarafından doldurulmasını rica eder ve cevapların da yukarıda belirtilen posta adresimize, faksımıza (0 232 301 88 48) veya e-posta adresimize (cagdasemiroglu@gmail.com) en kısa zamanda ulaştırılmasını rica ederiz. Çalışma tamamlandığında isteğiniz doğrultusunda sonuçların bir kopyasına bizden ulaşabilirsiniz. Yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür eder ve işlerinizde başarılar dileriz.

Saygılarımla,

Çağdaş Emiroğlu

Bu çalışma Yrd.Doç.Dr. Didem ÖZER ÇAYLAN’ın danışmanlığında gerçekleştirilmektedir.

Tel: 0 232 301 88 22

Fax: 0 232 301 88 48

E-Posta: didem.ozer@deu.edu.tr

Appendix 3: The First Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (2/2)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

1. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Öncelikle Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ilk aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için **teşekkür ederiz.**

A- SORULAR

Açıklama: Araştırmanın bu aşamasında sizden tecrübeleriniz ve gözlemlerinizi doğrultusunda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili üç soru cevaplamanız beklenmektedir. Sorulara olabildiğince kapsamlı yanıtlar vermenizi rica ederiz.

1. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?

2. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli kişisel özellikler nelerdir?

3. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?

B- PROFİL BİLGİLERİ

(Aşağıdaki sorular istatistiksel amaçlı kullanılacak ve kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır.)

Profil Bilgileri:

Ad Soyad:.....

Göreviniz:

Şirket içindeki çalışma süresiniz:.....(ay/yıl)

Yaşınız:.....

Eğitim durumunuz: () Lise () Lisans () Yüksek Lisans () Doktora

En son mezun olduğunuz kurum:

Liman Bilgileri:

Liman Adı:

Kuruluş yılı:.....

Bulunduğu şehir:.....

Mevcut departmanlar:.....

Yaklaşık personel sayısı:(ofis içinde).....(liman sahasında)

Yıllık elleçleme kapasitesi:.....

Hizmet verilen yük tipleri:

Çalışmanın sonuçlarını tarafınıza iletmemizi ister misiniz? () EVET () HAYIR

Katılımınız için Teşekkür ederiz.

Appendix 4:The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (1/3)

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Algıları Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

2. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Öncelikle Türkiye’deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ikinci aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için *teşekkür ederiz*.

Araştırmamızın ikinci aşamasındaki amaç, ilk etapta toplanan fikirlerin oylanarak ortak bir sonuç elde edilmesidir. Aşağıdaki ifadeler sizlerin birinci etap açık uçlu sorulara verdiğiniz değerli yorumlarınız doğrultusunda oluşturulmuştur.

İfadeler hakkındaki düşüncenizi yanlarındaki **E-Evet Katılıyorum**, **H-Hayır Katılmıyorum** ya da **Y-Yorumsuz** kutucuklarından birini işaretleyerek belirtiniz.

A. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önemlidir çünkü;	E	H	Y
1. Limanlar, konumları gereği stratejik öneme sahip işletmelerdir.			
2. Limanlar, tedarik zinciri içerisinde stratejik öneme sahiptir.			
3. Limanlar, verdikleri hizmetlerle stratejik öneme sahiptirler.			
4. Limanlarda müşteri odaklılık esastır.			
5. Limanlar, müşteri sadakatının zayıf olduğu işletmelerdir.			
6. Limanlar, uluslararası entegrasyonun yoğun olduğu bir sektördedir.			
7. Limanlarda ilk yatırım kararları çok detaylı bilgi, belge ve hesaplamalar gerektirir.			
8. Limancılıkta dengeler kısa sürede değişmez; atılan ve atılmayan adımların sonuçlarını görmek zaman alır.			
9. Limanlar, uzun vadede doğru pozisyon almayı gerektiren işletmelerdir.			
10. Liman işletmesinin gelişiminin sağlıklı olması için liman üst düzey yöneticilerinin finansal ölçüler doğrultusunda Yönetim Kurulu’nu yönlendirmesi ve stratejik yatırım kararlarını bu yolla alması önemlidir.			
11. Liman yönetiminde önemli olan geleceği planlamak ve vizyon oluşturabilmektir.			
12. Stratejik liderlik özelliklerini taşıyan yöneticiler sayesinde, limanlar rekabete daha donanımlı bir şekilde girebilirler, riski minimuma indirebilirler.			
13. Limanlar, dönemsel değişikliğin (<i>volatile</i>) yüksek olduğu piyasada hizmet sağlayan işletmelerdir.			
14. Limanlar, liman çalışanlarının iş değişikliğine yatkın işletmelerdir.			
15. Limanlar, ticari anlamlarının dışında kurumsal sorumlulukları da olan işletmelerdir.			

