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YEDİTEPE UNIVERSITY
INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES**

**THE INFLUENCE OF LEADER POWER AND CONFLICT HANDLING STYLES
ON EMPLOYEE OUTCOMES: A STUDY ON INFORMATION TECHNOLOGY
PROFESSIONALS IN TURKEY**

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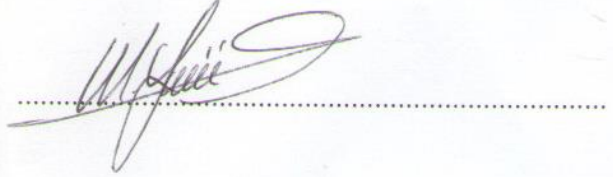
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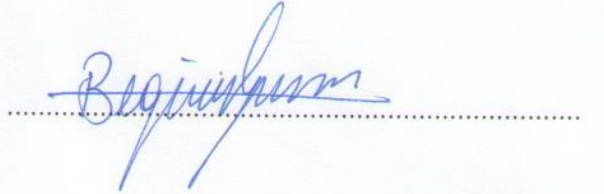
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**LİDERİN GÜCÜ VE ÇATIŞMA YÖNETİMİ YAKLAŞIMLARININ ÇALIŞANLARIN
TUTUM VE DAVRANIŞLARINA ETKİSİ: TÜRKİYE’DEKİ BİLİŞİM
TEKNOLOJİSİ PROFESYONELLERİ ÜZERİNE BİR ÇALIŞMA**

ÖZET

Bu çalışmanın amacı, liderin kullandığı güç kaynakları ve çatışma yönetimi yaklaşımlarının, çalışanların tutum ve davranışlarına etkisini araştırmaktır. Bu amaçla, Türkiye’deki bilişim teknolojisi (BT) profesyonelleri üzerinde bir araştırma yapılmıştır. Çalışanların tutum ve davranışları olarak, davranışsal ve tutumsal uyum, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, ve işten ayrılma niyeti araştırma kapsamındadır. Liderlerin gücünün artırılması ve çatışmaların üstesinden gelinmesi örgütler için kritik önemdedir. Ek olarak, BT personeli çok yoğun ve talepkar bir iş ortamında çalışmaktadırlar. Böyle bir ortamda, çalışanların tutum ve davranışları kritik bir önem taşımaktadır.

Araştırmada kolayda örneklem tekniği kullanılmış ve 353 BT profesyoneli çalışmaya katılmışlardır. Araştırma sonuçlarına göre, liderin işbirlikçi (cooperative) ve hükmedici (dominating) çatışma yönetimi yaklaşımları ile ‘uzmanlık ve özdeşim gücü’ (expert and referent power) ve yasal gücü (legitimate power), çalışanların davranışsal uyumunu (behavioral compliance) pozitif yönde etkilemektedir. Ayrıca ‘uzmanlık ve özdeşim gücü’ ile yasal güç, tutumsal uyumu (attitudinal compliance) pozitif yönde etkilerken, kaçınmacı (avoiding) ve hükmedici yaklaşımlar tutumsal uyuma negatif yönde tesir etmiştir. Ek olarak, işbirlikçi yaklaşım ve yasal gücün, özgecilik (helping) davranışına pozitif yönde tesir ettiği görülmüştür. İşbirlikçi ve hükmedici yaklaşımlar ile yasal güç, sivil erdem (civic virtue) davranışını pozitif yönde etkilemiştir. Hükmedici yaklaşım ve yasal gücün, centilmenlik (sportsmanship) davranışını negatif yönde etkilediği görülmüştür. Ayrıca sonuçlar liderin ‘uzmanlık ve özdeşim gücü’ ile ödüllendirme gücünün, çalışanların işten ayrılma niyetini negatif yönde etkilediğini göstermektedir.

Bu araştırmanın çıktıları örgütsel liderler ve insan kaynakları uzmanlarınca, liderlerin güç kaynakları ve çatışma yönetimi yaklaşımlarının çalışanlar üzerindeki etkisini anlamada kullanılabilir. Ayrıca sonuçlar liderlik etkinliğinin artırılması ve BT insan kaynağının daha iyi yönetilmesi için örgütlere faydalı olabilecektir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik, güç kaynakları, çatışma yönetimi yaklaşımları, uyum, örgütsel vatandaşlık davranışı, işten ayrılma niyeti, bilişim teknolojisi profesyonelleri.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of this study is to investigate the impact of leaders' power bases and styles of handling conflict with subordinates on employee outcomes. For this purpose, a research on information technology (IT) professionals in Turkey is conducted. As to employee outcomes, behavioral and attitudinal compliance, organization citizenship behavior, and intention to quit are covered. Maximizing leaders' influence and how to handle conflict are crucial issues for organizations. In addition, IT employees work in a highly demanding work environment. In such an environment, the listed employee outcomes are critically important.

A convenience sampling was used, and 353 Turkish IT professionals participated in the survey. The outcomes show that leaders' cooperative and dominating conflict management styles (CMS), 'expert and referent power', and legitimate power positively influence subordinates' behavioral compliance. In addition, 'expert and referent power' and legitimate power positively influence attitudinal compliance while avoiding and dominating CMS negatively affect attitudinal compliance. The findings also indicate that cooperative CMS and legitimate power positively influence helping organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). Cooperative and dominating CMS and legitimate power positively affect civic virtue OCB. Dominating CMS and legitimate power negatively influence sportsmanship OCB. The outcomes also show that 'expert and referent power', and reward power negatively affect intention to quit.

The findings can be beneficial for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners in understanding the influence of leaders' bases of power, and styles of handling conflict on IT professionals' listed employee outcomes. The results may also be useful for organizations in increasing leadership effectiveness, and better management of IT human capital.

Keywords: Leadership, bases of power, conflict management styles, compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, intention to quit, information technology professionals.

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ABBREVIATIONS

CEO: Chief Executive Officer

CMS: Conflict Management Styles

CSWS: Behavioral and Attitudinal Compliance with Superior's Wishes Scale

HR: Human Resources

IT: Information Technology

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

RLPI: Rahim Leader Power Inventory

ROCI-II: Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory

OCB: Organizational Citizenship Behavior

OECD: Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development

PCA: Principal Components Analysis

VIF: Variance Inflation Factor

1. INTRODUCTION

The changing environment of modern business world has created new challenges for keeping peace at workplace. Rapid pace of business, increased competition, diversity at the workplace, and flattened organizational structures are among these new challenges (Muir, 2000). Modern organizations need to continuously learn and make changes to stay competitive. Such change can also bring conflict within organizations. Thus, today's organizations and their leaders are in crucial need for structures and methods to manage conflict effectively. Studies indicate that leaders' styles of handling conflict can influence a number of important organizational outcomes such as employee satisfaction with supervision and work (Richmond et al., 1983), job performance (Rahim et al., 2001), and turnover intention (Chan et al., 2008). Moreover, because of their work roles, employees may have different goals and behaviors, which can also lead to conflict. In such an environment, power is a vital instrument for leaders to influence others to get things done and accomplish organizational goals. Power is "the ability to influence others' actions, thoughts and emotions" (Borkowski, 2011, p. 165). Leaders use different power bases to influence followers by attracting one or more of their needs (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2007). Research points that leaders' power base choices affect a number of organizational outcomes such as degree of employee job stress (Erkutlu and Chafra, 2006), co-operative behavior, and organizational commitment (Munduate and Dorado, 1998). Thus, it is important for leaders to determine their bases of power and styles of handling conflict effectively to maximize their influence, manage organizational conflict, and impact employee outcomes.

In today's ever-changing work environment, factors such as greater use of teams, flexible and networked organizations, and a global workforce (King et al., 2005) increase the importance of employees who willingly help others and go beyond their duties. These factors heighten the significance of employee citizenship behavior within organizations. Moreover, managing organizational human capital is a critical issue for today's managers and HR professionals (Boswell et al., 2008). The high turnover culture among information technology (IT) professionals (Moore and Burke, 2002) increases the importance of this issue. In addition, getting subordinate compliance is a critical issue in organizations (Porter et al., 2003). Because of these reasons listed above, this present study examines the influence of

leaders' power bases and styles of handling conflict with subordinates on certain employee behaviors: Attitudinal and behavioral compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit. For the purpose of this research, these will be referred as employee outcomes. The study is conducted on Turkish IT professionals.

1.1. Problem Statement

As stated above, leaders' styles of handling conflict and power base strategies influence a variety of employee outcomes. IT professionals work in a highly demanding business environment. IT careers, more than most other professions, are associated with long hours, travel, and constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). In such an environment, the employee outcomes, namely employee compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit are crucially important.

Moreover, an operational IT infrastructure is critical to today's most organizations. The loss of key IT professionals might seriously affect an organization's restructuring and growth attempts, its competitive advantage, and eventually its survival (LeRouge et al., 2006). Qualified IT personnel are an important resource for organizations; thus, the listed IT professional outcomes need special attention.

Paşa et al. (2001, p. 559) stated that for a significant amount of time, "the dominance of American management theory led to the belief that a "good" manager in the US will also be a good manager in other countries". However, differences in national culture require different management practices (Paşa et al., 2001). This study is expected to provide a contribution to the existing literature by examining leadership practices of IT sector in Turkey.

1.2. Purpose of the Research

The purpose of this study is to analyze the impact of leaders' power bases and styles of handling conflict with subordinates on employee outcomes in Turkish IT professionals. As to employee outcomes, behavioral and attitudinal compliance, organization citizenship behavior, and intention to quit are covered. A number of control variables (gender, age, highest level of education obtained, marital status, organization industry category, level in the organizational hierarchy, tenure in the company, job experience) that may affect the listed employee outcomes will also be examined.

1.3. Significance of the Study

Maximizing leaders' influence and how to handle conflict are crucial issues for organizations. Organizations that direct these issues well and effectively manage their IT human capital can achieve distinctive competencies. Highly motivated IT professionals who have firm-relevant IT knowledge and competence are crucial to a high performing IT unit (Ross et al., 1995). The study results will add to the literature by examining how leader power bases and styles of handling conflict influence the listed outcomes of IT professionals.

Furthermore, this study will contribute to the literature by conducting a research on IT professionals employed in various industries. In Turkish context there is very little research covering various industries in which IT professionals are employed.

It should also be noted that Turkish IT market is one of the fastest developing markets in Europe. The size of Turkish IT market is forecasted to reach US\$13.8 billion by 2015 from US\$7.7 billion in 2011 (Turkey Information Technology Report, 2011). Employment in Turkish IT industry can be expected to increase as the market size increases.

Moreover, this study is unique in the sense that it investigates the relationship between bases of leader power, leaders' conflict handling styles and the listed employee outcomes (attitudinal and behavioral compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit) in a single study.

1.4. Research Questions

Specifically the present study examines the following research questions:

1. What power bases do IT professionals perceive that their supervisors exercise over them?
2. What conflict handling styles do IT professionals perceive that their supervisors mainly exercise over them?
3. What is the relationship between IT professionals' perceptions of their supervisors' power bases and the degree to which they (IT professionals)
 - a. exhibit attitudinal compliance?
 - b. exhibit behavioral compliance?
 - c. exhibit organizational citizenship behavior?
 - d. have intention to quit?

4. What is the relationship between IT professionals' perceptions of their supervisors' conflict handling styles with their subordinates and the degree to which they (IT professionals)

- a. exhibit attitudinal compliance?
- b. exhibit behavioral compliance?
- c. exhibit organizational citizenship behavior?
- d. have intention to quit?

5. To what extent IT professionals

- a. exhibit attitudinal compliance?
- b. exhibit behavioral compliance?
- c. exhibit organizational citizenship behavior?
- d. have intention to quit?

1.5. Scope of the Research

This study will be conducted on Turkish IT professionals. As stated above, this research is unique in its scope because it investigates the influence of leaders' power bases and conflict handling styles with subordinates on Turkish IT professionals' listed employee outcomes in a single study.

In this research, even though, leader, supervisor, or manager terms are used interchangeably within the text, what is investigated here is bases of leader power and conflict handling styles with their subordinates.

1.6. Definition of Terms

Power can be defined as the capacity of a person, team, or organization to influence other people (French and Raven, 1959).

Conflict is defined as "a process in which one party perceives that its interests are being opposed or negatively affected by another party" (Wall and Callister, 1995, p. 517).

Attitudinal compliance can be defined as "the extent to which an employee wants to follow his or her superior's directives or wishes" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1988 in Rahim and Afza, 1993, p. 614).

Behavioral compliance is defined as "the extent to which a subordinate actually carries out these instructions" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1988 in Rahim and Afza, 1993, p. 614).

Intention to quit is defined as “the extent to which persons are thinking about or are planning to leave their current organization or profession” (McNatt and Judge, 2008, p. 785).

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) can be defined as behaviors that go beyond a person’s formal job duties but are usually essential for the survival of the organization and important to the organization’s image and acceptance (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2007).

Information technology (IT) professional is defined as “an individual who participates in the design, development, implementation, support or management of computer-based information systems, particularly software applications and computer hardware” (Marchewka, 2006 in Rose, 2009, p. 9).

1.7. Assumptions

There are some assumptions of this study: Firstly, it is assumed that all leaders have the necessary power sources and conflict handling styles to influence others. In addition, it is assumed that the leader power sources and the conflict handling styles can be clearly understandable by followers. Furthermore, it is assumed that all respondents will answer the questions honestly. Moreover, it is assumed that all participants are able to understand and respond appropriately to the questions.

1.8. Organization of the Study

This study has six chapters. Chapter 1 introduces the research problem, includes the purpose, significance of the study, assumptions, and research questions. Chapter 2 covers the literature review. Chapter 3 is about the proposed model and the hypotheses of the study. Chapter 4 gives information about the research design, sampling procedure, measures, and the pilot study. Chapter 5 is about the data analysis and research findings. Chapter 6 evaluates these findings and it includes the implications, limitations of the study, suggestions for future research, and the reached conclusions.

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter highlights a review of the relevant literature on bases of leader power, styles handling conflict, behavioral and attitudinal compliance, organization citizenship behavior, and intention to quit. Power and conflict literature was also reviewed to examine the research concepts in depth.

2.1. Power

As an important force for leader effectiveness (Barrett, 2010), power is one of the most studied concepts in the literature. Leaders achieve goals and power is an instrument to facilitate this achievement (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Without power, it would not be possible for leaders to use their influence to get things done (Barrett, 2010). Power is “the potential ability to influence behavior, to change the course of events, to overcome resistance, and to get people to do things that they would not otherwise do” (Pfeffer, 1994, p. 30). Bass and Bass (2008) defined power as “the force that can be applied to the work” (p. 263). Many researchers have examined how people can influence each other and exercise power. For example, Yukl and Falbe (1990) identified a number of influence tactics. Most frequently utilized tactics in their study were consultation and rational persuasion (Yukl and Falbe, 1990).

Social power is “the ability to take actions and to initiate interactions” (Bass and Bass, 2008, p. 263). French and Raven (1959) defined social power as the potential ability of an agent to influence a target. Other scholars also offered many different definitions of power. For instance, Thomas Hobbes ([1651], 1991, p. 62) stated that power is a man’s “present means to obtain some future apparent good”. Bertrand Russell (1938) indicated that power is the production of intended effects. Political scientist Robert Dahl (1957, p. 202) offered the following definition of power: “A has power over B to the extent that he can get B to do something that B would not otherwise do”.

Pfeffer (1981) stated that power is not a fixed characteristic of a group, but power is context- or relationship- specific. Pfeffer also argued that power may be horizontally or vertically distributed (Louis, 2006). Pfeffer and Salancik (1974), for instance, indicated the distribution of power among university departments can be predictable based on structural characteristics, and influences the budgetary process.

In the process of defining power, the meaning of power can be distinguished from that of authority and influence. Power, influence, and authority are interrelated concepts. Specifically, authority is a form of power and power is a type of influence (Bess and Dee, 2008). Power is the force one uses to make things happen in an intended way. Influence, on the other hand, is what one has when exercising power. Influence depends on follower acceptance and on the types of influence used. In this sense, influence is related to authority (i.e., power given to a leader by followers) (Sims, 2002). Power and authority are interchangeably used terms because both concepts are related to influencing the behavior of others. Authority is the power that is exercised legitimately. Authority is a special type of power that is considered rightful and proper (Harrison and Dye, 2008). In this case, a subordinate accepts his/her superior's order because the subordinate considers the order as legitimate (Triphati and Reddy, 2008). In short, authority is the right to tell a subordinate what to do, while power is the ability to get the subordinate do it (Govindarajan and Natarajan, 2005). As for types of authority, Weber (1922, [1978]) distinguished three authority types: Traditional, charismatic, and rational-legal. Traditional authority stems from time-honored routines (Litonjua, 2007). Charisma is the basis of authority in examples where the superior has magnetic personality or simply extraordinary qualities, which enable her/him to capture a follower (Triphati and Reddy, 2008). Rational-legal authority is based on rational application of rules developed by relying on information and expertise. Although Weber identified three types of authority, he saw rational-legal authority as the type of power that dominates bureaucratic system (Miller, 2012).

An important aspect of power is dependency, which is associated with a person's control over resources. Dependency is greatest for resources that are extremely important, scarce, and does not have readily available substitutes. Leaders can gain power by contributing to the organization's aim through different ways such as interdepartmental dependencies, control over information, or dealing with uncertainty (Daft, 2008).

The power concept has been investigated by different disciplines such as philosophy, psychology, sociology, and political science. Early literature on governmental politics and political rulers paved the path to our current understanding of power and politics in organizations. Although these writings did not directly speak about power and politics in

organizations, they still formed many of the foundations of current perspectives (Denhardt et al., 2002). For instance, Niccolò Machiavelli, a Florentine diplomat and author who lived from 1469 to 1527, wrote *The Prince* (around 1513) (Clegg et al., 2011). This book was a guide to rule people (Sims, 2002). To Machiavelli, power is used to manipulate and control people so that the leader can achieve his goals (Hernon and Rossiter, 2007). Machiavelli has often been considered as a technician of power, who advises ambitious individuals about how to gain power and rulers about how to maintain their power (Whelan, 2004). For Machiavelli, power games were the reality of leadership (Clegg et al., 2011). He indicated that raw physical strength was not enough to control force for a leader. Machiavelli stated that a leader should imitate not only the lion but also the fox (Harvey, 2006) as indicated in his words: “One needs to be a fox to recognize snares and lion to frighten to wolves” (Machiavelli, [1532], 1998, p. 69). In addition, Machiavelli stated that a foxlike leader must carefully examine his relationship with his followers. Machiavelli’s famous advice on managing followers is: “It is much safer to be feared than loved” (Machiavelli, [1532], 1998, p. 66). Machiavelli is known for his open defense of deception (Whelan, 2004). His model is an amoral approach to leadership where he believed the ends justified the means (Hernon and Rossiter, 2007).