Appendix 4:The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (2/3)

B. Liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli özelliği:	E	H	Y
1. Vizyon oluşturabilmesidir.			
2. Dünya ve ülke ticaretinin nereye doğru çevrildiğini ve gelecekte nelere ihtiyaç duyulacağını herkesten önce görebilmesidir.			
3. Öncü olabilmesidir.			
4. Kriz yönetim becerisine sahip olmasıdır.			
5. Risk yönetim becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
6. Yeniliklere açık olmasıdır.			
7. Doğru zamanda doğru kararı verebilmesidir.			
8. Değişim yönetimi becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
9. Farklı fikirlere açık olmasıdır.			
10. Başarıyı paylaşılabilmektedir.			
11. Güvenilir olmasıdır.			
12. Paylaşımçı olmasıdır.			
13. Yüksek iletişim becerilerine sahip olmasıdır.			
14. Yeterli ikna kabiliyetine sahip olmasıdır.			
15. Dışa dönük olmasıdır.			
16. Güvene dayalı uzun vadeli ilişkiler kurabilmesidir.			
17. Ekibine rol model olabilmesidir			
18. Destekleyici olmasıdır.			
19. Yönetim kabiliyeti yüksek olmasıdır.			
20. Performans göstergeleri ve hedefler doğrultusunda yönetim anlayışına sahip olmasıdır.			
21. Başarısızlığı sahiplenebilen biri olmasıdır.			
22. Araştırmacı olmasıdır.			
23. Cesur olmasıdır.			
24. Uygulamada hızlı olabilmesidir.			
25. Stratejik düşünebilmesidir.			
26. Sektör takibi yapabilmesidir.			
27. Rekabet takibi yapabilmesidir.			
28. Sektör ve işin temel bilgilerine hakim olmasıdır.			
29. Rakipler hakkında bilgi sahibi olmasıdır.			
30. Pazar/piyasa hakkında bilgi sahibi olmasıdır.			
31. Risk faktörlerini belirleyerek gerektiğinde sorumluluk alabilmesidir.			
32. İnisiyatif alabilmesidir.			
33. Analitik düşünmesidir.			
34. Sonuç odaklı çalışmasıdır.			
35. Sabırlı olmasıdır.			
36. Kararlı olmasıdır.			
37. Müşteri merkezli düşünebilmesidir.			

Appendix 4: The Second Round Delphi Questionnaire in Turkish (3/3)