In the 17th century, Thomas Hobbes expanded upon Machiavelli’s ideas on power and leadership (Likar, 2011). Machiavelli and Hobbes have much in common in their views on human nature and the function of the authority of the state (Holler, 2011). Hobbes was an English political philosopher who was interested in the regulation of interpersonal violence. Hobbes, like Machiavelli, lived during a time of political and religious conflict (Likar, 2011). Hobbes’ *Leviathan* is one of the masterpieces of modern political thought. The book was published in 1651, at the end of the English civil war (Clegg et al., 2011). Hobbes (1651) stated in *Leviathan* that “the power of a man, to take it universally, is his present means, to obtain some future apparent good, and is either original or instrumental” (p. 57). Hobbes does not limit himself to choices in social interactions. Power in Hobbes’ definition is broader than the concept of social power (Holler, 2011). Hobbes stated that if left to their own devices, in the state of nature, people would frequently fight with each other. He asked the question of how might one picture a society in which people would live in peace and harmony. Hobbes’

answer was to imagine that people in a society would sign a contract that gave their power to an artificial being (the Leviathan). The Leviathan would then have a monopoly power and make sure that everyone would respect each other's rights and property (Clegg et al., 2011). For Hobbes, power is something that can be legislated as a model of order through which man becomes powerful. This order is established by science and monarchy. In contrast, Machiavelli underlines the practical ways through which power can be gained. From Machiavelli's point of view, order can be sustained by strategies rather than science and monarchy (Hernon and Rossiter, 2007).

Max Weber is another scholar who examined the concept of power. Weber was a German historian and sociologist (Singh and Sachdeva, 2012). Weber defined power as "the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests" (Weber, [1922], 1978, p. 53). Weber's concept of social power seems to be a restriction of Hobbes' definition of power to social concepts (Holler, 2011). According to Weber, power and authority are centered in the leader. Power is handed down from leader to leader and may be used with individual discretion (Hernon and Rossiter, 2007).

During Weber's time, the society was going through a rapid change as a result of industrialization. Weber indicated that more formalized state of procedures is necessary as a result of the growth in large scale organizations. He believed that bureaucracy is the most rational and efficient form of organization created by man (Sahni and Vayunandan, 2010). Weber never defined bureaucracy but identified its characteristics. To him, bureaucracy is 'an administrative body of appointed officials' (Singh and Sachdeva, 2012).

Weber was essentially interested in the analysis of authority in the 19th century European society (Singh and Sachdeva, 2012). As stated above, Weber ([1922], 1978) categorized authority into three types: Traditional, charismatic, and rational-legal. In Weber's charismatic leader model, the leader is followed or obeyed because of leader's personal qualities rather than experience or skills. Power is centered in the leader rather than in institutions or organizations (Hernon and Rossiter, 2007). Similarly, Weber categorized bureaucracy into two categories: Patrimonial bureaucracy (found in rational and charismatic types of authority) and legal-rational bureaucracy (found in legal type of authority)

(Lakshmana and Satyanarayana Rao, 1991). It can be said that Weber's legal-rational bureaucracy concept resembles Hobbes' legislation concept (Wickramasinghe, 2006).

Apart from political studies, social psychological studies also examined the power concept. These studies originate in Kurt Lewin's work (1941 in Morisky et al., 2005). Lewin distinguished between an individual's *own forces* (originates directly from a person's desires and wishes) and *induced forces* (imposed on that individual by another person or group) (Raven, 2011a). Lewin considered power "the possibility of inducing force on someone else, or, more formally, as the maximum force person A can induce on person B divided by the maximum resistance that B can offer" (Morisky et al., 2005, p. 49). French and Raven (1959) developed further this power conceptualization and classified the bases of power (Morisky et al., 2005).

In conclusion, many social scientists contributed to our current understanding of power in organizations. However, it was not until Dorwin Cartwright's (1959) *Studies in Social Power*, there was a text focusing only on study of power. Based on Cartwright's text, French and Raven (1959) indicated their power taxonomy (Elias, 2007). This taxonomy has become one of the most commonly used conceptualizations of social power (Podsakoff and Schriesheim, 1985). In the following section, French and Raven's (1959) power taxonomy will be examined in detail.

2.2. Bases of Leader Power

Individuals may have power on others for a variety of reasons such as gender, social class, and ethnicity. Leaders use different sources of power to influence followers by appealing to one or more of their needs (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2007). The emphasis here is on the nature of power as a social resource in organizations (Hewison, 2005). Several classifications have been made for social power bases in organizational settings. However, French and Raven's (1959) power taxonomy (coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent) has been widely accepted by scholars. French and Raven's (1959) taxonomy of power bases are defined as below:

Coercive power depends on "the ability of the power holder to take something away from the target person or to punish the target for non-compliance with a request" (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008, p. 114). This can be in the form of using disciplinary procedures, giving

undesirable duties or responsibilities, and withholding support or privileges ('Based on French and Raven, 1959 and Mullins, 2002' in Hewison, 2005). Coercive power base works well in situations when one has captive audience but this power base also damages the quality of relationships (Stuart and Lieberman, 2008). For instance, when used as the only method to gain compliance, coercive power may result in fear and negative feelings towards the one who holds the power (O'Connell and Cuthbertso, 2009).

Reward power base is the opposite of coercive power. Reward power is associated with the ability to provide things others want or need in exchange for desired behaviors (O'Connell and Cuthbertso, 2009). These rewards may be pay raises, promotion, privileges, or increased responsibilities ('Based on French and Raven, 1959 and Mullins, 2002' in Hewison, 2005). This type of power can extend beyond material rewards and can be in the form of intrinsic rewards¹ such as recognition and acceptance (McKenna, 2001). The reward power will be greater if group members value the reward and believe that they cannot receive the reward from anyone else (Zastrow, 2009). On the other hand, if a leader has rewards that subordinates do not value, the leader has no reward power (McKenna, 2001).

In French and Raven's (1959) original statement both coercive and reward power were defined "in terms of tangible rewards and real physical threats- threats of being fired or fined, promises of monetary rewards and bonuses or promotion within an organization, etc." (Raven, 2008, p. 3). Later, it is understood that both reward and coercive power can be in more personal forms that serve as powerful tools for influence. Potential approval and liking can be seen as very rewarding; disapproval and rejection can be very punishing. Thus, reward and coercive power were distinguished as impersonal coercion and impersonal reward (these concern tangible physical matters), and personal coercion and personal reward (these concern intangible personal concerns such as liking) (Gold, 2011).

Reward and coercive power are different from other bases of power in that these two bases are socially dependent because "the target, while complying, relates that compliance to the actions of the agent" ("I did it because s/he offered me a reward if I complied" (Raven, 2008, p. 2). In addition, coercive and reward power bases are different from other power

¹ Intrinsic rewards are intangible rewards based on an individual's feelings of accomplishment or personal satisfaction (Hurd, Barcelona, and Meldrum, 2008).

bases in that their effectiveness depend on the agent's monitoring: If reward and coercive power are the only power bases in effect, targets will comply only if they conceive that their compliance can be determined by the agent (Raven, 2008).

Legitimate power is the authority assigned to a social position within a group (O'Connell and Cuthbertso, 2009). This power base is the ability to influence because of a position (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008). Terms such as "obligated", "should", and "required to" may be an indication for the use of legitimate power (Raven, 2008). Legitimate power base is closely related with Weber's ([1922], 1978) authority concept. A person with the higher ranking has power over the people in lower ranking (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008). Legitimate power can be based on the following social norms (Raven, 2008):

Legitimate position power: This norm states that we obey individuals "who are in superior position in a formal or informal social structure" (Raven, 2008, p. 4). Position power is tied to a position in an organization, society or group and the power that comes with that position (Gold, 2011). *Legitimate power of reciprocity:* This principle indicates that when another person does something for us, then we should feel obligated to reciprocate (Raven, 2011b). *Legitimate power of equity:* This norm is based on the understanding that people should get what they deserve. Thus, if the agent worked hard, and suffered for the target, then the target should make things equitable by doing what the agent requests (Gold, 2011). *Legitimate power of responsibility:* This principle states that we should help others who are not capable to help themselves or help others who are dependent on us (Berkowitz and Daniels, 1963 in Raven, 2011b).

The lines of legitimate power are less distinct in more organic type of organizations, such as software firms or research and development labs. In such organizations, an employee may work for more than one boss at the same time and the leaders and subordinates can have almost equal organizational standing (Griffin and Moorhead, 2012). It should also be added that cultural values create a common basis for legitimate power. These values may include age, physical characteristics, and intelligence as factors in determining power. For instance, in some countries the aged are very respected and given the right to tell others how to behave (Zastrow, 2009).

Expert power refers to influence a person may have because of expertise, knowledge, or special skill (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Sir Francis Bacon (1597) indicated that “knowledge is power” (in Bass and Bass, 2008). Expert power, perhaps unseen, can be behind effective leadership (Bass and Bass, 2008). An individual can have expertise on different matters such as technical, administrative, or personal (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008). Evidence of expert power includes particular qualifications or skills (Hewison, 2005). Individuals may have expert power even if their organizational rank is low (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008). As jobs become more specialized, dependence on experts has increased. Specialists such as tax accountants, computer specialists, and industrial psychologists are capable of gaining power because of their expertise (Robbins et al., 2009). The more important information is as the base for expert power and the fewer alternative sources are available for such information, the greater the expert power (McKenna, 2001).

Referent power is based on personality characteristics that direct followers’ attention, respect, and admiration so that they want to emulate the leader (Daft, 2008). Referent power is related to identification with an individual who possesses desirable resources or personal characteristics (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Popularity or charisma is often used to describe referent power. Within a group, a person who is liked and respected can have great effect on other people’s behaviors and beliefs (O’Connell and Cuthbertso, 2009). When people feel strong friendship or loyalty toward another person, they are generally inclined to do special favors for that individual (Lewis et al., 2007). Referent power positively affects employee attitudes. When relationships are based on referent power, employees are inclined to imitate their supervisor’s behaviors and attitudes. This results in reduced conflicts (Carson et al., 1997). People desire to be like their role model, mentor, or ‘admired other’ in any way they can. They want to engage in same behaviors and have the same ideas. Such feelings further reinforce the power of the admirable object (Stuart and Lieberman, 2008).

Referent power has a potentially broader influence than expert power. The influence of expert power is limited to the areas defined by the expertise. Expert power is difficult to achieve because the evidence of expertise needs to be continuously validated. It can diminish as the person being influenced comes progressively closer to the provider of expert power in expertise. In addition, a supervisor’s continued absence of direct contact with services may

result in technical obsolescence and therefore decrease in expert power (Kadushin and Harkness, 2002).

In general, the results of field studies on social power point that referent and expert power are positively related with functional subordinate criterion variables (e.g. subordinate performance, satisfaction with supervisor, job satisfaction), or at least not associated. However, legitimate, reward, and coercive power are usually negatively associated or not associated with these variables (Podsakoff and Schriesheim, 1985).

After the introduction of French and Raven's (1959) power taxonomy, Raven (1965) offered a sixth power base: *Informational power*. Informational power was formerly included in expert power. Informational power depends on the capability to provide or control an important position. People who hold central positions in communication networks have informational power because they control the flow and type of information passed from one person or group to another (Cleveland et al., 2009). Informational power is related to expert power but there are differences between the two. In expert power, the person being influenced may not understand why an offered suggestion is a good idea but follow it because he/she sees the leader as an expert. In informational power, the person being influenced is convinced by the logic provided with the leader, not by his/her expertise (Shriberg and Shriberg, 2011).

It should also be noted that in everyday interactions, several power bases can operate in different degrees for a specific situation. For instance, a supervisor might utilize several power bases at once to influence a subordinate - his/her legitimate power might be supplemented with reward or coercive power in addition to expert or informational power (Raven, 2008).

An agent's power base choice can be influenced by different motivators. Typically, an agent's motivation for influence is to achieve some objective or get desirable result. Then, the agent will use the power base that can reach the end most quickly and effectively. Subtle motivations can also affect the preference for power strategies (Raven, 2008). McClelland (1975), Winter (1973) and their colleagues indicate three motives that influence leadership behavior: "Need for power, need for affiliation, and need for achievement" (Raven, 2008, p. 5). For instance, leaders or supervisors who have strong affiliation needs and concern about

their subordinates will like them, have more tendency to choose referent power and reward power, particularly personal reward power. Moreover, a concern about how third parties will see an agent's choice of a specific power base influences his/her power base strategies. For example, an individual may prefer to use coercive power but does not utilize it since she/he concerns that other people may highly disapprove (Raven, 2008).

As stated above, several classifications of power exists. For instance, Yukl and Falbe (1991) suggested that five power bases offered by French and Raven (1959) exist but there may be three more (information power, persuasive power, and charisma). Yukl and Falbe (1991) stated that eight power bases reflect two main power dimensions: Position and personal power. Position power is based on particular office or rank in a formal organization. Position power includes legitimate, reward, and coercive power together with later identified information power. Personal power is the influencing capacity of a leader and based on being perceived as likeable and knowledgeable by followers. Personal power consists of referent and expert power together with later identified persuasive power and charisma (Shackleton, 1995; Northouse, 2010).

In addition, Raven et al. (1998, p. 307) developed a scale to measure “11 bases of power, the original 6 French and Raven (1959; Raven, 1965) bases of power, with 3 of these further differentiated: Reward (personal, impersonal), coercion (personal, impersonal), legitimate (position, reciprocity, equity, dependence), expert, referent, and information”. Study 1 had 317 American student participants. These participants rated the probability of each of these power bases' contribution to a supervisor successfully influencing a subordinate in a series of hypothetical cases. Factor analysis indicated seven factors and two power base types: Harsh and soft. Study 2 had 101 Israeli health sector employees and in general, the former study outcomes were supported. Moreover, the findings pointed that job satisfaction was positively associated with attributing soft power bases to the supervisor. Thus, Raven et al. (1998) classified power bases as “soft” and “harsh”. The soft factor contained these following bases of power: Expert, information, referent, and legitimacy of dependence. The harsh factor contained personal and impersonal reward, personal and impersonal coercion, legitimacy of position, equity and reciprocity.

Rahim et al.'s (1994a) study also investigated the leader power bases. This research examined the relationships of leader power bases “(coercive, reward, legitimate, expert, and referent) to subordinates’ organizational commitment and of power bases and commitment to subordinates’ effectiveness (performance, conformance, dependability, and personal adjustment)” (Rahim et al., 1994a, p. 327). The study had 250 employees and their supervisors in Bangladesh as participants. The outcomes indicated that legitimate and expert power bases were positively related with organizational commitment. In addition, coercive power was negatively related with subordinates’ effectiveness, and expert power base was related with same variables (Rahim et al., 1994a).

One of the studies investigating leader power bases in Turkish context is Acar’s (2009) research. This research was conducted on 125 IT department project members who have worked in Turkish banks utilizing matrix structure. The study aimed to investigate the relationship between project success and power of matrix managers (functional and project managers) as perceived by project members. The outcomes pointed that among five power bases, there is a relationship between functional managers’ legitimate power and project success. The findings also showed a relationship between project managers’ referent power and project success (Acar, 2009).

As another study conducted in Turkish context, Güzel’s (2009) research had 178 participants from a firm in Istanbul. This research investigated the relationship between perceived power base of supervisors and organizational commitment of their subordinates. In addition, the moderating influence of organizational trust and trust in supervisor were examined. The findings indicated that there is a significant positive association between perceived soft power of supervisor and subordinate affective commitment (the emotional attachment to an organization that motivates an employee to remain with the organization). Moreover, both perceived soft power and harsh power had a positive correlation with continuance type of commitment (a tendency to stay in the organization because of high costs related with losing organizational membership). Furthermore, organizational trust moderated the relationship between harsh power base and continuance commitment (Güzel, 2009).

Bolelli’s (2012) study examined the use of power sources and their influence on compliance behavior regarding type of task (complex-routine) and leadership style in Turkey.

This research had 184 participants employed in private dialysis centers in different locations in Turkey. The outcomes pointed that for both routine and complex tasks, the most frequently used power bases are persuasive and expert, and least frequently used power base is corrective. Moreover, a significant relationship was found between leadership style and use of power bases. The findings showed that subordinates' commitment level was higher for active constructive leaders and resistance level was higher for the passive avoidance leaders.

Moreover, Erkutlu and Chafra's (2006) study had 400 participants (20 supervisors and 380 non-supervisory employees) employed in boutique hotels in Turkey. This research examined the influence of bases of leader power on employee job stress. The authors used the Rahim Leader Power Inventory and Spielberg and Vagg's Job Stress Survey to investigate bases of leader power and job stress, respectively. The outcomes indicated significant relationships between bases of leader power and employee job stress.

In the following section, conflict concept will be examined.

2.3. Conflict

Conflict is inevitable and unavoidable among humans. Relationships among two or more social beings (humans, groups, organizations, or nations) can become incompatible or inconsistent for different reasons. For instance, conflict may occur when these entities desire a scarce resource, or when they differ in attitudes, values, and skills (Rahim, 2011). There is a wide variety of conflict definitions. For example, Putnam and Poole (1987) defined conflict as "the interaction of interdependent people who perceive opposition of goals, and values, and who see the other party as potentially interfering with the realization of these goals" (p. 552). Rahim (2011) considered conflict "perceived divergence of interest, a belief that the parties' current aspirations are incompatible" (p. 1). In the organizational area, March and Simon (1958, p. 112) defined conflict as "a breakdown in the standard mechanisms of decision making, so that an individual or group experiences difficulty in selecting an action alternative".

Many scholars from different disciplines have contributed to the theoretical development of social conflict. Some of these scholars will be discussed in the following pages. It should be noted that most of the contributions to the subject came from philosophy and psychology (Rahim, 2011).

Classical philosophers Aristotle (384-322 B.C.) or Plato (427-347 B.C.) did not have separate writings regarding social conflict. However, in their texts, they indicated the need for order in society. Plato believed that “tension within society is natural, and therefore some conflict is inevitable. However, he felt that social conflict could be kept at a minimum” (Rahim, 2011, p. 2). Aristotle felt that Plato’s philosophy is “extreme unification” or communism and such approach is not practical. However, Aristotle was in the same opinion with Plato about the need of order in the state. Both philosophers believed that conflict should be kept at a minimum (Rahim, 2011).

Thomas Hobbes’ (1588-1679) philosophy was detailed in this text earlier. As stated before, Hobbes believed that if left to their own devices, in natural state, people would frequently fight with each other. He asked the question of how people might live in peace and harmony in a society. Hobbes answer was to imagine that people in a society would sign a contract that gave their power to an artificial being (the Leviathan). The Leviathan would then have a monopoly power and assure that everyone would respect each others’ rights and property (Clegg et al., 2011).

Both Thomas Hobbes and John Locke (1612-1704) are 17th century English philosophers. Social contract theory of these philosophers is expressed such that the goal of governments is to create order in social relations. Both philosophers shared the belief that governments should control conflict (Rahim, 2011). However, while Hobbes argued that the ruler has absolute power, Locke believed that the rulers’ rights are limited as those of everyone else’s, by the law of nature. Locke was in the opinion that the ruler’s powers are given to him as trusted to be used for the benefit of the society. Thus, that power can be taken away if that trust is broken (Urmson and Ree, 2005). Locke’s political theory, like Hobbes’ approach, is a theory of ideal state. However, while Hobbes thought the ideal state is ideal in rational sense, Locke thought that in a moral sense (Sofroniou, 2005).