C. Limanların yönetim sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler:	E	H	Y
1. Sektörel gelişmeleri takip etmek			
2. İşletmenin orta ve uzun vadeli hedeflerine varabileceği çalışma ortamını yaratmak			
3. Vizyon belirlemek			
4. Katılımcı bir ortamda gerekli aksiyonların alınmasını sağlamak ve takip etmek			
5. Mevcut durum ve gelecek analizi yapabilmek			
6. Pazar stratejilerini iyi okuyabilmek			
7. Mevcut piyasa trendlerini iyi analiz etmek			
8. Fizibilite yapabilmek			
9. Gelecek trendleri öngörebilmek			
10. Stratejik planlama kültürünü oluşturmak			
11. Stratejik pazarlama ile marka değeri yaratmak			
12. Limanın hem ticari hem de operasyonel etkinliğini ve rekabet gücünü arttırabilmek			
13. Müşteri ilişkileri yönetimini tüm personele yaymak			
14. Liman sahasında iş güvenliğini sağlamak ve bu bilinci yaymak			
15. Birlikte çalıştığı ekibine açık hedefler koymak ve sorumlulukları net bir şekilde delege etmek			
16. Çalışanları pozitif yönetimle desteklemek ve kişisel gelişimlerine yardımcı olmak			
17. Teknolojiye, sürekliliğe ve sürdürülebilirliğe, kurumsal hafızaya ve insana yatırım yapmak			
18. Paylaşımcılığa, katılımcı olmaya ve yenilikçi olmaya destek olmak			
19. Yönetim içindeki departmanlar arasındaki koordinasyonu ve entegrasyonunu tam sağlamak			
20. Birbirine göre farklılıkları olan, iyi yetişmiş ve bir arada ekip çalışması yaparak sinerji yaratabilecek ekipler kurmak			
21. Çalışanlara koçluk yapmak			
22. Çalışan bağlılığını/memnuniyetini yükseltmek			
23. Bütün çalışanların haklarını en iyi şekilde savunarak onların yönetime olan güven ve bağlılıklarını tesis etmek			
24. Şirket içinde ortak bir kültür yaratmak			
25. Adil ve tutarlı bir performans yönetimi sağlamak			
26. İşletmenin bütçe hedef ve kapasitesi oranında verimli çalışmasını sağlamak			
27. Liman modernizasyonu ile ilgili yenilikleri ihtiyaç durumunda uygulamak			
28. Teknoloji, uygulama ve yönetim sistemlerini yakından takip etmek			
29. Limanların kurumsal sorumluluğu gereği, bölgedeki kamu kuruluşları ve sivil toplum kuruluşları ile sağlam ilişkiler inşa etmek			
30. İş paydaşları olan armatör, gümrükçü, nakliyeciler, taşıyıcılar, ihracatçı-ithalatçı tüm firmalarla düzeyli ilişkiler kurmak ve bu bilinci diğer yöneticilere de geçirebilmek			
31. Limanın müşterilerinin nabzını iyi tutmak, memnuniyetlerini kalıcı kılmak			
32. Diğer yöneticilerin farkındalığını sürekli en üst düzeyde tutmak			
33. Liman paydaşlarını yönlendirmek ve gerektiğinde ikna etmek			
34. Liman paydaşlarını motive etmek			

Anketi Cevaplayanın Adı Soyadı:.....

TEŞEKKÜR EDERİZ

Appendix 5:The Third Round Delphi Questionnaire

Türkiye’deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Algıları Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

3. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Sayın,

Limanlarda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili **yüksek lisans tezime** daha önce anketimi cevaplandırarak vermiş olduğunuz destekten dolayı **çok teşekkür ederim.**

Araştırmamızın daha kapsamlı sonuçlar verebilmesi için aşağıdaki 2 ifadeye ***katılıp katılmadığınızı kısaca*** belirtirseniz çok seviniriz,

1. Limanlarda **müşteri sadakati zayıf** olduğu için üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

() KATILIYORUM () KATILMIYORUM ()YORUMSUZ

Yorumunuz:

2. limanlar, **liman çalışanlarının sürekli iş değiştirdiği** işletmeler olması nedeniyle üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

() KATILIYORUM () KATILMIYORUM ()YORUMSUZ

Yorumunuz:

Appendix 6: Conducted Survey via Survey Monkey

Türkiye'deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

Türkiye'deki Özel Limanlarda Üst Düzey Yöneticilerinin Stratejik Liderlik Özellikleri Üzerine Bir Delphi Araştırması

1. AŞAMA SORU FORMU

Oncelikle Türkiye'deki özel limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik liderlik algıları üzerine oluşturulan araştırmamızın ilk aşamasına katılmayı kabul ettiğiniz için teşekkür ederiz.

Açıklama: Araştırmanın bu aşamasında sizden tecrübeleriniz ve gözlemlerinizi doğrultusunda stratejik liderlik ile ilgili üç soru cevaplamanız beklenmektedir. Sorulara olabildiğince kapsamlı yanıtlar vermenizi rica ederiz.