A distinct shift in philosophical thought occurred during the 19th century. One of these philosophers was Karl Marx (1818-1883). Marx was a revolutionist and believed that the capitalists should give up on their power (Rahim, 2011). Class conflict and the struggle between classes to resist and overcome the opposition of other classes are in the center of his work. Conflict theory originates in Marx’s work. This theory focuses on large, macro level

structures, for instance the relations between or among classes (Brym and Lie, 2010). Marx indicated that human history is full of conflict between classes- bourgeoisie (business class) and proletariat (working class)- which is the mechanism of change and development (Rahim, 2011). He considered the conflict of interest between economic classes to be of most importance and claimed that “one fact is common to all past ages... the exploitation of one part of society by another” (CM, 2: 103 in Roberts and Sutch, 2004). Marx believed that this class struggle would eventually lead to a classless society, in which people are truly free without repression. He thought that in such society people would be free from conflict (Rahim, 2011).

Charles Darwin (1809-1882) was an English scholar who formulated the theory of natural selection (Rahim, 2011). According to this theory, “biological species survive and grow by confronting environmental challenges” (Darwin, 1871 in Rahim, 2011, p. 4). Social Darwinism was conceptualized by applying Darwinian ideas to society. Social Darwinists believed that survival of the fittest is the driving element in social evolution (Andersen and Taylor, 2008). In Darwin’s point of view, humans’ growth is a response to environmental conflicts. He believed that if conflict was completely non-existent, people’s progress would be limited (Rahim, 2011).

George Elton Mayo (1880-1949) was an Australian psycho-socialist who advocated for people-oriented management style. He is famous with his Hawthorne Studies conducted in Western Electric. Mayo examined the influence of environment on production through his illumination experiment, the impact of incentives on production in relay assembly room experiments, and group dynamics by experiments conducted in bank wiring shop (Nair, 2008). Mayo saw conflict as pathological. He believed that conflict could and must be resolved through developing a sense of purpose within industrial organizations and the understanding of social satisfactions and material rewards were important for workers (Parker et al., 2005).

Talcott Parsons (1902-1979) was an American sociologist who formulated Structural Functionalism Theory. Functionalist theory underlines that human behavior is governed by relatively stable social structures. This theory stresses how social structures maintain or undermine social stability (Brym and Lie, 2010). In Parsons’ view, society worked like a

machine and was always moving toward social stability (Andersen and Taylor, 2008). Functionalist Theory rests the notion that society is naturally stable, integrated, and functional. Therefore, change and conflict are seen as abnormal and dysfunctional. Parsons' theory was the dominant theory to analyze society until 1960. However, Structural Functionalism Theory has been criticized for its conservation to maintain the status quo and therefore, its inability to deal with the process of change and conflict (Rahim, 2011).

After reviewing conflict concept, the special case for organizational conflict can be examined. There are different perspectives on organizational conflict. *Traditional view* of conflict is the early interpretation of conflict and states that conflict is harmful and should be avoided (Robbins et al., 2009; McKenna, 2001). Taylor, Weber, and Fayol are among the theorists who believed that conflict is harmful for organizational efficiency; thus, it should be kept at a minimum in organizations (Rahim, 2011). This perspective of conflict is consistent with the dominant attitudes about group behavior in the 1930s and 1940s (Robbins et al., 2009). *Human relations view* is the latter school of thought, spanning from the late 1940s to the mid-1970s (Robbins et al., 2009). George Elton Mayo, Mary Parker Follett, and Chester Barnard are among human relations view theorists. This perspective indicates that the existence of conflict is natural. This view says that there might be even times when conflict is useful (Robbins et al., 2009). Human relations management theorist Mary Parker Follett's (1868-1933) ideas about management and organization in 1920s were beyond her time. She indicated the importance of constructive conflict in organizations. She believed that there is need for an integrative method to deal with organizational conflict. Mary Parker Follett advocated that other conflict management methods (such as avoidance, dominance, and compromise) were not effective in managing conflict (Rahim, 2011). The *interactionist view* is the current school of thought (McKenna, 2001). This perspective encourages the adoption of a minimum level of ongoing conflict- enough for a group to be viable, self-critical, and creative (McKenna, 2001). Whyte (1967 in Rahim, 2011) indicated that the goal of an organization is not to create harmony but to create a system that recognizes and solves the problems it faces. Interactionist view does not state that all conflicts are beneficial. Some conflicts help the group to reach its objectives and enhance its performance. These are

identified as *functional conflict*. However, some conflicts hinder group performance and these are *dysfunctional conflict* (Robbins et al., 2009).

Different organizational characteristics can create conflict. These sources of intergroup conflict may include goal incompatibility, differentiation, task interdependence, and limited resources (Daft, 2010).

Goal incompatibility is probably the biggest cause of intergroup conflict within organizations (Kochan et al., 1975). The goals of each department mirror the particular objectives members are seeking to accomplish. However, the achievement of one department's goals can interfere with another department's goals (Daft, 2010). Thus, in organizations it is important to establish a common set of goals that everyone supports (Mosley et al., 2011).

Differentiation refers to the task specialization of both departments and employees' jobs (Huczynski, 2004). Departments or divisions in an organization often have different values, attitudes, and standards of behavior and these subcultural differences lead to conflicts (Nielsen, 1972 in Daft, 2010; Walton and Dutton, 1969). Thus, when organizational members are divided into specializations, there should be ways to connect and integrate their work, or conflict (and inefficiency) result (Bess and Dee, 2008).

Task interdependence is the dependence of one unit on another for materials, resources, or information (Daft, 2010). Thompson's (1967) typology identifies these task interdependence types: Pooled, sequential, and reciprocal interdependence. Pooled interdependence means that actions in each position can proceed independently (Thompson, 1967). Sequential interdependence occurs when one department must complete certain tasks before another department can perform its tasks. Reciprocal interdependence occurs when the outputs of one department become the inputs for another department and vice versa (Hellriegel and Slocum, 2007). In general, as interdependence increases, the potential for conflict also increases (Walton and Dutton, 1969).

Another source of conflict between groups is *limited resources*. All resources are ultimately finite and thus potentially scarce. Organizations have limited amount of capital, equipment, and time available to achieve their goals (Secord, 1958). In their desire to reach goals, groups want to increase their resources. This situation creates conflict (Daft, 2010).

One of the results of limited, critical resources (such as capital) is political behavior. Political behavior in this context can be defined as any behavior that is motivated by personal interests over organizational interests. If such behavior continues, it can cause organizational dysfunction (Secord, 1958).

It should be noted that conflict is a dynamic condition with different stages (Tosi and Plati, 2011). Pondy (1967) developed a model that reveals how conflict starts and passes through different stages. This model is given in Figure 2-1.

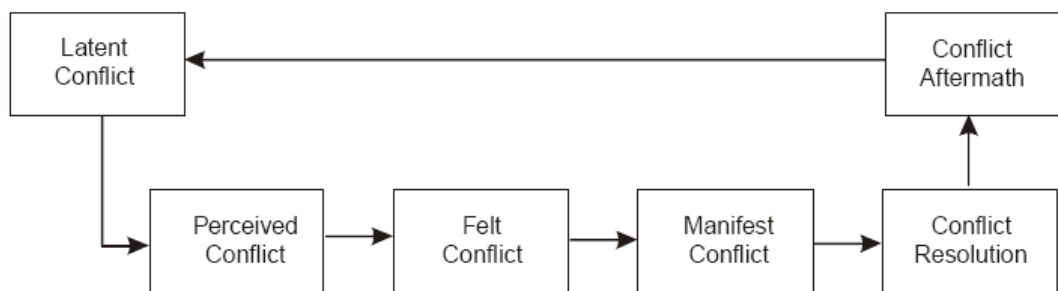


Figure 2-1: Pondy’s Five-stage Model of Conflict (Pondy, 1967)

According to Pondy’s model, the first stage is *latent conflict* (Slack and Parent, 2006). At the latent stage, there is no apparent conflict but the potential conflict exists (Bertocci, 2009). Certain conditions frequently provide latent potential for conflict. Competition for scarce resources, drive for autonomy, and divergent subunit goals are among reasons for latent conflict (Slack and Parent, 2006). Competition for scarce resources involves competition for what is seen as limited resources. Organizations have limited money, physical facilities, and human resources (Daft, 2010). When resources are scarce, this situation may create conflict over the resources (Tosi and Plati, 2011). Drive for autonomy is the second condition that can create latent conflict. Individuals or subunits within an organization frequently try to operate autonomously. However, such ability is limited by the structure of the organization and the existence of similar desires in other individuals or subunits (Slack and Parent, 2006). Lastly, divergent subunit goals can create latent conflict.

The goals of each unit reflect the specific objectives members try to accomplish. The accomplishment of one department's goals often interferes with another department's goals, which creates conflict (Daft, 2010). *Perceived conflict* starts when one party (an individual or group) becomes aware that their goals may be hindered by another party. This leads to *felt conflict* stage in which conflicting parties start to build negative feelings about the other. Other groups or individuals begin to take sides and conflict increases (Bertocci, 2009). In the *manifest stage*, some type of hostile behavior is exhibited (Slack and Parent, 2006). This may be in the form of aggressive violence but it often includes open arguments, loud shouting, or other forms of noncooperation (Bertocci, 2009). The final step is *conflict aftermath*. In this stage, the conflict is either solved or become the foundation for following conflicts (Slack and Parent, 2006).

Conflict can be in any of these several forms within organizations: Intrapersonal conflict (within an individual), interpersonal conflict (between or among people), intragroup conflict (within a group), intergroup conflict (between or among groups), or interorganizational conflict (between or among organizations). *Intrapersonal conflict* takes place within an individual and can involve some form of goal, cognitive affect, or affective conflict. Intrapersonal conflict may also be as a result of cognitive dissonance, which happens when individuals realize inconsistencies in their thoughts and behavior (Borkowski, 2011). *Interpersonal conflict* takes place between two or more people who are in opposition with each other (Schermerhorn et al., 2012). Interpersonal conflict often arises because of individual differences in perceptions, orientations, or status (Palestini, 2005). *Intragroup conflict* involves clashes among some or all of a group's members, which often influences the group's processes and effectiveness (Borkowski, 2011). However, the complete absence of all conflict within a group is not desirable either. The tendency for group members to always agree and conform to the group and avoid openly dissenting is called "groupthink" and may have negative consequences for the group (Collins, 2009). *Intergroup conflict* involves opposition or clashes between groups (Borkowski, 2011). For instance, different teams within an organization might compete for limited resources or rewards, which can cause conflict among teams. Jehn and Mannix (2001) stated that conflict that takes place in work groups can be classified into three forms: Relationship, task, and process conflict. Relationship

conflict is realization of interpersonal incompatibilities. Task conflict is realization of differences in view points and ideas about a group task. Process conflict is a recognition about the aspects of how the work gets done (Jehn and Mannix, 2001). *Interorganizational conflict* occurs between organizations. However, it is not about just market competition among organizations. For instance, conflict can involve disagreements between unions and employing organizations, or between outside activist groups and between organizations (Borkowski, 2011).

So far in this text, conflict concept and its theoretical development have been detailed. In the following section, how organizational members attempt to deal with conflict will be discussed.

2.4. Styles of Handling Conflict

Mary Parker Follett (1940) was among the first to propose that there might be patterns to response conflict. She proposed that individuals can manage conflict in three main styles: Domination, compromise, and integration. Blake and Mouton (1964) offered a grid to classify conflict behaviors: Concern for production, concern for people. The five styles of handling interpersonal conflict in this model are forcing, withdrawing, smoothing, compromising, and problem solving. Based on Blake and Mouton's work, Rahim and Bonoma (1979) classified handling interpersonal conflict on two main dimensions: Concern for self and concern for others. The first dimension is the extent to which an individual tries to satisfy his/her personal concerns. The second one refers to the extent to which a person attempts to satisfy others' concerns. The combination of these two dimensions creates five styles: Integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. Figure 2-2 shows five styles of handling interpersonal conflict and their classification into the problem solving and bargaining dimensions (Rahim et al., 2002). Based on this model, Rahim (1983) developed Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory, which has been widely used by researchers.

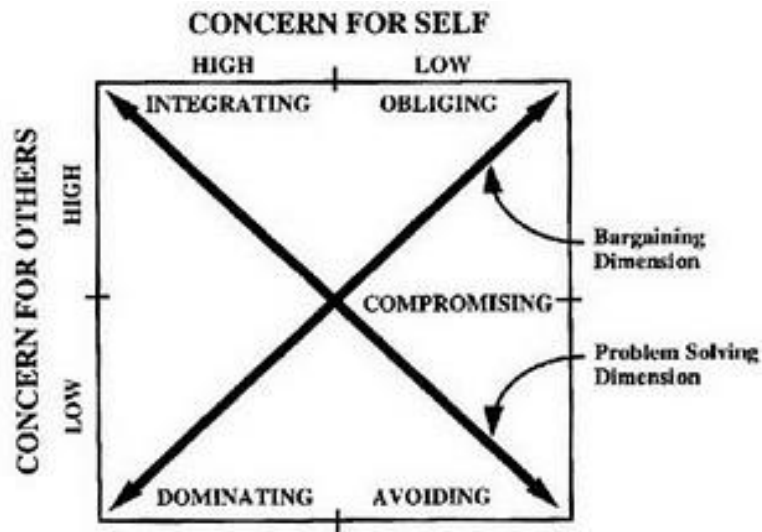


Figure 2-2: The Dual Concern Model: Problem Solving and Bargaining Strategies for Managing Interpersonal Conflict (Rahim et al., 2002)

Conflict management styles (CMS) “that are treating other side with moderate to high level of concern, namely integrating, obliging, and compromising, can defined as ‘cooperative conflict management styles’; on the other hand, styles in which little concern is shown for the other party, namely avoiding and dominating, are considered as uncooperative conflict management styles” (‘Rahim et al., 2000; Song et al., 2000’ in Milic et al., 2011, p. 549).

Integrating (or collaborative) style is related with “high concern for self and for others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197; Gudykunst, 2005). This style emphasizes problem solving and seeks a result that provides both sides what they want (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Integrating style has been identified with “openness, exchange of information, and examination of differences to reach an effective solution acceptable to both parties” (Rahim et al., 2002, p. 307). Successful collaboration can be achieved through communication. Collaborative communication tools aid conflicting parties in understanding each others’ perspective. Collaborating style demands more time and energy than other styles; thus, it may not always be the best conflict management strategy (Collins, 2009). This style can be suitable when the aims of both parties are mutually exclusive or when there is a deadlock in negotiation among equally powerful parties (Borkowski, 2011).

Obliging (or accommodating) style characterized by “low concern for self and high concern for others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197; Gudykunst, 2005; Collins, 2009).

This style involves trying to minimize differences and emphasizing common points to satisfy the other party's concerns (Rahim et al., 2002). There is self-sacrifice in obliging style (Fenn and Gameson, 1992). An obliging individual neglects his/her own concern to meet the other party's concern (Borkowski, 2011). Obliging style puts harmony between parties ahead of individual needs and interests. This style can be useful in situations such as, when an issue is very important for one party, but not for the other (Collins, 2009). Obliging style is also appropriate when one recognizes that he/she is wrong about an issue (Phillips and Gully, 2012). In addition, when one party in the conflict has more power, accommodation can be the only alternative (Collins, 2009).

Dominating (or competitive-controlling) style involves “high concern for self and low concern for others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197; Gudykunst, 2005). This style is confrontational (Collins, 2009) and it “has been identified with win-lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one's position” (Rahim et al., 2002, p. 307). This style is generally used when the conflict issue is important or to set an example (Phillips and Gully, 2012). When handling conflict between subordinates or departments, dominating-style leaders can actually use or threaten to use negative performance evaluations, demotion, discharge, and the similar to gain compliance (Singh, 2012). Individuals who use this style like to argue their position but if that is not working, they would use their power or authority to get what they want (Collins, 2009). However, this conflict management style can increase the conflict and the loser may try to retaliate (Phillips and Gully, 2012). In some cases, dominating style can be the most appropriate CMS. For instance, managers are sometimes required to make decisions that will not be well-received but inevitable such as during downsizing (Collins, 2009).

Avoiding style reflects “low concern for self and for others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). This is a passive CMS that involves ignoring the conflict or denying that it exists (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Avoiding style is related with avoiding “the conflict topic, the conflict party, or the conflict situation altogether” (Ting-Toomey and Oetzel, 2001, p. 46). Avoidance can take several forms such as withdrawal or suppression. A common technique is withdrawal or refusal to participate in conflict (Collins, 2009). When withdrawal is not possible or acceptable, the parties may suppress their differences by withholding information

or not revealing their feelings with the aim of not upsetting the other party (McKenna, 2001). When people choose avoidance style, conflicts can escalate because they are not being solved or managed (Collins, 2009). Avoiding a conflict may be useful when issues are not important or when the costs associated with challenging someone weigh more than the benefits (Tosi and Plati, 2011).

Compromising style involves “intermediate concern for self and others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). This has been associated with “a give-and-take concession approach in order to reach a midpoint agreement” (Gudykunst, 2005, p. 80). In this style, each party sacrifices something to end the conflict. This middle-ground style shows a moderate concern for one’s personal interests and a moderate concern for other party’s interests (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Sometimes compromising is the most suitable strategy. For instance, a compromise can result in fair outcomes with little time invested when an issue is not highly important (Collins, 2009). Compromising style is often used to reach temporary solutions, to avoid destructive power struggles, or when conflict needs to be solved quickly (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Compared to integrative style, compromising style does not maximize optimal outcomes for all parties that are involved (Borkowski, 2011).

There can be harmful results when any of the conflict management style is overused or underused. Managers need to be flexible to use a particular style when it is most suitable to the situation. This approach would need a diagnosis of the conflict situation, the selection of appropriate style, and willingness to practice different styles (Tosi and Plati, 2011).

Previous literature has found that cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising), which focus on meeting others’ concerns, generally produced positive outcomes on subordinates. However, former researches have indicated that uncooperative CMS (dominating and avoiding), which ignore others’ needs, are associated with negative job outcomes (Chan et al., 2008).

Conflict handling styles can differ from culture to culture. For instance, Morris et al.’s (1998) study indicated that Chinese managers tend to use avoiding style more because they have relatively high conformity and tradition value-orientation. However, U.S. managers tend to use competing style more since they have relatively high individual achievement value-orientation (Morris et al., 1998).

Holt and DeVore's (2005, p. 165) meta-analysis investigated styles of conflict resolution with special emphasis on these variables: "Culture (individualistic vs. collectivistic), gender, and organizational role (superior, subordinate, and peer)". The study results revealed that individualistic cultures prefer forcing conflict style more than collectivistic cultures; collectivistic cultures choose withdrawing, compromising, and problem-solving styles more than individualistic cultures. Moreover, in individualistic cultures, females endorse compromising more frequently; the use of compromising is more probable to be endorsed by females than males, regardless of culture. In addition, males have more tendency to choose forcing style than females in individualistic cultures. Furthermore, related to organizational role, males have more tendency to prefer a forcing style with their supervisors, compared to females (Holt and DeVore, 2005).

In many cultures (such China and Japan) face is an important concern in social interaction (Oetzel et al., 2001). Face is "a claimed sense of favorable social self-worth that a person wants others to have of her or him" (Ting-Toomey and Kurogi, 1998, p. 187). Face-negotiation theory explains how different cultures manage conflict and communicate (Walker, 2011). This theory underlines three face concerns: *Self-face* can be described as the concern for an individual's own image, *other-face* can be described as the concern for another's image, and *mutual-face* can be described as the concern for both parties' images and/or the "image" of the relationship (Ting-Toomey and Kurogi, 1998 in Oetzel et al., 2001). About the relation between face theory and conflict styles, Ting-Toomey and Kurogi (1998) pointed that while individualists (such as U.S. participants) are inclined to use more direct, face-threatening CMS (such as dominating style), collectivists (such as Taiwanese and Chinese respondents) are inclined to use more indirect, mutual face-saving CMS (such as avoiding and obliging styles).

Another study on leader conflict managing styles, Lee's (2008) research had 139 respondents from Malaysia. This research investigated the relationship between CMS and employee satisfaction with supervision. The findings indicated that subordinates were more satisfied with their supervision through supervisors' use of integrating, compromising, and obliging CMS. However, subordinates who perceived their superiors as mainly using

dominating and avoiding CMS viewed them as incapable in supervision. These subordinates believed that such situation lowers their level of job satisfaction (Lee, 2008).

Kozan's (1989) research on 215 Turkish and 134 Jordanian managers indicated that managers in both countries have a similarity with each other, and to their U.S. counterparts: A clear preference for the use of collaborative CMS. These two countries are different from each other and the U.S. in preferences for the other styles, particularly forcing and accommodation CMS. It was seen that in both countries CMS were influenced by other party's position, such as, whether he/she is a subordinate, superior, or peer (Kozan, 1989).

Cingöz-Ulu and Lalonde's (2007) study investigated cultural differences in CMS in three different contexts: Same-sex and opposite-sex friendships, and romantic relationships. Approximately 114 Turkish and 135 Canadian university students responded a survey instrument. The findings indicated that cultural differences were seen in the types of CMS chosen. Turks reported avoiding conflict, postponing conflict, and choosing persuasion more than Canadians did. On the other hand, Canadians were more likely to choose compromise, request third-party assistance, and give priority to the other side in the conflict.

Another research on conflict handling strategies in Turkish context was conducted by Şirin (2008). This research was among 89 sports school managers and 521 academicians. The results showed that conflict management strategies of the managers (according to their perceptions) can be ordered as follows: Compromising, making concession, avoiding, and dominating. On the other hand, conflict management strategies of the academicians (according to their perceptions) may be ordered as follows: Integrating, dominating, compromising, avoiding, and making concession (Şirin, 2008).

Özkalp et al.'s (2009) study aimed to identify Turkish managers' CMS in four different industries (namely durable consumer goods, aviation, automotive, and banking). 130 managers filled in the survey instrument that contains Rahim's (1983) Organizational Conflict Inventory-II. The outcomes showed that firstly integrating, and then compromising are the most frequently chosen CMS of Turkish managers. In addition, the findings indicated that utilizing obliging CMS differs according to managers' organizational status. Obliging is most frequently used when the conflict partner has a higher level of organizational status.

Ma et al.'s (2012) study examined the influence of group-oriented values on preference of CMS and conflict resolution outcomes in Turkey. The research had 315 respondents. The participants were managerial employees, mainly middle-level managers, working at both public and private sectors in Ankara, Turkey. The outcomes showed that “norms of subordination of personal needs to group interests and beliefs about the effects of personal pursuit on group productivity” (p. 3776) are the most significant determinants of preference of CMS in Turkey. Moreover, dominating and obliging styles are related with “individual profits in actual conflict resolution process” (p. 3776). In addition, the findings pointed that integrating style is the main predictor of satisfaction and relationship building in managing conflict.

In the following section, subordinate compliance with supervisors' wishes will be discussed.

2.5. Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes

How people organize and relate to each other to accomplish planned goals is a central issue in organizational and administrative theory. The overreaching problem in organizations is securing follower compliance (Porter et al., 2003). Compliance variable is an ideal criterion to associate with leader power bases because it is most directly related with the outcomes of power use (Rahim and Afza, 1993).

Compliance is achieving the result aimed from the use of power. Compliance is effective and the influence process is successful as the influencing agent affects others to obey his/her orders, instructions, requests, or implied wishes (Fairholm, 2009). Compliance means that people follow the directions of the person of power, even though they may not agree with those directions. They obey orders or carry out instructions whether or not they like it. Resistance, on the other hand, means that employees intentionally attempt to avoid carrying out orders or they will try to disobey instructions (Daft, 2008).

Power aims at compliance but it does not seek for agreement/consensus as a condition of that compliance. In addition, a power holder does not necessarily force the compliance by physical actions but can operate in more subtle ways (e.g. an implied threat to carry out sanctions) (Liebler and McConnell, 2004).

Some of the early literature on leadership and power defined effective leadership as task completion. For instance, Weber defined power as “the probability that one actor within a social relationship will be in a position to carry out his own will despite resistance, regardless of the basis on which this probability rests” (Weber, [1922], 1978, p. 53). Over time, with the influence of human relations movement in management, this perspective has shifted. Later definitions of leadership take not only compliance into account but also their resistance (Saiyadain, 2009). For instance, Terry (1960, p. 493) defined leadership as “the activity of influencing people to strive willingly for group objectives”. The use of “willingly” is important here and this definition indicates that an employee has freedom to do what he/she is supposed to do (Saiyadain, 2009).

Warren (1968) differentiated between attitudinal and behavioral compliance. As stated earlier, attitudinal compliance is “the extent to which an employee wants to follow his or her superior’s directives or wishes” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1988 in Rahim and Afza, 1993, p. 614). Behavioral compliance is defined as “the extent to which a subordinate actually carries out these instructions” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1988 in Rahim and Afza, 1993, p. 614). Attitudinal compliance is “the extent to which a target person is inclined by him / herself to conform to an actor’s wishes (with or without acting accordingly)” (Emans et al., 2003, p. 38). Behavioral compliance is “the degree to which a target person conforms behaviorally to those wishes (with or without being inclined to do so by him/herself)” (Emans et al., 2003, p. 38). Rahim and Afza (1993) stated that a power base is effective to the degree to which it causes both attitudinal and behavioral compliance. Behavioral compliance results from a target’s wish to get favorable reactions or to avoid the actor’s unfavorable reactions. On the other hand, attitudinal compliance is the product of an actor’s influence on the target’s self-definition, which creates real persuasion and true internal change that remains in the absence of monitoring (‘Moscovici, 1976; Pérez, 1994; Pérez and Mugny, 1990’ in Emans et al., 2003).

For some seekers of compliance, having the target to act in a desired way may be the extent of their ambitions. However, other people trying to get compliance may be driven by a different motive: To change their target’s attitudes. People often alter their attitudes to make them compatible with their behavior. This situation has been identified by research and

known as cognitive dissonance² (Festinger, 1957) and self-perception³ (Bern, 1967) (Williams and Jones, 2005). Compliance is a very strong form of manipulation and it can change both behavior and eventually the attitude that supports it (Williams and Jones, 2005).

Blau's (1964) exchange theory underlines the tendency of participants to try control the behavior of others for their own interests (Clegg, 1975). Blau indicated that power is the capability to receive compliance in an exchange relationship by administering valued rewards and resources. The degree to which a person can provide services in return for valued services, look for alternative rewards, potentially use physical force, or do without valued services determine the level to which a person can resist compliance (Sabatelli and Shehan, 2009). "The ability to resist compliance, in this regard, is determined by the degree to which people can minimize their dependence on the other for rewards" (Sabatelli and Shehan, 2009, p. 391).

Cassel's (1995) study investigated the relationship between perceived leader power bases, satisfaction with supervision, and compliance among 581 teachers from 32 Alabama Head Start programs. The questionnaires that were used: Demographic questionnaire (regarding ethnicity, age, and years of teaching experience), the Leader Power Inventory, the Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes Survey, and the Supervisory Relations subscale of the Early Childhood Job Satisfaction Survey. The overall findings of the study regarding to compliance with supervisor's wishes: Age was significantly associated with the teacher's attitudinal compliance and behavioral compliance. Older teachers were more attitudinally and behaviorally compliant than younger teachers. In addition, referent power and expert power were significantly associated with attitudinal compliance. Moreover, age, years of experience, and attitudinal and behavior compliance were found to be significantly related with satisfaction with supervision.

In the following section, subordinate organizational citizenship behavior will be discussed.

² Cognitive dissonance theory describes "the discomfort felt when one's attitude and behavior are inconsistent" (Schermerhorn, 2010, p. 333).

³ Self-perception is "how people conduct themselves in different states and how other people evaluate about it" (Abidin et al., 2011, p. 456).

2.6. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Organizational citizenship behavior is a widely studied issue. The widespread interest in OCB is likely to be related to the notion that these behaviors increase organizational effectiveness (Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997). Within organizations, managers devote serious effort to minimize dysfunctional behaviors while trying to encourage organizational citizenship (Griffin and Moorhead, 2012).

The greater use of teams, flexible and networked organizations, and a global workforce increase the importance of understanding the reasons for interpersonal behaviors within organizations (King et al., 2005). Going beyond the duty is especially important for organizations that use teams to get things accomplished because employees need extra help from each other to get work done (Nelson and Quick, 2008). As work changes from being more routinized and preprogrammed to being more flexible and adaptive to a dynamic environment, the significance of interpersonal helping is expected to increase. In addition, increasing globalization requires the sharing of information, products, services, technology, and procedures across cultures and country borders, and this sharing is highly conditional on cooperative employees who willingly help others (King et al., 2005).

Organizational citizenship behavior (OCB) is defined as “individual behavior at work, that is discretionary, not directly or explicitly recognized by the formal reward system, and that in the aggregate promotes the efficient and effective functioning of the organization” (Organ, 1988, p. 4). Organ (1988, p. 4) added that “by discretionary, we mean that the behavior is not enforceable requirement of the role or the job description, that is, the clearly specifiable terms of the person’s employment contract with the organization; the behavior is rather a matter of personal choice, such that omission is not generally understood as punishable”. OCB is “behavior that is above and beyond call of duty” (Nelson and Quick, 2008, p. 99). OCB has roots in Chester Barnard’s “willingness to cooperate” concept (Barnard, 1938) and Daniel Katz’s (Katz, 1964; Katz and Kahn, 1966) “extra-role behavior” concept, innovative and unplanned behaviors beyond the defined job requirements. Organ and his colleagues (Bateman and Organ, 1983; Smith, Organ, and Near, 1983) first used the term “Organizational Citizenship Behavior” (in Podsakoff et al., 2000).

Employee OCBs can be in many forms. Some are directed towards individuals, such as helping co-workers with their work problems, adjusting work schedule to accommodate co-workers, or sharing work resources with colleagues. The other OCBs are about cooperation and helpfulness regarding the organization generally. For instance, supporting the company's public image, offering ideas beyond those required for one's position, keeping up with latest developments in the organization (McShane and Von Glinow, 2010).

The direction of much of the early research on OCB aimed to answer these questions: "How does job satisfaction affect individual behavior in ways that are important for organizational effectiveness?", "What do managers want their subordinates to do but cannot require them to do?" (Motowidlo, 2000, p. 117). Over time, interest in behavior that can be defined as OCB has increased significantly (LePine et al., 2002). However, scholars have used different terms to label OCB. Labels for terms that overlap with OCB as conceptualized by "Organ (1988) and others (e.g., Morrison, 1994; Van Dyne, Graham, and Dienesch, 1994) include prosocial organizational behavior (Brief and Motowidlo, 1986; George, 1990, 1991; George and Bettenhausen, 1990; O'Reilly and Chatman, 1986), organizational spontaneity (George and Brief, 1992; George and Jones, 1997), and extrarole behavior (Van Dyne, Cummings, and McLean Parks, 1995)" (in LePine et al., 2002, p. 53).

Initially OCB was conceptualized around two main dimensions: Altruism (helping specific individuals), and generalized compliance (a more impersonal type of conscientious citizenship) (Smith et al., 1983). On the other hand, Organ's (1988) research formed OCB around five component behaviors, which is widely accepted. Firstly, there is *altruism* defined as helping fellow employees with tasks or problems relevant to the work of that organization (Goudge, 2006). Altruism is discretionary behavior that helps a specific individual, who is usually a customer or colleague, with an organizationally relevant task (Baum, 2006). Examples of altruism can be helping a colleague who has difficulty with learning new IT skills or bringing materials that a coworker needs and cannot obtain his/her own (Organ, 1990; Baum, 2006). Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 516-517) stated that "helping others with work related problems includes Organ's altruism, peacemaking and cheerleading dimensions (Organ, 1998, 1990); Graham's interpersonal helping (Graham, 1989); Williams and Anderson's OCB-I (Williams and Anderson, 1991); Van Scotter and Motowidlo's

interpersonal facilitation (Van Scotter and Motowidlo, 1996); and the helping others constructs from George and Brief (1992) and George and Jones (1997)".

Second behavior is *conscientiousness*, which involves voluntary behavior going well beyond minimum requirements of the role (Goudge, 2006). Conscientiousness goes well "beyond minimally required levels of attendance, punctuality, housekeeping, conserving resources, and related matters of internal maintenance" (Organ, 1990, p. 96). Conscientiousness includes using time wisely for organizational purposes (DiPaola et al., 2005). Therefore, conscientiousness increases both individual and group efficiency (Organ, 1988).

The third one is *civic virtue*, which is an indication of participating responsibly in the organizational life (Goudge, 2006). Such participation may be in the form of engagement in the political life or governance of the organization (such as membership of staff social clubs) or willingness to volunteer to represent the organization externally in different roles (Baum, 2006). Civic virtue is "responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one's mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization" (Organ, 1990, p. 96).

The next one is *sportsmanship*, defined as "any behaviour demonstrating tolerance of less than ideal circumstances without complaining" (Goudge, 2006, p. 42). Organ (1990, p. 96) defined sportsmanship as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining". This attribute refers to a willingness to make personal sacrifices for colleagues and the organization (Baum, 2006). Sportsmanship behaviors also include encouraging cooperation among the work group, not gossiping, and concerning about group performance, in addition to individual performance (Kusluvan, 2003).

The final one is *courtesy*, which includes efforts to prevent work-related issues with other individuals (Goudge, 2006). It also includes consulting with other people before taking actions that will influence them (Organ, 1990). Courtesy is associated to altruism, but there are differences between the two. Courtesy behavior is done to help a colleague avoid work-related issues or decrease the impact of an anticipated problem. An example of courteous behavior is reminding colleagues about an anticipated rush (Baum, 2006). It should be noted

that good OCB does not necessarily include all these listed dimensions at the same time and may go beyond these attributes. Moreover, sometimes these dimensions may overlap with each other; thus, they cannot always be isolated for identification (Baum, 2006).

Former studies suggest that nationality differences might have a role in employee OCB (e.g. Blakely et al., 2005; Euwema et al., 2007; Testa, 2009). Blakely et al.'s (2005) study was conducted on 116 Chinese managers and 109 American managers. The authors conceptualized that some cultures (such as the U.S.) have citizens who are mainly individualistic and others (such as China) have citizens who are mainly collectivistic. "A collectivistic society is characterized by citizens who seek to support the goals of the group and protect the group welfare", whereas "an individualistic society is characterized by citizens who seek to promote their own interests" (Blakely et al., 2005; p. 105). Blakely et al.'s (2005) research examined nationality as one of the possible reasons for a person to consider behaviors generally defined OCB as "in-role job behaviors (role definition)" (p. 103). The outcomes indicated that nationality was directly associated with role definition. It was also found that Chinese supervisors have more tendency to consider OCB an element of their job than the American managers (Blakely et al., 2005).

Furthermore, Euwema et al.'s (2007) research investigated (a) the influence of societal culture on group OCB (GOCB), and (b) the moderating effect of culture on directive and supportive leadership and GOCB relationship. 20,336 managers and their 95,893 team members participated to the survey. In this research, culture was conceptualized using these two dimensions: Individualism and power distance. It was seen that there was no direct association between these cultural dimensions and GOCB. While directive leadership was negatively associated with GOCB, supportive leadership was positively associated with GOCB. In addition, culture had a moderating effect on this relationship: Directive leadership had a more negative, and supportive behavior had a less positive association with GOCB in individualistic by comparison with collectivistic cultures.

Conducted in Turkish context, Ertürk's (2007) research aimed to investigate the influence of organizational justice and trust in supervisor in increasing OCB of Turkish academicians. The participants were 1,018 academicians employed in public universities in Turkey. The main argument of this study is that the effect of trust in supervisor will exceed

the influence of Turkish academicians' perception of supervisor fairness (distributive, procedural, and interactional justice) while they together affect academicians' OCB. The outcomes pointed that trust in supervisor fully mediated the association between organizational justice and OCBs directed towards the organization (OCBO). Trust in supervisor partially mediated the relationship between organizational justice and Turkish academicians' OCBs directed towards the individuals (OCBI).

Another study done in Turkish context on OCB belongs to Torlak and Koc (2007). This research aimed to investigate the association between the "materialistic⁴ attitudes of salespeople working in pharmaceutical and household white goods and furniture (HWGF) sectors and their OCB" (p. 581). Participants were 199 salespeople who are employed in pharmaceutical and HWGF industries in Eskisehir, Turkey. The findings suggested that materialistic attitude has a negative influence on OCB.

As stated before in this study, IT employees work in a highly demanding work environment. IT careers, more than most other professions, demand long hours, travel and constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). In such an environment, employee OCB is crucially important. Chou and Pearson's (2011) research on 85 IT professionals in the U.S. indicated that age and tenure in the IT profession have a positive effect on IT professionals' OCB. In addition, Chou and Pearson's (2012) study aimed to investigate the influence of IT professionals' job stress, trust, and commitment on the valence of job satisfaction, which then affects their OCB. The research had 85 IT professional participants. The findings pointed a significant association between valence of job satisfaction and OCB, and an association between OCB and actual job satisfaction. Moreover, organizational and professional commitment significantly influenced valence of job satisfaction.

Many scholars have examined the predictors of OCB (such as Smith et al., 1983; Zellars et al., 2002; Blakely et al., 2005; Cohen and Avrahami, 2006; Wanxian and Weiwu, 2007; Cem Ersoy et al., 2011). Smith et al.'s (1983) research investigated the nature and antecedents of OCB. The participants of this study were 422 employees and their managers from 58 departments of 2 banks. As indicated earlier in this study, Smith et al.'s (1983)

⁴ Materialism is defined as "an orientation which views material goods and money as being important for personal happiness and social progress" (Ward and Wackman, 1971, p. 422).

research pointed that OCB includes at least two dimensions: Altruism and generalized compliance. The findings showed that job satisfaction had a direct predictive path to altruism but not to generalized compliance. In addition, rural background had a direct influence on OCB dimensions. The effects of other measures (e.g., leader supportiveness as evaluated independently by co-workers, personality measures) varied along the two dimensions of OCB.

Another study on antecedents of OCB belongs to Cem Ersoy et al. (2011). 376 Turkish blue-collar and 147 white-collar factory employees participated to the study. It was found that reward for application belief (implies perceiving the world as a fair place) was positively associated with job dedication and support. The results also indicated that among blue-collar workers religiosity was positively correlated with job dedication and organizational support. Moreover, relational identification with the supervisor was found to be the main predictor of OCB, especially for blue-collar workers (Cem Ersoy et al., 2011).

In the next section, employee intention to quit concept will be examined.