1. Profil Bilgileri

Ad Soyad	
Göreviniz	
Şirket İçindeki Çalışma Süreniz	
Yaşınız	
Eğitim Durumunuz (Lise/Lisans/Yüksek Lisans/Doktora)	
En Son Mezun Olduğunuz Kurum	

2. Liman Profil Bilgileri

Liman Adı	
Kuruluş Yılı	
Bulunduğu Şehir	
Mevcut Departmanlar	
Yaklaşık Personel Sayısı (Ofis İçinde)	
Yaklaşık Personel Sayısı (Liman sahasında)	
Yıllık Elleçleme Kapasitesi	
Hizmet Verilen Yük Tipleri	

3. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?

4. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli kişisel özellikler nelerdir?

5. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?

6. Çalışmanın sonuçlarını tarafınıza iletmemizi ister misiniz?

- ☐ Evet
☐ Hayır

Source: www.surveymonkey.com

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (1/4)

1. Limanların stratejik yönetimi sürecinde üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması sizce önemli midir? Neden?
Cevaplar
1. Limanlar, konumları ve verdikleri hizmetlerle stratejik öneme sahip işletmelerdir. Limanların ticari anlamlarının dışında Kurumsal sorumlulukları da vardır. Her iki konuda da, belirlenen hedefe ulaşmak için, eldeki kaynakların tespit edilmesi ve bu kaynaklardan optimum yararlanmak suretiyle, uygulanacak eylem planının belirlenmesi ve bu plan üzerinden harekete geçilmesi başarıyı getirir. Bu yüzden, kurum ister liman olsun, isterse başka bir işletme, yönetim kadrosundaki tüm üst düzey yöneticilerin, liderlik vasıflarının yönettikleri personeli ve görev aldıkları işletmeyi hedefe taşıyacak yeterlilikte olmalıdır.
2. Evet. Limancılığın en zor taraflarından biri müşteri sadakatinin zayıf olması, çalışanların iş değişikliğine yatkın olması ve piyasada volatilitenin yüksek olmasıdır.
3. Limanlar için müşteri odaklılık esastır. Önem bakımından birinci sırada yer alan müşteri grubu, yükü limana getiren “Container Carrier” (CC) olduğundan bunların münferiden ya da birlikler içerisinde müştereken alacakları aksiyonlar limanlar için hayati önemdedirler. CC’ler aynı zamanda iştirakleri aracılığı ile liman işletmeciliği de yapan dolayısıyla işin detayına vakıf organizasyonlara sahip büyük şirketler olduklarından bunlarla irtibatla bulunmak durumunda olan liman üst düzey yöneticilerinin stratejik düşünebilme kapasite ve becerisine sahip olmaları beklenir.
4. Tedarik zinciri içerisinde limanların gelecekteki rollerinin ve görevlerinin ne olacağını öngörmek ve bu doğrultuda vizyon oluşturup ekibi ve sermayedarları ikna etmek önemlidir.
5. Üst düzey yöneticinin stratejik yönetimi sadece limancılık sektöründe değil genelde tüm sektörlerde olması gereken unsur ve önemlidir. Ayrıca, özellikle limancılığın uluslararası entegrasyonu olması nedeniyle sadece Türkiye’de değil tüm dünya üzerindeki stratejik kararları alabilmek adına, bu liderlik özelliğinin olması gereklidir..
6. Son derece önemlidir. Limanlar stratejik tesislerdir ve ilk yatırım kararlarının verilmesi çok detaylı bilgi, belge ve hesaplamalar gerektirir. Şayet böyle orta ve uzun vadeli yatırım yapıyorsanız stratejik bakmak ve strateji yapmak yapabilmek belki de en önemli unsurdur.
7. Çok önemlidir çünkü limanlarda sıcak satış yapılmaz, armatörlerin ihtiyaçlarına göre uzun vadeli doğru pozisyon almak önem taşır.
8. Kesinlikle önemlidir. Limancılıkta dengeler kısa sürede değişmez. attığınız/atmadığınız adımların sonuçlarını almak/görmek zaman alır. bu bazen 10yılları bulabilir. içinde bulunduğunuz durumu çok iyi değerlendirip çok doğru kararlar alıp emin adımlarla ilerlemek uygulamak, takip etmek çok önemli.