2.7. Intention to Quit

Retaining organizational human capital is a critical issue for organizational managers and HR professionals. Employee retention is frequently cited as one of the most significant problems for employers (Boswell et al., 2008). In order to reduce costs, keep key employees, and decrease turnover rates, managers need to realize the factors that drive quitting behavior (Dinger et al., 2011). Intention to quit is defined as “one’s desire or willingness to leave an organization” (Altmaier and Hansen, 2012, p. 152). Intention to quit has been recognized a good predictor of voluntary employee turnover (Griffeth et al., 2000; Lambert et al., 2001). Numerous studies have been dedicated to employee intention to quit (such as Busch, 1980; Firth et al., 2004; Tzeng, 2002; Afza, 2005; Calisir et al., 2011; Wu et al., 2011; Benjamin, 2012). Employee turnover has also been an interest for managers and researchers from a wide range of disciplines (Lambert et al., 2001).

In their review of turnover theories, Joseph et al. (2007) stated that some of the major theories in employee turnover are: “The theory of organizational equilibrium (March and Simon, 1958); the met expectations model (Porter and Steers, 1973); the linkage model (Mobley, 1977; Mobley et al., 1978); the unfolding model of turnover (Lee and Mitchell,

1994; Lee et al., 1999; Lee et al., 1996); and the job embeddedness theory of turnover (Mitchell and Lee, 2001)” (p. 548).

Organizational Equilibrium Theory: This influential theory was conceptualized by March and Simon (1958). This theory states that the participation decision is based on organizational equilibrium concept. Organizational equilibrium is “balance of payments to members for their continued participation and contribution to the organization” (Tosi, 2008, p. 95). Participants and groups get inducements from the organization for their efforts. The individual keeps participating as long as the inducements he/she receives are greater than his or her contribution. As the balance of inducements over contributions increases, individual participants’ intention to leave the organization decreases (March and Simon, 1958; Tosi, 2008). As with Organizational Equilibrium Theory, most traditional theories on turnover are based on March and Simon’s (1958) work (Joseph et al., 2007).

Met Expectations Model: This model is developed by Porter and Steers (1973) and built on March and Simon’s (1958) work. Porter and Steers (1973) indicated that met worker expectations are key determinants of employee job satisfaction. Met expectations concept can be viewed as “the discrepancy between what a person encounters on the job in the way of positive and negative experiences and what he (/she) expected to encounter” (Porter and Steers, 1973, p. 152). Different employees may have different expectations about payoffs or a given reward; therefore, a chosen variable (such as high pay) may not have a uniform effect on employee withdrawal decisions. The authors added that when a person’s expectations are not met, his (her) propensity to withdrawal would increase (Porter and Steers, 1973).

Linkage Model: Mobley et al. (1977) stated that job satisfaction is not directly associated with employee turnover. The authors indicated an intermediate linkage model of employee turnover. This model starts with the evaluation of current job, which may evoke job dissatisfaction, job search and the assessment of alternatives, and results in intention to quit before actual turnover occurs (Mobley et al., 1977; Boswell et al., 2008).

Unfolding Model of Turnover: Lee and Mitchell’s (1994) Unfolding Model of Turnover considers events that force people to evaluate their jobs as “shocks” to the system. Perceived life events (such as promotions or layoffs) become shocks because they direct employees’ attention to membership and cause serious consideration about staying or leaving

(Lee and Mitchell, 1994; Jex, 2002; Woo and Maertz, 2012). The main contribution of the unfolding model of turnover is the conceptualization of “impulsive” process to quitting, in contrast to the rational decision-making route offered in traditional turnover theories (Joseph, et al., 2007).

Job Embeddedness Theory: Developed by Mitchell and Lee (2001), job embeddedness theory is about the extent to which a worker feels linked the job, considering both on- and off-the job factors (Mitchell and Lee, 2001; Eberly et al., 2009). This theory states that when employees think about leaving their jobs or organization, they consider factors other than the job or the organization- employees take into account of their total life space (Ployhart et al., 2006). Unlike most turnover models, job embeddedness theory considers nonwork factors that influence individuals’ ease of leaving an organization or community (Joseph et al., 2007).

As a study on antecedents of intention to leave a job, Firth et al.’s (2004) research had 173 retail salespeople participants. The findings pointed that emotional support from supervisors and self-esteem mediated the influence of “stressors on stress reactions, job satisfaction, commitment to the organization and intention to quit” (p. 170). The authors indicated that to decrease intention to quit of employees (therefore, to decrease turnover), managers need to pay close attention to workloads, and the relationships between managers and subordinates with the aim to decrease and manage employee stress.

For IT professionals, it can be said that even though a weak labor market has limited their job turnover, skilled IT personnel are still a valuable resource for organizations (Dinger et al., 2011). An operational IT infrastructure is critical to today’s most firms. The loss of key IT professionals may heavily influence an organization’s restructuring and growth efforts, its competitive advantage, and eventually its survival (LeRouge et al., 2006). In addition, IT professionals are highly skilled employees (Maudgalya et al., 2006), and replacing IT workers can be costly for organizations. It is estimated that the average cost of replacing talented IT workers is twice as much as their annual salaries. This cost involves hard costs such as headhunter fees, and relocation costs. It also includes soft costs such as customer and business lost, productivity slowdown, and training (Young, D., November 11, 2002).

Between 1970s and 1990s, IT turnover rates ranged from 15 to 33% in the U.S. (Hayes, 1998 in Joseph et al., 2007). This situation raised serious concerns. In the 21st

century, despite the trend of relocating IT jobs offshore, IT employee turnover is still an important problem (Adams et al., 2006 in Joseph et al., 2007). The high turnover culture among IT professionals is related to marketability of IT professional job skills such as network and database management (Moore and Burke, 2002).

Previous research investigated various factors that affect IT professional turnover intention. Some of these factors are “job satisfaction (Baroudi, 1985; Bartol, 1983; Guimaraes and Igbaria, 1992); fairness of rewards, pay and latitude equity (Bartol, 1983; Dittrich et al., 1985); organizational commitment (Baroudi, 1985; Bartol, 1983); career opportunities (Guimaraes and Igbaria, 1992); role ambiguity and conflict (Baroudi and Igbaria, 1995); and a few demographic variables, such as age and gender (Guimaraes and Igbaria, 1992)” (in Quan and Cha, 2010, p. 331).

Paré and Tremblay (2007) conducted a study on 394 IT professionals. The findings pointed that nonmonetary recognition and, to a lesser degree, fair-rewards, and information-sharing procedures are negatively correlated to turnover intentions. The results also indicted that “procedural justice, affective and continuance commitment, and citizenship behaviors” (p. 326) had partial mediating effect on the relationship between high-involvement HR practices and highly skilled professionals’ turnover intentions (Paré and Tremblay, 2007).

Lee’s (2000) study tested a model of IT professionals’ turnover intentions. The model assumed that IT professionals’ growth need strength (the need for challenge and achievements) significantly influences turnover intentions. The model, thus, hypothesized that growth need strength along with job satisfaction affect turnover intentions. Moreover, the study conceptualized that “the motivating potential score of a job, role ambiguity, and role conflict affect turnover intentions through job satisfaction” (p. 101). 273 responses to the questionnaire were used for the analysis. The findings supported all hypothesized relationships except the one between role conflict and job satisfaction. The authors suggested that employers need to be aware about the influence of employee growth need strength and job satisfaction in planning employee retention strategies.

As indicated before, there is a limited number of studies on Turkish IT professionals. One of these studies is conducted by Calisir et al. (2011). Their research on 204 Turkish IT professionals indicated that intention to quit one’s job is influenced by job satisfaction and

organizational commitment. In addition, role ambiguity and job stress were found to have negative indirect influence on the intention to quit one's job (Calisir et al., 2011). Role ambiguity is "a sense of uncertainty about what is expected, how to achieve expectations or the consequence of job performance" (Rutner et al., 2008, p. 638-639). Calisir et al. (2011, p. 527) concluded that "it appears that IT professionals decide whether to quit job or not based on their satisfaction level, commitment to their organization, stress level, and whether they have sufficient information to perform their job".

Another research conducted in Turkish context on intention to quit belongs to Altunoğlu and Sarpkaya (2012). The study participants were 433 full-time faculty members from various faculties of a Turkish state university. The aim of the study was to examine the relationship between faculty members' burnout and job satisfaction levels and their intention to quit. The outcomes indicated that "while there are positive and significant relationships between emotional exhaustion, depersonalization and intention to leave, there is no significant relationship between personal accomplishment and intention to leave" (p. 8564). The findings also pointed that faculty members with higher satisfaction levels were less inclined to leave their institution or their profession. The research also indicated that faculty member age, job title, and tenure factors are influential on intention to leave.

In the following sections, IT industry in Turkey and IT professionals will be discussed.

2.8. IT Industry in Turkey

IT market in Turkey is one of the fastest developing markets in Europe. The size of Turkish IT market is forecasted to increase from 7.7 billion US\$ in 2011 to 13.8 billion US\$ by 2015. Turkey has a 73 million population, which is relatively young. Moreover, small and medium-sized enterprises (SMEs) create a sizable potential market. Furthermore, many e-government projects are under way in Turkey. Computer penetration is expected to reach about 50% by 2015 in Turkey. The Turkish IT market is forecasted to have a compound annual growth rate (CAGR) of 15% during 2011-2015 (Turkey Information Technology Report, 2011).

According to T.R. Prime Ministry State Planning Organization's Information Society Statistics of Turkey (2011) report, Turkish IT market size is 7.57 billion US \$ for 2010. The industry has three sub categories: Hardware, software, and services. The hardware category

has the biggest market size with 6.08 billion US\$, followed by services (0.91 billion US \$) and software (0.58 US \$) categories. However, the share of the IT sector within the Turkey's Gross Domestic Product (GDP) was 1.03% in 2010. This is below the ratio of 1.87% targeted for 2010.

Turkey's large market size makes it attractive to IT vendors. In addition, the country's cultural and geographical position as a hub between Europe and the Middle East increases the importance Turkish IT market. Reflecting the growing importance of Turkish IT market, many international corporations (such as IBM, Oracle, Accenture, HP, SAP and Siemens) have Turkish subsidiaries employing a large number of professionals (Turkey Information Technology Report, 2011). Employment in Turkish IT industry can be expected to increase as the market size increases.

Organization for Economic Co-operation and Development (OECD) Factbook 2010 gives information about the size of information and communication technology (ICT) sector in OECD countries (OECD, 2010). There are 34 members of OECD as of 2012 and Turkey is one of these member countries (Members and Partners, 2012). ICT employment (ICT specialists) is defined as employees whose jobs are directly focused on ICT such as software engineers (OECD, 2010). OECD defines ICT sector as "combination of manufacturing and services industries that capture, transmit and display data and information electronically" (Annex 1, p. 81). In 2010, ICT specialists' employment accounted for 1.7% (belongs to Turkey) and 5.4% (belongs to Sweden) of total employment of the OECD countries with available data. Over 1995-2010, this share has risen in most countries, even though there is stagnation of employment in the ICT sector (OECD, 2010).

Deloitte Technology Fast50 program ranks technology companies according to their revenue performance over the last five years. According to 2011 Turkey edition of this report, Istanbul has the highest number of fast growing companies with 35, while 14 of the companies are from Ankara, and one company is from Kocaeli (Deloitte Technology Fast50 program, 2011).

Moreover, Deloitte offers Technology Fast50 Turkey CEO Survey, based on the inputs from the CEOs of fast growing technology companies. In 2011, most of the surveyed CEOs in Fast50 Turkey Program (94 %) expected their workforce to grow within the next

year. The majority (44 %) expected a 1-25% workforce growth. 19 % of the CEOs indicated that their companies would grow by more than 50 %. “Finding, hiring, and retaining qualified employees is still the biggest operational challenge in Turkey” (Deloitte Technology Fast50 program, 2011, p. 52) to manage the rapid growth. The survey points that this situation has gained more importance within the last three years. Selecting high quality employees and training them are costly for organizations. Moreover, the findings show that the biggest personal issue for CEOs is developing leaders and delegating responsibility (Deloitte Technology Fast50 program, 2011). These statements underline the importance of this current research on Turkish IT professionals.

2.9. Information Technology (IT) Professionals

Effective management of information technology (IT) human capital can lead to distinctive competencies for organizations. Highly motivated IT employees who have firm-relevant IT knowledge and competence are key to a high performing IT unit (Ross et. al, 1995). Information technology is defined as “any equipment or interconnected of system (subsystem) of equipment that includes all forms of technology used to create, store, manipulate, manage, move, display, switch, interchange, transmit or receive information in its various forms” (OECD, 2003, p. 166). Information technology professional can be described as “an individual who participates in the design, development, implementation, support or management of computer-based information systems, particularly software applications and computer hardware” (Marchewka, 2006 in Rose, 2009, p. 9). IT professional job functions include positions such as Information System (IS) Professional, Programmer, Developer, and Software Engineer (Maudgalya et al., 2006).

IT professionals are chosen as the focus of this study since they have characteristics that differ from those in other professions (Armstrong et al., 2007). IT professionals are highly skilled employees. In general, IT professionals have high level of intelligence and education, and demand very competitive wages (Maudgalya et al., 2006). IT professionals “have a strong need for growth and personal development compared to professionals in other occupations” (Lee, 2000, p. 102). IT employees “possess a high need for learning and they have a strong desire to be challenged” (Lee, 2000, p. 102). IT attracts “the type of individual that thrives on being challenged, working hard and long, and engaging in self-motivation”

(Ivancevich et al., 1985, p. 79). Peterson (1987 in Thite, 2006) stated that IT professionals exhibit certain distinguishing characteristics such as youth, mobility, short tenure, adaptability to change, and sensitivity to their work since they see it as an extension of their personality. “Like other knowledge workers, IT personnel look forward to autonomy, challenging tasks, immediate and frequent feedback and rewards, ownership of ideas and enterprise, commitment to profession more than organization, teamwork/community of practices, de-bureaucratized work environment, and an open, consultative, fun-loving organizational culture” (Thite, 2006, p. 77). Moreover, IT employees generally work in teams, and there are different forms of conflicts they need to respond (Godse and Thingujam, 2010). IT careers, more than most other professions, demand long hours, travel and constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). In such a demanding job environment, employee outcomes such as employee compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit are crucially important. Furthermore, qualified IT personnel are an important resource for organizations; thus, IT professionals’ intentions to leave their organizations need special attention. Because of the reasons listed above, IT professionals are chosen as the subject of this study.

If we look at the work environment of IT professionals, we can see that in IT projects, the people involved come from diverse backgrounds and have different skill sets. With the purpose of providing different perspectives in IT projects, many companies hire graduates of mathematics or business departments other than computer sciences or information technology. It is also rare for technical specialists to stay with the same company for a long time. In fact, many projects include a large number of contract workers. In addition, although significant steps have been taken in the IT work place, the work environment continues to be a masculine one (Meraz, 2008). Moreover, increased globalization, outsourcing, and virtual teams have affected the way many IT projects are staffed and directed (Schwalbe, 2011).

Furthermore, organizations continue to underline IT to aid them compete. Therefore, IT professionals need to deal with an increasing number of issues. This focus on IT initiatives usually requires longer work hours and constant support (Messersmith, 2007). Increased market pressures, long and not fixed work hours, lack of distinction between work and home life, tight deadlines, budgetary limitations that frequently lead to under-staffing and therefore over-working, and managerial policies that does not have an understanding of the IT

operations are among stress factors affecting today's IT work environment (Maudgalya et al., 2006).

3. PROPOSED MODEL OF THE RESEARCH AND THE HYPOTHESES

This chapter presents the study conceptual model based on a review of the literature. It also introduces the research hypotheses that are tested in this study.

3.1. The Relationship Between Bases of Leader Power and Subordinate Compliance

Schwarzwalld et al.'s (2001) study on 40 Israeli police captains and 240 police officers found that police officers (subordinates) were more willing to comply with soft instead of harsh power bases. Moreover, officers who worked for high transformational captains had a higher tendency to comply with both harsh and soft power bases compared to colleagues who worked for low transformational captains (Schwarzwalld et al., 2001).

Soranastaporn's (2001) research on 551 faculty members at a Thailand public university examined the relationship between department chairs' power bases and the empowerment, compliance, and conflict perceived by the faculty members. The study results showed that among the power bases expert power had the most influence, followed by legitimate power and referent power. The results also indicated that reward power and coercive power were not effective regarding to influence. Expert power caused both attitudinal and behavioral compliance while legitimate power caused just behavioral compliance. In addition, although referent power created attitudinal compliance, it also created conflict. Reward power did not create compliance but created empowerment while coercive power did not create compliance but created conflict.

Palenzuela's (2001) research investigated the relationship between prekindergarten teachers and their educational specialist, according to teachers' perspectives. Moreover, the influence of the teachers' perceptions on the High/Scope prekindergarten program quality was examined. "The High/Scope educational specialists use their leader power bases (reward, coercive, legitimate, referent, expert and informational) to influence teachers' perceptions of satisfaction and compliance" (p. vi), in addition to teachers' actual compliance with the standards of the High/Scope program. The results indicated that "expert, legitimate, referent, and informational power bases of the High/Scope educational specialist were found to be the most influential on attitudinal and behavioral compliance of teachers" (p. vi).

Rahim's (1989) research with 476 U.S. sample of managers showed that bases of expert and referent power were positively related to behavioral compliance with supervisor's wishes. In addition, legitimate power was positively related with behavioral compliance but negatively related with satisfaction with supervision.

Rahim and Buntzman (1989) conducted a study on 301 American business administration students who had at least 1-year full-time job experience with their current supervisors. The findings pointed that supervisor legitimate power was positively related to employee behavioral and attitudinal compliance; referent power was positively related to satisfaction with supervision; integrating CMS was positively associated with attitudinal and behavioral compliance and satisfaction with supervision; obliging conflict handling style was positively related to attitudinal compliance; and compromising style was negatively associated with behavioral compliance.

Rahim and Afza's (1993) research on 308 American accountants showed that expert and referent power bases were positively related to attitudinal compliance while referent and legitimate bases of power were positively related to behavioral compliance.

Rahim et al.'s (1994b) research on 459 U.S. and 625 South Korean managers showed that "whereas the U.S. managers reported relatively more position than personal power base, S. Korean managers reported relatively more personal than position power base" (p. 136). The study results indicated a significant influence of reward power on behavioral compliance and satisfaction with supervision in the S. Korean sample. However, this significant influence was not found in the U.S. sample.

Moreover, Afza's (2005) research on 353 manufacturing employees in India found that bases of expert and referent power positively affected attitudinal compliance. In addition, bases of legitimate and expert power positively affected behavioral compliance.

Based on a literature review, Rahim and Buntzman (1989) concluded that expert, referent, and to some degree, legitimate power bases in general cause compliance from subordinates. The authors added that subordinates perceive coercive and reward power bases as weak compliance reasons. Rahim (1989) stated that the lack of consistent associations between power bases and compliance might be partially related to the measurement and sampling inadequacies. In light of the literature review described above, in this current study,

it will be hypothesized that expert and referent power bases have a positive influence on subordinate behavioral and attitudinal compliance. Legitimate power base is expected to positively influence behavioral and attitudinal compliance. The following hypotheses are formulated related to bases of leader power and subordinate compliance:

Hypothesis 1a and 1b- Supervisors' legitimate power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (1a), and attitudinal compliance (1b).