Appendix 7:The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (2/4)

9. Evet önemlidir. Liman yönetiminde önemli olan geleceği planlama ve vizyon oluşturabilme süreçlerinde yön belirleyici olan üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması gerekmektedir.
10. Önemlidir. Üst düzey yönetici konuya, pazar ve rekabet koşullarına, pazar ve rekabetin geleceğine, 3 kişilerle iletişime vs konulara en hakim kişi olarak çizmiş olduğu stratejiyi Yönetim Kurulu ile paylaşmalı, finansal ölçüler doğrultusunda stratejik yatırım kararları aldırılmalı, bu konularda hem Yönetim Kuruluna yön göstericilik ve liderlik etmeli, hem de bu stratejiler konusunda ekip çalışanlarına hedefler koyup, birlikte aksiyon planları geliştirmelidir. Bu özellikleri taşımayan yöneticiler hatalı yatırımlara, hatalı yönlendirmelere neden olur ve şirketin gelişimi sağlıklı olmaz.
11. Kesinlikle önemlidir. Günümüz rekabet şartlarında limanların kendini doğru zamanda doğru bir şekilde konumlandırması elzemdir. Stratejik liderlik özelliklerini taşıyan yöneticiler sayesinde, limanlar rekabete daha donanımlı bir şekilde girebilirler, riski minimuma indirebilirler.
12. Evet önemlidir. Stratejik liderlerin olduğu endüstriler, stratejik planlar doğrultusunda çalışmayı prensip edindikleri için farklılıklarını ortaya koyarlar.

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (3/4)

2. Sizce bir liman yöneticisini stratejik lider yapan en önemli özellikler nelerdir?
Cevaplar
1. Risk ve faktörlerini belirleyerek gerektiğinde sorumluluk alma, kriz yönetimi becerisi, müşteri merkezli düşünce, sektör ve rekabet takibi, sonuç odaklı çalışma, başarısızlığı sahiplenme, başarıyı paylaşma.
2. Sektör ve işin temel bilgilerine hakim olmak, dürüst, güvenilir ve proaktif bir yaklaşım sergilemektir.
3. Düşüncede analitik ve sabırlı uygulamada hızlı ve kararlı olmaktır.
4. Analitik düşünmek, yeniliklere açık olmak, paylaşımcı ve destekleyici olmak.
5. Limancılık sektöründe bilgi, deneyim ve tecrübesi olmalı, ayrıca araştırmacı ve sektördeki gelişimlere çok yakın olmalı..
6. Dünya ve ülke ticaretinin nereye doğru evrildiğini gelecekte nelere ihtiyaç duyulacağını herkesten önce görebilmek ve öncü olabilmek. Yatırımları bugünün ihtiyaçları ile değil yarının ihtiyaçları doğrultusunda yapmak ve planlamak. Yarının faydalı bekarlı işletmelerini bugünden planlamak ve yapmak.
7. Büyük resmi görmek, güvene dayalı uzun vadeli ilişkiler kurmak, stratejik düşünmek.
8. analitik düşünmek. liman süreçleri hakkında detaylı bilgi sahibi olmak. sektör bilgisi ve çevre. yeniliklere ve farklı fikirlere açık olma. katılımcı ve destekleyici olmak.
9. -vizyon oluşturabilme -geleceği tahmin edebilme -yeniliklere açık olma -doğru zamanda doğru kararı verebilme
10. - İletişim becerileri - Değişim yönetimi becerileri - Cesaret - İnisiyatif alabilme becerisi - Risk yönetim becerisi - Analitik düşünce tarzı - Yaratıcılık - Güvenilirlik
11. İyi bir araştırmacı ve analiz yeteneği yüksek, gerekli aksiyonların doğru zamanda alınabilmesi için yeterli cesarete ve ikna kabiliyetine sahip olabilmesi, dışa dönük, yönetim kabiliyeti yüksek
12. Vizyon sahibi olması, Pazar/piyasa/rakipler hakkında bilgi sahibi olması, performans göstergeleri ve hedefler doğrultusunda yönetim ilkelerine sahip olması, ekibine rol/model olabilmesi

Appendix 7: The Comments of the Panelists to Three Questions of the First Round Delphi Survey (4/4)

3. Sizce limanların yönetimi sürecinde stratejik liderin yapması gereken en önemli görevler nelerdir?
Cevaplar
1. Limanların kamusal sorumluluğu gereği, bölgedeki kamu kuruluşları, sivil toplum kuruluşları ile sağlam ilişkiler inşa etmek. İşletmenin bütçe hedef ve kapasitesi oranında verimli çalışmasını sağlamak. Müsteri ilişkileri yönetimini, tüm personele yaymak. Sektörel Gelişmeleri takip etmek, Liman modernizasyonu ile ilgili yenilikleri ihtiyaç durumunda uygulamak. Tehlikeli işletmeler olarak sınıflandırılan Liman sahasında Is güvenliğini sağlamak ve bu bilinci yaymak. Liman operasyonlarında çevreye zarar verebilecek ellecmeler konusunda çevre hassasiyetini oluşturmak ve bunu tüm personele yaymak. Toplam Kalite yönetimi kurallarını uygulayarak, limanı tercih edilen bir uğrak haline getirmek. Is paydaşları olan, Armator, Gümrukcu, Nakliyeciler, Taseron, İhracatçı, İthalatçı tüm firmalarla düzeyli ilişkiler kurmak ve bu bilinci diğer yöneticilere de geçirebilmek.
2. Birlikte çalıştığı ekibine açık hedefler koymak ve sorumlulukları net bir şekilde delege etmek, onları pozitif yönetimle desteklemek ve kişisel gelişimlerine yardımcı olmak, bütün çalışanların haklarını en iyi şekilde savunarak yönetime olarak güven ve bağlılıklarını tesis etmektir. Buna ek olarak limanın yaşam kaynağı olan müşterilerinin nabzını iyi tutmak, memnuniyetlerini kalıcı kılmak ta esas görevlerinden biridir.
3. Yöneticilerinin farkındalığını sürekli en üst düzeyde tutmaktır.
4. Geleceğe uygun İnsana, teknolojiye ,sürekliliğe ve sürdürülebilirliğe, kurumsal hafızaya yatırım yapmak. Paylaşımcılığa , katılımcı olmaya ve yenilikçi olmaya destek olmak.
5. Yönetim içindeki departmanlar arasındaki koordinasyonu ve entegrasyonunu tam sağlamalıdır..
6. Birbirinden farklılıkları olan, iyi yetişmiş ve bir arada ekip çalışması yaparak sinerji yaratabilecek ekipler kurmak ve onların önünü açarak, koçluk yaparak organizasyonun orta ve uzun vadeli hedeflerine varabileceği ortamı yaratmak, bu hedef doğrultuda tüm paydaşları ikna etmek, motive etmek ,yönlendirmek.
7. Ticaret ve denizcilik alanındaki gelişmeleri takip etmek, ihtiyaca göre doğru planlama yapmak.
8. ufuklara bakmak. yeni ufuklar , vizyon belirlemek. ulaşılacak istenen vizyon için alt kırılımları katılımcı bir ortamda belirleyip aksiyonların alınmasını sağlamak, takip etmek. teknoloji , uygulama ve yönetim sistemlerini yakından takip etmek.
9. - Teknik bilgiye sahip olması - Mevcut durum ve gelecek analizi yapabilmesi - Pazar stratejilerini iyi okuyabilmeli - Performans ve müşteri odaklı yönetim - Fizibilite yapabilme yetkinliği
10. Mevcut piyasa trendlerini iyi analiz ederek, gelecek trendleri öngörebilmek ve ilgili aksiyonları doğru zamanda alarak, limanın hem ticari hem de operasyonel etkinliğini ve rekabet gücünü arttırabilmek.
11. Stratejik planlama kültürünü oturtmak, adil ve tutarlı bir performans yönetimi sağlamak, stratejik pazarlama ile marka değeri yaratmak, şirket içinde ortak bir kültür yaratmak, çalışan bağlılığını/memnuniyetini yükseltmek

Appendix 8: The Comment of the Panelists to Two Questions of the Third Round Delphi Survey

Aşağıdaki 2 ifadeye ***katılıp katılmadığınızı kısaca*** belirtiniz.