Hypothesis 2a and 2b- Supervisors' expert power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (2a), and attitudinal compliance (2b).

Hypothesis 3a and 3b- Supervisors' referent power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (3a), and attitudinal compliance (3b).

3.2. The Relationship Between Leader Styles of Handling Conflict and Subordinate Compliance

There is a limited number of studies investigating the relationship between leader styles of handling conflict with subordinates and employee compliance. As stated above, one of these researches belongs to Rahim and Buntzman (1989). This study is conducted on 301 American business administration students and found that integrating CMS was positively associated with attitudinal and behavioral compliance; obliging conflict handling style was positively associated with attitudinal compliance; and compromising style was negatively associated with behavioral compliance. Furthermore, as stated earlier in this research, former studies have indicated that cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising), which focus on satisfying others' concerns, generally produced positive outcomes on subordinates.

Therefore, it will be hypothesized in this research that supervisors' integrating CMS positively influences subordinate behavioral and attitudinal compliance. Supervisors' obliging CMS is expected to positively influence subordinate attitudinal compliance. In addition, it will be hypothesized that supervisors' compromising CMS negatively influences behavioral compliance.

Avoiding style involves "low concern for self and for others" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). This is a passive CMS associated with ignoring the conflict or denying that it exists (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Dominating style involves "high concern for self and low

concern for others” (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). This style “has been identified with win-lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one’s position” (Rahim et al., 2002, p. 307). Dominating style can help a person achieve individual goals, but as with avoiding style, dominating style is likely to result in an unfavorable evaluation by others (Singh, 2012). In addition, as stated above, former researches have indicated that uncooperative CMS (dominating and avoiding), which ignore the needs of others, are associated with negative job outcomes (Chan et al., 2008). Thus, in this research, it is hypothesized that dominating and avoiding styles negatively influence attitudinal compliance.

The following research hypotheses are formulated between styles of handling conflict with subordinates and employee compliance:

Hypothesis 6a and 6b- Supervisors’ integrating CMS (conflict management style) positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (6a), attitudinal compliance (6b).

Hypothesis 7a- Supervisors’ obliging CMS positively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance.

Hypothesis 8a- Supervisors’ compromising CMS negatively influences behavioral compliance.

Hypothesis 9a- Supervisors’ avoiding CMS negatively influences attitudinal compliance.

Hypothesis 10a- Supervisors’ dominating CMS negatively influences attitudinal compliance.

3.3. The Relationship Between Bases of Leader Power and Subordinate Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Munduate and Dorado’s (1998) study had 78 participants from a variety of Spanish organizations. The findings pointed that supervisors’ referent power bases positively affected subordinates’ co-operative behavior (operationalized as an integrating CMS) and organizational commitment.

Altinkurt and Yılmaz’s (2012) research aimed to examine the association between school administrators’ organizational power bases and teachers’ OCB in primary schools. 275 participants participated to the study. Primary school teachers perceived that the administrators used legitimate power most frequently and then these following power bases

respectively: Expert, coercive, referent, and reward power. “When administrators’ power sources were collectively considered, there was a moderate positive correlation between the teachers’ views about organizational citizenship behaviors and administrators’ power sources” (p. 1843). However, when the other variables were analyzed, no association was found between the power bases and OCB except for coercive power and OCB (a moderate positive association was found between coercive power and OCB). The authors indicated that the research results need to be evaluated within this context: The schools in this study were all state primary schools. The authors stated that the administrators are not teachers’ employers; thus, the administrators are not able to use the means of pressure discussed in the literature, such as implications for pay rises. In such cases, teachers may start a legal procedure. Therefore, school administrators may use coercive power as informal verbal warnings in case of teachers’ mistakes.

As for the association between bases of leader power and subordinate OCB, Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 533) indicated that “when employees are not indifferent to the rewards made available by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders control those rewards, and when their leaders administer rewards contingent upon performance, organizational citizenship behavior increases”. Research suggests that coercive power is generally negatively associated or not associated to functional subordinate outcomes such as subordinate performance, satisfaction with supervisor, and job satisfaction (Podsakoff and Schriesheim, 1985). Jahangir et al. (2006) conducted a study on 195 middle-level and top-level employees of a bank in Bangladesh. This research found that the employees’ perception of their managers’ expert power is positively associated with employee OCB. In addition, it was seen that employees who have high job satisfaction also have higher OCB (Jahangir et al., 2006).

Because of the literature review given above, in this current research, it will be hypothesized that employees’ perceptions of supervisory reward, expert, and referent power positively influence IT professional OCB. It will also be hypothesized that supervisors’ coercive power negatively influences employees’ OCB. The following hypotheses are formulated between bases of leader power and subordinate OCB:

Hypothesis 2c- Supervisors' expert power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 3c- Supervisors' referent power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 4a- Supervisors' reward power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 5b- Supervisors' coercive power negatively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

3.4. The Relationship Between Leader Styles of Handling Conflict and Subordinate Organizational Citizenship Behavior

There is a limited number of studies that investigate the relationship between supervisors' CMS and subordinate OCB. Zellars et al.'s (2002) research was conducted on 373 Air National Guard members and their supervisors to examine the association between subordinates' perceptions of abusive supervision and supervisors' evaluations of OCB. The outcomes pointed that subordinates of abusive supervisors demonstrate fewer OCBs than nonabused subordinates.

Moreover, Alper et al.'s (2000) study investigated conflict management literature with research on efficacy and organizational teams. The sample consisted of 61 self-managing teams with 489 employees from the production department of an electronic manufacturer. The findings indicated that cooperative instead of competitive approach to conflict led to conflict efficacy⁵, which in turn resulted in effective performance (measured by managers).

In addition, Salami's (2010) study investigated the relationship between CMS and OCB, and the moderating influence of trait Emotional Intelligence (EI). 320 public servants in southwestern Nigeria participated to the research. The outcomes showed that forcing (competing) and withdrawing (avoiding) strategies negatively and significantly influenced OCB. However, confronting (collaborating), compromising, and smoothing strategies positively and significantly influenced OCB. In addition, trait EI had a moderating role on the association between OCB and forcing and withdrawing CMS.

⁵ Conflict efficacy: The belief of team members that their team can deal with conflict situations (Alper et al., 2000).

As stated before in this study, former studies have indicated that cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising), which focus on satisfying others' concerns, generally produced positive outcomes on subordinates. However, uncooperative CMS (dominating and avoiding), which ignore the others' needs, are associated with negative job outcomes (Chan et al., 2008).

In accordance with the literature review stated above, the following hypotheses are formulated between supervisors' CMS (conflict management styles) and subordinate organizational citizenship behavior:

Hypothesis 6c- Supervisors' integrating CMS positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 7b- Supervisors' obliging CMS positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 8c- Supervisors' compromising CMS positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 9b- Supervisors' avoiding CMS negatively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

Hypothesis 10b- Supervisors' dominating CMS negatively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior.

3.5. The Relationship Between Bases of Leader Power and Subordinate Intention to Quit

About the relationship between supervisors' bases of leader power and subordinate intention to quit, Busch's (1980) research on 477 sales people indicated that with one exception (except for reward power) sales managers' noncoercive sources of power were negatively related with intention to quit. The study also found that coercive power base was positively, although not at a statistically significant level, related to intention to leave (Busch, 1980).

Afza's (2005) research on 353 manufacturing employees in India found that coercive power positively affected propensity to leave. In addition, reward, expert, and referent power bases negatively affected propensity to leave. It was also seen that legitimate power was unrelated to intention to leave. Afza (2005) indicated that generally former studies indicated

that personal power bases (e.g. expert and referent power) negatively affected intention to leave.

According to the literature review discussed above, in this current study, it is expected that supervisors' expert, referent, and reward power have negative influence on employee intention to leave. In addition, it is expected that supervisors' coercive power positively influences intention to leave. The following hypotheses are formulated about the relationship between bases of leader power and subordinate intention to quit:

Hypothesis 2d- Supervisors' expert power negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

Hypothesis 3d- Supervisors' referent power negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

Hypothesis 4b- Supervisors' reward power negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

Hypothesis 5a- Supervisors' coercive power positively influences subordinate intention to quit.

3.6. The Relationship Between Leader Styles of Handling Conflict and Subordinate Intention to Quit

Chan et al.'s (2008) research on 169 Chinese employees examined the mediating role of trust on the relationship between supervisors' CMS and employee attitudinal outcomes (namely job satisfaction and turnover intention). It was seen that integrating style was related to employee job satisfaction and turnover intention. Different from the results of many Western studies, the relationship between uncooperative CMS (avoiding and dominating) and employee negative job outcomes was not found in this study. Supervisors' uncooperative CMS did not decrease subordinate job satisfaction or increase turnover intention. The authors suggested that such result might be related to Chinese culture (Chan et al., 2008). Compared to Western cultures, China has a higher power distance (Hofstede, 2001). "With the cultural tradition of Confucianism, which legitimizes the superior's absolute power and authority over inferiors under paternalistic leadership style, Chinese employees have developed a higher tolerance for authoritarian leadership and inequalities and are more willing to show absolute obedience towards superior" ("Cheng et al., 2000; Farh and Cheng, 2000" in Chan et al.,

2008, p. 291). Such cultural difference might be effective in Chan et al.'s (2008) research result that the relationship between uncooperative CMS (avoiding and dominating) and subordinates' negative job outcomes of was not confirmed.

As stated before in this research, former studies have indicated that cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising), which focus on satisfying others' concerns, generally produced positive outcomes on subordinates. However, uncooperative CMS (dominating and avoiding), which ignore others' needs, are associated with negative job outcomes (Chan et al., 2008). Thus, in this research, it will be hypothesized that integrating, obliging, and compromising CMS negatively influence intention to quit.

As detailed above, different from the results of many Western studies, Chan et al.'s (2008) research indicated that the relationship between uncooperative CMS (avoiding and dominating) and the negative job outcomes of subordinates was not confirmed. Like Chinese culture, Turkish culture is high on power distance (Hofstede, 1980). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner's (1998) study on understanding cultural diversity among 38 nations pointed that "Turkey to have the steepest hierarchy in its organizations, indicating the subordination of employees to their leaders" (in Paşa et al., 2001, p. 568-569). Thus, the possible hypotheses about the negative influence of avoiding and dominating CMS on subordinate intention to quit will not be constructed in this study. The following hypotheses are formulated between supervisors' conflict management styles and subordinate intention to quit:

Hypothesis 6d- Supervisors' integrating CMS negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

Hypothesis 7c- Supervisors' obliging CMS negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

Hypothesis 8b- Supervisors' compromising CMS negatively influences subordinate intention to quit.

3.7. Research Hypotheses

As detailed earlier in this study, the following study hypotheses are formulated:

Table 3-1: Research Hypotheses

	Hypothesis
Bases of Leader Power- Employee Outcomes	Hypothesis 1- Supervisors' legitimate power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (1a), and attitudinal compliance (1b).
	Hypothesis 2- Supervisors' expert power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (2a), attitudinal compliance (2b), and organizational citizenship behavior (2c), and negatively influences intention to quit (2d).
	Hypothesis 3- Supervisors' referent power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (3a), attitudinal compliance (3b), and organizational citizenship behavior (3c), and negatively influences intention to quit (3d).
	Hypothesis 4- Supervisors' reward power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior (4a), and negatively influences intention to quit (4b).
	Hypothesis 5- Supervisors' coercive power positively influences subordinate intention to quit (5a), and negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior (5b).
Handling Conflict- Employee Outcomes	Hypothesis 6- Supervisors' integrating CMS (conflict management style) positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (6a), attitudinal compliance (6b), and organizational citizenship behavior (6c), and negatively influences intention to quit (6d).
	Hypothesis 7- Supervisors' obliging CMS positively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (7a), and organizational citizenship behavior (7b), and negatively influences intention to quit (7c).
	Hypothesis 8- Supervisors' compromising CMS negatively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (8a), and intention to quit (8b), and positively influences organizational citizenship behavior (8c).
	Hypothesis 9- Supervisors' avoiding CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (9a), and organizational citizenship behavior (9b).
	Hypothesis 10- Supervisors' dominating CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (10a), and organizational citizenship behavior (10b).

Figure 3-1 shows the research model. In this model, leader power bases and styles of handling conflict are independent variables while the employee outcomes are dependent variables. This is the revised research model according to the pilot study mediation analysis results, which will be described in Section 4.6.

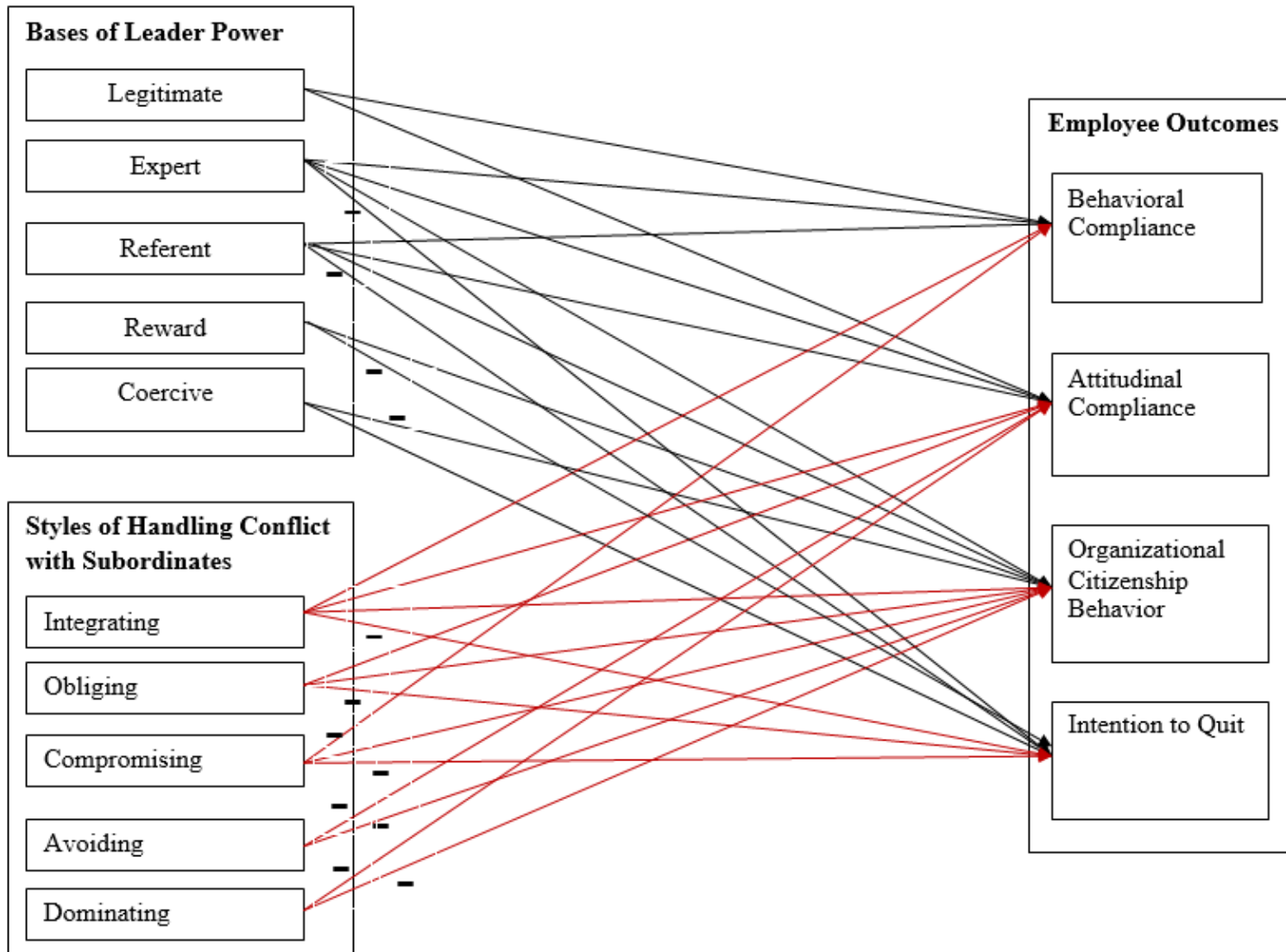


Figure 3-1: Summary of Hypothesized Relationships

4. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

In this chapter, the research design, including data sampling procedures and the study measures, will be detailed.

4.1. Research Design

Quantitative research was employed in this study. Hypothesis testing was used to find out whether the hypotheses deserve acceptance or rejection. This study is cross-sectional. Questionnaire method was chosen as the appropriate data collection method. The model was tested via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software.

4.2. Sampling Method

The target population of this study is Turkey's information technology professionals. Nonprobability sampling techniques of convenience and snowball sampling were employed to collect data. In convenience sampling, researchers recruit participants that are easy for them to reach (Gravetter and Forzano, 2009). In snowball sampling, early sample members are requested to refer to others who meet the research eligibility criteria (Loiselle et al., 2010). According to Cooper and Schindler (2003), factors such as non availability of the population, or high costs might lead researchers to use nonprobability sampling techniques. Or, the researcher might not be aiming a true cross-sectional study. In such cases, researchers might find advantages in using nonprobability sampling techniques such as convenience, judgment, or quota sampling (Cooper and Schindler, 2003). In this study, convenience and snowball sampling techniques were employed to increase the number of participants and to reach a variety of IT professionals employed in different industries.

4.3. Sample Size

Roscoe (1975 in Sekaran, 2003) stated that, as a rule of thumb, sample sizes more than 30 and less than 500 are suitable for most studies. "From the factor analysis perspective, each item of a scale requires the minimum number of 5 to 10 subjects" (Fayers and Machin, 2007 in Tran, 2009, p. 39). If a questionnaire consists of several standardized scales, the scale with the largest number of items or questions can be used as a guide to determine the sample size (Tran, 2009). In this research, the longest scale is Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI), which has 29 items. Thus, a minimum sample size of 290 was aimed for the study ($29 \times 10 = 290$).

In total, 353 Turkish IT professionals participated to the survey over a period of two months. This total is above the minimum sample size that was aimed in this study. Of the people who started the questionnaire, 72.5 % of them finished it until the end. Partially completed surveys by the respondents were not used in the study.

4.4. Data Collection Procedures

Questionnaires in Turkish were distributed to collect data from IT professionals. The questionnaire (in Turkish) that was used in this research is given in Appendix C. The questionnaire was placed in a survey web site. The questionnaire was distributed online to reach IT professionals from a variety of industries and because of its convenience to the participants. It should be noted that IT professionals are considered internet users because it is related to their profession.

The online distribution of the questionnaire might also have benefits in assuring the confidentiality of responses compared to distributing paper questionnaires in organizations. There were questions in the survey asking the participants about their intention to leave and asking them to evaluate their leaders' behavior and attitude. Thus, the respondents might not have felt comfortable in filling in paper questionnaires at work.