1. Limanlarda **müşteri sadakati zayıf** olduğu için üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

Limanlarda müşteri devamlığını sağlayacak birçok parametre bulunmaktadır. Bununla birlikte limanın hangi tip işler yaptığının müşteri profili üzerinde etkisi vardır; konteyner limanın birincil müşterileri konteyner hatlarıdır, açık yük (konteynerize olmamış yükler, katı, sıvı vb) elleçleyen limanlar alternatifsizse müşteriler süreklilik arz edebilir, ancak aynı bölgede aynı işi yapan birkaç liman varsa müşteri sadakati sağlamak biraz daha zordur.

Bu anlamda müşteri sadakatini sağlayan en önemli iki unsur fiyat ve liman performansdır. Bununla birlikte karar verme aşamasında pek çok etmen vardır, ancak karar aşamasında etkileri ilk ikisi kadar önem arz etmez. Rekabet olan bölgelerdeki limanların üst düzey yöneticilerinin öncelikle fiyat (karlılık, maliyet, piyasa ortalamaları vs) ve akabinde liman performansı konusunda stratejik kararlar alması gerekmektedir. Bu parametrelerin sürekliliğini sağlayacak yönde lider davranışlar ve kararlar almak zorunluluğu bulunmaktadır.

2. Limanlar, **liman çalışanlarının sürekli iş değiştirdiği** işletmeler olması nedeniyle üst düzey yöneticilerin stratejik liderlik özelliği taşıması önem kazanmaktadır.

Öncelikle şunu belirtmek isterim ki, iyi bir limanda iş dönüşüm oranları düşüktür.

Çalışanları motive eden unsurların başında aldıkları ücreti ve işin yapıldığı ortam şartları gelmektedir. Bu unsurların iyileştirilmesi iş dönüşüm oranını düşürür. Ancak bu da doğrudan liman gelirleri ile doğru orantılıdır. Kazancı yüksek olan bir işletme çalışanlarını da mutlu edebilir, küçük hacimli işletmelerde bunu sağlamak zorlaşır. Başka bir faktörde çalışanların ikame edilebilirliğidir. İş talebinin çok olduğu bir ortamda yöneticiler daha rahat davranabilir ve buna göre kararlar alabilir. Kritik pozisyonları sıradan pozisyonlardan da ayırmak gerekir. Yöneticilerin liderlik özellikleri bir dereceye kadar çalışanları etkileyebilir, ancak daha önce dediğim gibi ücret politikaları belirleyici unsurdur. Yöneticiler ne kadar stratejik liderlik özelliklerine sahip olursa olsun, şirket kazanmıyorsa çalışanları da tutmak pek mümkün değildir, aynı zamanda ekonomik nedenlerle ortam şartlarının iyileştirilememesi de çalışanları bağlamaz, ayrılmalarına neden olabilir.

Appendix 9:List of Panelists in Delphi Process*

Name Surname	Port
1. Ali Şenel (Trade Manager)	Çelebi Bandırma
2. Mehmet S. Bosna (General Manager)	TCEEGE
3. M. Hakan Genç (Group President)	Marport
4. Uygun Değirmenci (Administrative Manager)	Borusan
5. Ali Keskin (Administrative Manager)	Evyapport
6. Çağdaş Kapkan (Operation Manager)	TCEEGE
7. Oğuz Tümiş (General Manager)	Nemport
8. Özlem Sevilkan (Head of Human Resources)	APM Terminals

*The list of panelists published their names on this thesis and future research