The survey link was sent to the participants along with an invitation text. The invitation to the survey included the purpose of the study briefly and assured the confidentiality of responses. The invitation text is given in Appendix A. The survey invitation was sent to contacts working in various IT organizations in Turkey and these contacts distributed the invitation within their organizations. The invitation to the survey was also posted to email groups or an online networking site's (LinkedIn) groups of Turkish IT industry professional associations (such as Turkish Informatics Industry Association- "TÜBİSAD Bilişim Sanayicileri Derneği" and Turkish Informatics Association- TBD "Türkiye Bilişim Derneği"). In addition, the invitation was posted to several Turkish online email groups that have IT professional participants (such as Information Technology Professionals- "Bilişim Çalışanları" and Software Engineers- "Yazılım Mühendisliği" Google Groups). The link was also posted to LinkedIn groups related to IT (LinkedIn groups such as Chamber of Computer Engineers- "Bilgisayar Mühendisleri Odası" and IT Professionals and Executives- a subgroup of Turkish Business Network).

Before distributing the questionnaire, a pilot study on 153 IT professionals was conducted. The details about the pilot study will be presented in this chapter.

4.5. Measurement Scales

The questionnaire has six sections. In the beginning of the survey, the purpose of the study was explained, and the confidentiality of the answers was assured. In section 1, organization citizenship behavior scale; in section 2, intention to quit items; in section 3, leader power base items; in section 4, handling conflict with subordinates scale; in section 5, compliance with superior's wishes items were listed. Demographics questions were listed in the end of the questionnaire.

4.5.1. Bases of Leader Power

To measure IT professionals' perceptions about their supervisors' sources of power, Rahim's (1988) scale was chosen. In assessing power bases according to French and Raven's (1959) model, two instruments that are previously designed belong to Bachman et al. (1966) and Student (1968). Rahim (1988) stated that "both the instruments use single items to measure power bases" (p. 491). Rahim (1986) indicated that the subscales of these instruments have little or no convergent validity. In addition, the instruments have poor content validity (Rahim, 1988). To correct the deficiencies of these instruments, Rahim designed the Leader Power Inventory. This is a multi-item scale with factorially independent subscales that measure five supervisory power bases (Rahim, 1988).

Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RPPI) (Rahim, 1988) has 29 items. Rahim and Afza's (1993) research became an evidence for the RLPI scale's construct and criterion validities. The instrument will be given in Appendix B. Representative items include: "My superior has a pleasing personality", "I approach my superior for advice on work-related problems because she (he) is usually right", "My superior's position entitles her (him) to expect support of her (his) policies from me". The instrument has five subscales: coercive (items: 2, 9, 14, 16, 20); reward (items: 4, 11, 15, 22, 27, 28); legitimate (items: 6, 8, 13, 23, 26, 29); expert (items: 3, 5, 7, 10, 17, 18); and referent (items: 1, 12, 19, 21, 24, 25). The reverse items in the questionnaire are 10, 12, 15, 23, 25. The translation of the questionnaire was done by the researcher. Acar's (2009) Turkish translation of the instrument was used in

this translation as a resource. In this current study, the Cronbach's Alpha coefficient was found as .891 for the instrument.

4.5.2. Styles of Handling Conflict with Subordinates

To measure subordinates' perceptions of supervisors' CMS with subordinates, Rahim's (1983) scale was used. Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) has 28 items. ROCI-II scale will be given in Appendix B. This scale was altered to measure subordinates' perceptions. For instance, "I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us" item from the original questionnaire was modified as "My supervisor tries to investigate an issue with us to find a solution acceptable to us". This alteration in wording to measure subordinates' perspective has been used by other several other studies such as Rahim and Buntzman (1989) and Chan et al. (2008). Sample items from the instrument are "My supervisor generally tries to satisfy the needs of my subordinates", "My supervisor uses his/her expertise to make a decision in his/her favor", "My supervisor tries to avoid unpleasant exchanges with his/her subordinates".

ROCI-II instrument is widely used and it has five independent dimensions that represent interpersonal conflict: integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. In Rahim and Buntzman's (1989) study, the Cronbach's Alphas for subscales ranged between 0.64 and 0.87. Rahim and Magner's (1995) research with five different samples supported the convergent and discriminant validities of the scale. In this current research, a Cronbach's Alpha coefficient of .893 was obtained for the ROCI-II scale.

In the questionnaire, the subscales have following items: Integrating style (items 1, 4, 5, 12, 22, 23, 28); obliging style (items: 2, 10, 11, 13, 19, 24); dominating style (items 8, 9, 18, 21, 25); avoiding style (items 3, 6, 16, 17, 26, 27); compromising style (items 7, 14, 15, 20). The translation of the instrument is done by the researcher. In addition, Şirin's (2008) Turkish translation of the instrument was used as a resource.

4.5.3. Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes

Rahim's (1988) Behavioral and Attitudinal Compliance with Superior's Wishes Scale (CSWS) was used in this study. The scale has satisfactory construct and criterion validities (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989). CSWS will be given in Appendix B. Representative items

include: “I like to do what my superior suggests”, “I follow the work-procedures set up by my superior”.

The scale has 10 items. Five items (2, 3, 6, 7, and 9) form a subscale for attitudinal compliance. The other five items (1, 4, 5, 8, and 10) form a subscale for behavioral compliance. The reverse items in the questionnaire are 3, 6, and 7. The translation was done by the researcher.

In section 5 of this study, the evaluation of the pilot study results will be listed. After the pilot study, it was seen that Turkish translations of some items in “compliance with supervisor’s wishes” scale have very similar meanings. Thus, scale item 1 (I follow my superior’s orders) and item 3 (I prefer not to comply with my superior’s instructions) were taken out of further study. The final instrument has 8 items. The details of why these items were chosen will be listed in this chapter. In this current research, the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient was found as .870 for the modified compliance with superior’s wishes scale.

4.5.4. Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Researchers have used various scales to measure organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). In this research, Podsakoff et al.’s (1997) scale was used. OCB will be measured by three widely recognized dimensions: Helping behavior, civic virtue, and sportsmanship (Podsakoff, et al., 1997; Podsakoff and MacKenzie, 1997). “The measures of helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue were based on the conceptual work of Organ (1998, 1990), and empirical research of MacKenzie et al. (1991, 1993), Podsakoff and MacKenzie (1994), and Podsakoff et al. (1990)” (in Podsakoff et al., 1997, p. 264). Podsakoff, et al. (1997) measured the self-reported behavior related ratings of respondents with their OCB scale. In that study, as a result of the analysis, it was seen that the Cronbach’s Alpha values for OCB subscales were ranged between 0.88 and 0.96. MacKenzie et al. (1999) stated that previous empirical research supported the hypothesized three-factor (helping behavior, sportsmanship, and civic virtue) structure and the constructs passed tests of discriminant validity. In this current study, a Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient of .806 was obtained for the OCB instrument.

The scale has 13 items and 3 subscales: Helping (items 1-7), civic virtue (items 8-10), and sportsmanship (items 11-13). Items 11, 12, and 13 are reverse scored. This scale will be

listed in Appendix B. Sample items from the instrument are “I help out others who fall behind in their work”, “I willingly share my expertise with others”, “I try to act like a peacemaker when others have disagreements”. Imer’s (2009) Turkish translation of the instrument was used in this study as a resource. Some changes were made on the Imer’s (2009) Turkish translation by the researcher.

4.5.5. Intention to Quit

Various scales have been used by researchers to measure intention to quit construct. Colarelli’s (1984) scale was chosen for this research. McNall et al. (2010), using the same instrument, achieved a Cronbach’s Alpha value of 0.80. Udechukwu and Mujtaba (2007), using the scale, achieved a reliability estimate of 0.89. Boon et al. (2011) received a Cronbach’s Alpha value of .87. In this current research, the Cronbach’s Alpha coefficient was found as .785 for the intention to quit scale.

The survey instrument has three items, and its second item is reverse scored. The translation of the instrument was done by the researcher. The scale items are “I frequently think of quitting my job”, “If I have my own way, I will be working in my current employer one year from now”, “I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months”.

All scales were translated from English to Turkish. The translations of the scales were examined by two bilingual academicians, and the items were reverse translated to compare English and Turkish versions. Corrections were then done to make the questionnaire more understandable. The responses were anchored on a 6-item Likert scale (completely disagree = 1, completely agree = 6).

Table 4-1 lists the summary of measures used in the study. In addition to these items, 8 demographic questions were asked. In total, the survey has 89 items.

Table 4-1: Summary of Measures

Variable	Measure	Number of items
Bases of Leader Power	Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI) (Rahim, 1988)	29
Styles of Handling Conflict with Subordinates	Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) (Rahim, 1983)	28
Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes	Behavioral and Attitudinal Compliance with Superior's Wishes Scale (CSWS) (Rahim, 1988) (a modified version of this scale was used)	8
Organizational Citizenship Behavior	Podsakoff et al. (1997)	13
Intention to Quit	Colarelli (1984)	3

4.5.6. Demographic Variables

Respondents were also asked to provide information about themselves and the organization they work. Demographic questions that were asked: Gender, age, highest level of education obtained, marital status, organization industry category, level in the organizational hierarchy (top management, middle management, nonsupervisory employees), tenure in the company (in years), and job experience (in years).

The industry category of organizations in which participants work was asked as an open-ended question. Then, the answers to this question were categorized by the researcher based on Eurostat (the statistical office of the European Union)'s NACE Rev. 2-statistical classification of economic activities in the European Community (European Communities, 2008). The industry list is given in Appendix D. Some of the industries in the NACE Rev. 2-statistical classification are education, manufacturing, constructions, and financial activities..

4.6. Pilot Study

In this section, the pilot study procedures and the related data analysis results will be detailed.

4.6.1. Pilot Study Procedures

Before distributing the questionnaire, a pilot study was conducted. Pilot studies are important ways to determine “the feasibility and usefulness of the data collection methods” (Mackey and Gass, 2005, p. 35). With the use of pilot studies, necessary revisions can be done before used with research participants (Mackey and Gass, 2005). Pilot studies may be particularly important for researches that are based on the self-completion of a questionnaire because in such cases there will not be an interviewer to clear up any confusion (Bryman and Bell, 2007).

In this research, the pilot study questionnaire was distributed online to reach IT professionals from a variety of industries and because of its convenience to the participants. A sample of 153 IT professionals participated to the pilot survey. The participants were reached through personal contacts. The questionnaire was also posted to online discussion groups related to IT. The number of survey items in the pilot study was 91 (including the demographic variable questions). The descriptive statistics of the sample is given in Table 4-2.

Table 4-2: Descriptive Statistics of the Pilot Study

Variable	N	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Gender					
Male	121	79.1			
Female	32	20.9			
Age			29.97	5.84	21-60 years
Marital Status					
Married	72	47.1			
Single	81	52.9			
Education Level					
High School	8	5.2			
University	102	66.7			
Master's	38	24.8			
Ph.D.	5	3.3			
Tenure			3.26	3.17	1-18 years
Total Experience			7.76	6.26	1-40 years
Position					
Top management	5	3.3			
Middle management	42	27.5			
Nonsupervisory employees	106	69.3			

Factor analysis, reliability analysis, multiple regression analysis, and mediation analysis were conducted on the pilot study data.

4.6.2. Pilot Study Mediation Analyses

In the beginning of this study, the research model was conceptualized as given below (Figure 4-1). However, after the pilot study data analysis the research model was revised because of the reasons that will be explained below. The revised research model and summary of hypothesized relationships can be seen in Figure 3-1.

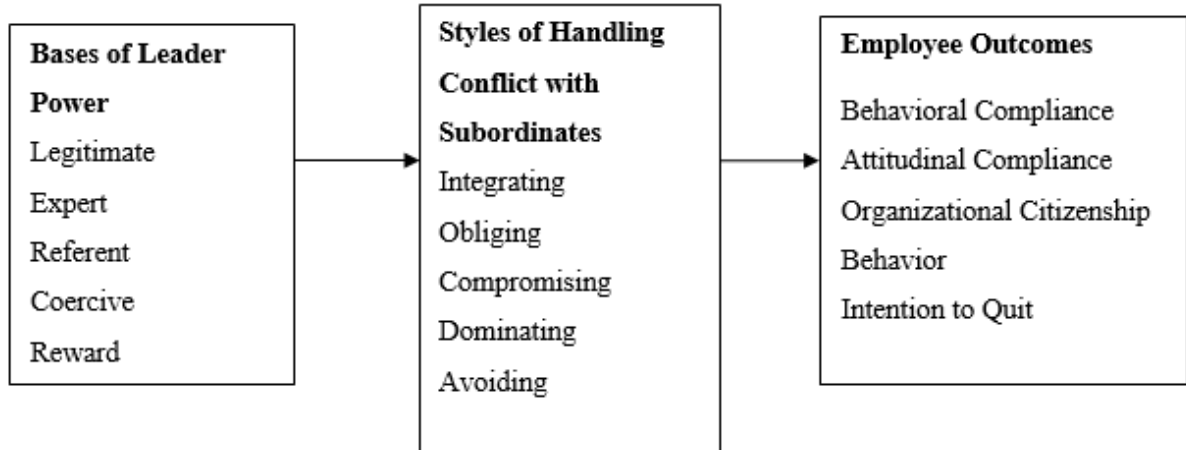


Figure 4-1: Former Research Model

In the beginning of this research, it was hypothesized that styles of handling conflict with subordinates mediate the relationship between leader power bases and the employee outcomes. To test this model, Baron and Kenny’s (1986) three-step procedure was used. According to this procedure, “first, the independent variable must affect the mediator in the first equation; second, the independent variable must be shown to affect the dependent variable in the second equation; and third, the mediator must affect the dependent variable in the third equation. Perfect mediation holds if the independent variable has no effect when the mediator is controlled” (Baron and Kenny, 1986, p. 1177).

The pilot study data were analyzed according to this three-step mediation analysis procedure. The results showed that styles of handling conflict items met the mediation conditions only for this relationship:

Dominating conflict handling style (DS) mediated the relationship between referent power (RP) and attitudinal compliance (AC) as follows: (a) RP predicted DS resulting in RP

beta= $-.566^{**}$, $R^2 = .320^{**}$ (b) RP predicted AC resulting in RP beta= $.248^{**}$, $R^2 = .062^{**}$ (c) DS predicted the effect of AC, DS beta= $-.407^{**}$, $R^2 = .160^{**}$. The effect of RP on AC disappeared after controlling for DS resulting in RP beta= $.026$, DS beta= $-.392^{**}$, $R^2 = .166^{**}$ (Note * = $p < .05$, ** = $p < .01$).

Styles of handling conflict items did not meet the mediation conditions for other tested relationships. Thus, it cannot be hypothesized that styles of handling conflict with subordinates mediates the relationship between leader power bases and the employee outcomes. Then, the research model seen in Figure 4-1 was modified accordingly. The revised research model can be seen in Figure 3-1.

4.6.3. Evaluation of the Pilot Study Results

After the pilot study, data analysis results were examined, and the Turkish translation of the scales was reviewed. Then, Rahim's (1983) "Styles of Handling Conflict with Subordinates" scale, item number 13 was modified.

Furthermore, during the pilot study, participants reported that there were very similar items in "Compliance with Supervisors Wishes" (Rahim, 1988) scale. Turkish translations of the scale items were then reviewed. After the review, it was seen that item number 1 and item 10 had very similar meaning in Turkish. In addition, it was understood that Turkish translations of item number 3 and 7 were very similar in meaning. The factor loadings of these items were checked. As a result of the factor analysis, it was seen that the factor loading of item number 1 is lower than the factor loading of item number 10. It was also seen that the factor loading of item number 3 is lower than the factor loading of item number 7. Thus, scale item 1 (I follow my superior's orders) and item 3 (I prefer not to comply with my superior's instructions) were taken out of further research. The final survey questionnaire consists of a total of 89 items.

5. RESEARCH FINDINGS

This chapter introduces the data analysis outcomes. It also details the results of the hypothesis testing.

The descriptive statistics of the sample is given in Table 5-1. From the table, it can be seen that the participants' mean age was 32.1. 34.8 % of the respondents were female, and 65.2 % of the respondents were male. 49.9 % of the participants were single while 50.1% of the participants were married. Most of the participants had a university degree (66.3 %). The mean of tenure at work was 4.6 years. The mean of total job experience was 9.9 years. Most of the participants are nonsupervisory employees (56.7 %).

Table 5-1: Descriptive Statistics of the Sample

Variable	N	Percentage	Mean	Standard Deviation	Range
Gender					
Male	230	65.2			
Female	123	34.8			
Age			32.1	7.3	21-61 years
Marital Status					
Married	177	50.1			
Single	176	49.9			
Education Level					
High School	17	4.8			
University	234	66.3			
Masters'	99	28.0			
Ph.D.	3	0.8			
Tenure			4.6	5.5	1-35 years
Total Experience			9.9	7.7	1-40 years
Position					
Top management	40	11.3			
Middle management	113	32.0			
Nonsupervisory employees	200	56.7			

The industry category of organizations in which participants work was classified according to Appendix D. The results are given in Table 5-2. From the table, it can be seen that most of the participants work in information and communication industry (44.1 %).

Financial and insurance activities industry follows this with 19.0 %. 44.1 % of participants work in information and communication industry; thus, the subcategories of information and communication industry are also listed in the table.

Table 5-2: Number of IT Employee Participants by Industry

Industries	Frequency	Percent
Manufacturing	43	12.2
Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply	4	1.1
Construction	9	2.5
Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles	18	5.1
Transportation and storage	6	1.7
Accommodation and food service activities	2	0.6
Financial and insurance activities	67	19.0
Real estate activities	1	0.3
Professional, scientific and technical activities	5	1.4
Administrative and support service activities	1	0.3
Public administration and defense; compulsory social security	4	1.1
Education	17	4.8
Human health and social work activities	9	2.5
Other service activities	1	0.3
Information and communication	156	44.1
Programming and broadcasting activities	4	1.1
Telecommunications	34	9.6
Computer programming, consultancy	114	32.3
Information service activities	4	1.1
Missing	10	2.8
Total	353	100.0

5.1. Factor and Reliability Analyses

Principal components analysis (PCA) was conducted at the first step. “The goal of PCA, as with all types of factor analysis, is to reduce a large data set to a small number of general factors that explain most of the variance in the data” (Giles, 2002, p. 122).

Factor analysis using principal components solution with varimax rotation was used to find the factor structure of leader power bases scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .918, showing homogenous structure of variables. Bartlett Test values (.000, *df*:276; Chi-square: 4906.096) indicated that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. Four factors were found, and these factors explained 62.486 % of the total variance. Even though Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI) (Rahim, 1988) has five factors, in this current study, bases of leader power items loaded on four factors. The items belong to expert and referent power loaded on one factor.

In addition, the reliability of the factors was checked. Internal reliability is the degree to which a scale is consistent within itself and it is measured with the alpha coefficient statistic (Houser, 2008). During the data analysis, the reliability of the leader power bases factors was checked. The fifth and sixth factor failed to be reliable; thus, items 24, 12, 8, and 23 belong to these factors were discarded from further analysis. The reliability of the whole scale is found as .891.

As stated earlier, during the factor analysis stage, the items belong to expert and referent power loaded on one factor. This factor was named as ‘expert and referent power’. This situation might be related with the fact that the participants see expert and referent personal power bases as associated. As indicated earlier, expert power is related with the influence a person may have because of expertise, knowledge, or special skill (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Referent power refers to identification with an individual who has desirable resources or personal characteristics (Robbins and Judge, 2009). IT careers, more than most other professions, demand constant updating of skills (Ahuja, 2002). In addition, IT employees “have a strong need for growth and personal development compared to professionals in other occupations” (Lee, 2000, p. 102). Thus, for IT professionals, having expert power might be associated with having referent power, causing these factors to yield in one factor: ‘Expert and referent power’.

Table 5-3 shows the results of the factor analysis for bases of leader power scale and the Cronbach’s Alpha values.

Table 5-3: Results of the Factor Analysis of Bases of Leader Power Scale

Bases of Leader Power (overall) Cronbach's Alpha: .891	Factor Load.
Factor 1: Expert and Referent Power, % variance: 24.114, Cronbach's Alpha: .928	
Q5- When a tough job comes up my superior has the technical "know-how" to get it done.	.815
Q18- My superior has considerable professional experience to draw from in helping me to do my work.	.795
Q10- My superior does <i>not</i> have the expert knowledge I need to perform my job. *	.790
Q17- I prefer to do what my superior suggests because he (she) has high professional expertise.	.752
Q3- I approach my superior for advice on work-related problems because she (he) is usually right.	.733
Q7- My superior has specialized training in his (her) field.	.713
Q1- My superior has a pleasing personality.	.682
Q25- My superior is <i>not</i> the type of person I enjoy working with.*	.679
Q21- I like the personal qualities of my superior.	.677
Factor 2: Reward Power, % variance: 17.683, Cronbach's Alpha: .886	
Q28- My superior can recommend a promotion for me if my performance is consistently above average.	.827
Q27- My superior can get me a bonus for earning a good performance rating.	.801
Q4- My superior can recommend me for a merit recognition if my performance is especially good.	.757
Q22- If I put forth extra effort, my superior can take it into consideration to determine my pay raise.	.721
Q11- My superior can provide opportunities for my advancement if my work is outstanding.	.694
Q15- My superior <i>cannot</i> get me a pay raise even if I do my job well.*	.620
Factor 3: Coercive Power, % variance: 11.618, Cronbach's Alpha: .762	
Q20- My superior can fire me if I neglect my duties.	.842
Q9- My superior can fire me if my performance is consistently below standards.	.781
Q16- My superior can see to it that I get no pay raise if my work is unsatisfactory.	.694
Q14- My superior can suspend me if I am habitually late in coming to work.	.632
Q2- My superior can take disciplinary action against me for insubordination.	.569
Factor 4: Legitimate Power, % variance: 9.071, Cronbach's Alpha: .723	
Q26- I should do what my superior wants because she (he) is my superior.	.804
Q13- My superior's position entitles her (him) to expect support of her (his) policies from me.	.702
Q6- It is reasonable for my superior to decide what he (she) wants me to do.	.627
Q29- My superior has the right to expect me to carry out her (his) instructions.	.581
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value: .918	
Bartlett significance value: .000; <i>df</i> : 276; Chi-square value: 4906.096	

* Reverse-scored items.

Factor analysis was used to find the factor structure of styles of handling conflict with subordinates scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .958, and the results of Bartlett Test values were found as .000, *df*:351, Chi-square: 8551.804. These results indicated that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. Three factors were found, and these factors explained 67.139 % of the total variance. The first factor was composed of items from integrating, compromising, and obliging styles. As stated earlier, conflict

management styles “that are treating other side with moderate to high level of concern, namely integrating, obliging, and compromising, can defined as cooperative conflict management styles; on the other hand, styles in which little concern is shown for the other party, namely avoiding and dominating, are considered as uncooperative conflict management styles” (‘Rahim et al., 2000; Song et al., 2000’ in Milic et al., 2011, p. 549). In this current study, since the first factor was composed of items from integrating, compromising, and obliging styles, it was named as “cooperative style”.

Moreover, the reliability of the scale was checked. Table 5-4 shows the results of the factor analysis for handling conflict with subordinates scale and Cronbach’s Alpha values.

Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) (1983) offered five dimensions that represent interpersonal conflict: Integrating, obliging, dominating, avoiding, and compromising. However, in this study, as a result of factor analysis three dimensions were found. This result might be related with the fact that the study is conducted in Turkish IT professionals. Cultural differences or participants’ occupational differences might be influencing such result. It should also be noted that this study measures participants’ perceptions about their supervisors’. There are other studies on styles of handling conflict conducted in Turkey using ROCI-II. However, in many of these studies either participants evaluated their own conflict management styles [such as Özgan’s (2006) and Kılıç’s (2006) researches] or when the studies asked participants’ perception about their supervisors, factorial analysis was not conducted [such as Polat’s (2008) and Güneş’s (2008) researches]. Therefore, a comparison with these listed former studies conducted in Turkish context and the current research was not done about the factor structure of styles of handling conflict.

Table 5-4: Results of the Factor Analysis of Styles of Handling Conflict with Subordinates Scale

Handling Conflict with Subordinates (overall) Cronbach's Alpha: .893

My supervisor...	Factor Load.
Factor 1: Cooperative Style, % variance: 41.211, Cronbach's Alpha: .973	
Q14- usually proposes a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.	.858
Q23- collaborates with us to come up with decisions acceptable to us.	.856
Q15- negotiates with us so that a compromise can be reached.	.852
Q5- tries to work with us to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.	.845
Q2- generally tries to satisfy the needs of us.	.828
Q4- tries to integrate his/her ideas with those of us to come up with a decision jointly.	.827
Q1- tries to investigate an issue with us to find a solution acceptable to us.	.826
Q28- tries to work with us for a proper understanding of a problem.	.825
Q22- tries to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.	.822
Q12- exchanges accurate information with us to solve a problem together.	.818
Q24- tries to satisfy the expectations of us.	.795
Q7- tries to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.	.788
Q10- accommodates the wishes of us.	.761
Q20- uses "give and take" so that a compromise can be made.	.682
Q19- often goes along with the suggestions of us.	.631
Q11- gives in to the wishes of us.	.553
Factor 2: Avoiding Style, % variance: 13.792, Cronbach's Alpha: .786	
Q16- tries to stay away from disagreement with us.	.835
Q17- avoids an encounter with us.	.790
Q26- tries to keep his/her disagreement with us to himself/herself in order to avoid hard feelings.	.648
Q27- tries to avoid unpleasant exchanges with his/her subordinates.	.567
Q3- attempts to avoid being "put on the spot" and tries to keep his/her conflict with us to himself/herself.	.529
Q13- usually allows concessions to us.	.526
Factor 3: Dominating Style, % variance: 12.136, Cronbach's Alpha: .861	
Q25- sometimes uses his/her power to win a competitive situation.	.769
Q9- uses his/her authority to make a decision in his/her favor.	.726
Q18- uses his/her expertise to make a decision in his/her favor.	.706
Q8- uses his/her influence to get his/her ideas accepted.	.701
Q21- is generally firm in pursuing his/her side of the issue.	.699
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value: .958	
Bartlett significance value: .000; <i>df</i> : 351; Chi-square value: 8551.804	

Factor analysis was used to find the factor structure of organizational citizenship behavior scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .834, and Bartlett Test values as .000, *df*: 78; Chi-square: 1360.827. These results indicated that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. Three factors were found, and these factors explained 55.848 % of the

total variance. Table 5-5 shows the results of the factor analysis for organizational citizenship behavior scale and the Cronbach's Alpha values.

In addition, the reliability of the factors was checked. Factor 3 Cronbach's Alpha value was found as .607. However, it was seen that the questions were quite relevant and created a meaningful factor. Hair et al. (2006) suggested that the lowest acceptable limit for Cronbach's alpha is .60. Thus, factor 3 items were not dropped from the study.

Table 5-5: Results of the Factor Analysis of Organizational Citizenship Behavior Scale

Organizational Citizenship Behavior (overall) Cronbach's Alpha: .806	Factor Load.
Factor 1: Helping, % variance: 22.038, Cronbach's Alpha: .790	
Q4- I take steps to try to prevent problems with coworkers.	.764
Q3-I try to act like a peacemaker when others have disagreements.	.744
Q1-I help out others who fall behind in their work.	.714
Q2-I willingly share my expertise with others.	.600
Q5-I willingly give of my time to help others who have work-related problems.	.565
Factor 2: Civic Virtue, % variance: 20.601, Cronbach's Alpha: .723	
Q10-I attend and actively participate in meetings.	.747
Q9-I am willing to risk disapproval to express my beliefs about what's best for others/organization.	.740
Q8-I provide constructive suggestions about how others can improve their effectiveness.	.628
Q7-I encourage others when they are down.	.587
Q6-I "touch base" with others before initiating actions that might affect them.	.569
Factor 3: Sportsmanship, % variance: 13.209, Cronbach's Alpha: .607	
Q12-I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters. *	.761
Q13-I always find fault with what others are doing.*	.740
Q11-I always focus on what is wrong with our situation, rather than the positive side. *	.719
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin value: .834	
Bartlett significance value: .000; <i>df</i> : 78; Chi-square value: 1360.827	

* Reverse-scored items.

Factor analysis was used to find the factor structure of compliance with supervisor's wishes scale. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value was found as .880 and Bartlett Test values were found as .000, *df*: 28; Chi-square: 1809.238. These results indicated that the variables were suitable for factor analysis. Two factors were found, and these factors explained 73.091 % of the total variance. The first factor was composed of items mostly from behavioral compliance and a few attitudinal compliance items. Table 5-6 shows the results of the factor analysis scale and the Cronbach's Alpha values.

The reliability of the scale was also checked. The reliability of the whole scale is .870. Cronbach's Alpha value for Factor 2 was found as .507. However, the items were quite

relevant and created a meaningful factor. Therefore, factor 2 items were not taken out of further analyses.

Table 5-6: Results of the Factor Analysis of Compliance with Supervisor’s Wishes Scale

Compliance with Supervisor’s Wishes (overall) Cronbach’s Alpha: .870		Factor Load.
Factor 1: Behavioral Compliance, % variance: 55.552, Cronbach’s Alpha: .924		
Q8- I comply with the instructions of my superior.		.882
Q3- I do what my superior suggests.		.859
Q6- I follow the work-procedures set up by my superior.		.850
Q1- I like to do what my superior suggests.		.836
Q2- I comply with the directives of my superior.		.814
Q7- I prefer to follow the work-procedures set up by my superior.		.812
Factor 2: Attitudinal Compliance, % variance: 17.539, Cronbach’s Alpha: .570		
Q5- I prefer not to comply with the directives of my superior. *		.915
Q4- I don’t like to follow my superior’s orders. *		.649
Kaiser–Meyer–Olkin value: .880		
Bartlett significance value: .000; <i>df</i> : 28; Chi-square value: 1809.238		

* Reverse-scored items

Factor analysis was not conducted for the intention to quit scale because the scale consists of only three items. The reliability of the whole scale is .785. The scale was found to be reliable.

Table 5-7 shows means and standard deviations of all scales used and their subscales. According to the study findings, subordinates perceive that their supervisors use expert and referent power more than other power bases. Coercive power is the least used power base by supervisors. In addition, supervisors use cooperative style more than other styles in dealing conflict with subordinates. Avoiding style is the least used CMS by supervisors. Moreover, IT professionals demonstrate civic virtue behavior more than other organizational citizenship behaviors at work.

Table 5-7: Means and Standard Deviations of Scales and Subscales

Scale	Mean	Standard Deviation
Bases of Leader Power		
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	3.877	1.232
Reward Power (Factor 2)	3.547	1.239
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	3.510	1.056
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	3.611	.962
Conflict with Subordinates		
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	3.713	1.120
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	3.171	.921
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	3.331	1.169
Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes		
Behavioral Compliance (Factor 1)	4.184	.913
Attitudinal Compliance (Factor 2)	4.212	1.114
Organizational Citizenship Behavior		
Helping (Factor 1)	4.575	.801
Civic Virtue (Factor 2)	4.746	.766
Sportsmanship (Factor 3)	4.367	.910
Intention to quit		
(Factor 1)	2.853	1.270

Table 5-8 shows the correlations between the study variables. A correlation matrix showing intercorrelations among study variables is helpful in deciding whether multicollinearity (high correlations between independent variables) is an issue. However, it will not always show that the condition exists. Because of this, it is crucial to check for multicollinearity when conducting multiple regression analyses (Leech et al. 2008). Multicollinearity of the study variables will be discussed in the following section.

Table 5-8: Correlations Between Study Variables

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13
1.Expert and Referent P.	-	.662**	-.062	.375**	.767**	.401**	-.512**	.220**	.111**	.128*	.554**	.425**	-.421**
2.Reward P.		-	-.013	.255**	.668**	.315**	-.435**	.147**	.138**	.123*	.411**	.275**	-.419**
3. Coercive P.			-	.322**	-.104	-.144**	.279**	.092	.134*	-.060	.192**	.069	.075
4. Legitimate P.				-	.294**	.248**	-.018	.291**	.172**	-.104	.668**	.273**	-.100
5. Cooperative Style					-	.576**	-.615**	.223**	.139**	.107*	.502**	.304**	-.378**
6. Avoiding S.						-	-.292**	.138**	.044	.011	.340**	.033	-.193**
7. Dominating S.							-	-.038	.052	-.181**	-.127*	-.340**	.237**
8. Helping								-	.605**	.095	.302**	.083	-.168**
9. Civic Virtue									-	.169**	.131*	.088	-.216**
10. Sportsmanship										-	.069	.186**	-.260**
11. Behavioral Compliance											-	.384**	-.252**
12. Attitudinal Compliance												-	-.249**
13. Intention to Quit													-

**correlation is significant at the 0.01 (2-tailed)

*correlation is significant at the 0.05 (2-tailed)

5.2. Multiple Regression Analyses

Multiple regression analyses were done for the research model given in Figure 3-1. Multiple regression analyses are done to examine “the linear relationship between a set of independent variables and one dependent variable” (Kerr et al., 2002, p. 179). Multiple R coefficient indicates “the strength of the relationship between the combination” of independent variables and a dependent variable (Kerr et al., 2002, p. 191). The results will be listed in the following tables.

The linearity of the model was checked by looking at the scatterplot matrixes. The data were also examined to see whether the errors are normally distributed and the variances of the residuals are constant. The residual scatter plots were checked. Overall, it was seen that these assumptions were met.

Table 5-8 gives the correlation between the study variables. In addition, multicollinearity was tested according to these criteria: Typically, a VIF (variance inflation factor) value more than 10 is of concern for multicollinearity (Burns and Burns, 2008). According to Sipahi et al. (2006), in collinearity diagnostics table, if the maximum Eigen value divided by minimum Eigen value is greater than 1,000, this situation is of concern. The authors added that, if condition index values (in the collinearity diagnostics table) greater than 30, this situation is of concern. In this current study, these criteria were checked. The tests conducted for multicollinearity will be explained next.

The multiple regression outputs show that in Coefficients table, the highest VIF value is 4.056. This value is less than 10, which indicates that the multicollinearity criterion is not met. In addition, the maximum Eigen value divided by the minimum Eigen value is 626.416 ($7.517 / .012 = 626.416$). This value is less than 1,000, which shows that the multicollinearity criterion is not met. In Collinearity Diagnostics table, the maximum condition index value is 24.577. This value is less than 30 but suggests caution about multicollinearity. Thus, the variance proportions in Collinearity Diagnostics table were checked. If variance proportions between variables are more than .90, this situation is of concern for multicollinearity (Sipahi et al., 2006). The variance proportions are all less than .90, which shows that the multicollinearity criterion is not met. Table 5-8 indicates that there are high correlations between some of the study independent variables (such as ‘expert and referent power’ and

cooperative CMS). However, the further tests described above does not indicate multicollinearity. Thus, it is decided that multicollinearity is not a problem for this research.

Regression analyses were conducted between independent variables and the dependent variables. In the following regression analysis tables, only the significant results were listed. The whole regression analysis results can be seen in Appendix E.

In the first analyses, the independent variables are conflict management styles (CMS) and bases of leader power, and the dependent variables are compliance with supervisor's wishes. The results are shown in Table 5-9.

The findings indicated that cooperative (factor 1) and dominating (factor 3) CMS, 'expert and referent power' (factor 1), and legitimate power (factor 4) explained the variance of subordinate behavioral compliance. Legitimate power had the greatest explanatory power on behavioral compliance compared to other independent variables ($\beta = .497$).

Moreover, the outcomes pointed that avoiding (factor 2) and dominating (factor 3) CMS, 'expert and referent power' (factor 1), and legitimate power (factor 4) explain the variance in subordinate attitudinal compliance. Avoiding and dominating CMS factors were negatively associated with attitudinal compliance. 'Expert and referent power' factor had the greatest explanatory power on attitudinal compliance compared to other independent variables ($\beta = .310$).

Table 5-9: Regression Analyses for Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes

Dependent Variable: Behavioral Compliance (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.274	4.629	.000
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	.178	3.922	.000
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.248	4.430	.000
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.497	12.946	.000

R= .765; Adjusted R² = .580; F value= 122.599; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Attitudinal Compliance (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.212	-4.151	.000
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	-.240	-4.137	.000
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.310	5.097	.000
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.205	3.987	.000

R= .512; Adjusted R² = .254; F value= 30.893; p value= .000

* One-tailed t-test significances

Regression analysis was also conducted between independent variables (styles of handling conflict with subordinates and bases of leader power) and organizational citizenship behavior (OCB). The results are listed in Table 5-10.

The findings showed that cooperative CMS (factor 1) and legitimate power (factor 4) explained the variance of subordinate helping OCB. Cooperative (factor 1) and dominating (factor 3) CMS explained the variance of subordinate civic virtue OCB. Dominating CMS (factor 3) and legitimate power (factor 4) explained the variance of subordinate sportsmanship OCB. These two factors were negatively associated with sportsmanship OCB.

Table 5-10: Regression Analyses for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Dependent Variable: Helping (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.151	2.851	.002
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.246	4.659	.000

R=.324; Adjusted R² = .100; F value= 20.592; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.274	4.142	.000
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	.220	3.327	.000

R=.222; Adjusted R² = .044; F value= 9.071; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship (Factor 3)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	-.183	-3.493	.000
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	-.107	-2.052	.020

R= .210; Adjusted R² = .039; F value= 8.081; p value= .000

* One-tailed t-test significance

In addition, regression analyses were done for intention to quit variable. The results are shown in Table 5-11. The outcomes indicated that ‘expert and referent power’ (factor 1) and reward power (factor 2) explained the variance in subordinate intention to quit. These factors were negatively related to intention to quit.

Table 5-11: Regression Analyses for Intention to Quit

Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	-.257	-4.053	.000
Reward Power (Factor 2)	-.249	-3.928	.000

R= .461; Adjusted R² = .208; F value= 47.176 ; p value= .000

* One-tailed t-test significances

Overall hypothesis testing results are given in Table 5-12. The summary of relationships according to data analysis results is depicted in Figure 5-1.

Table 5-12: Overall Hypothesis Testing Results

	Hypothesis	Test Result
Bases of Leader Power- Employee Outcomes	Hypothesis 1- Supervisors’ legitimate power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (1a), and attitudinal compliance (1b).	(1a) and (1b): Accepted.
	Hypothesis 2- Supervisors’ expert power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (2a), attitudinal compliance (2b), and organizational citizenship behavior (2c), and negatively influences intention to quit (2d).	The items belong to expert and referent power loaded on one factor.
	Hypothesis 3- Supervisors’ referent power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (3a), attitudinal compliance (3b), and organizational citizenship behavior (3c), and negatively influences intention to quit (3d).	The items belong to expert and referent power loaded on one factor.
	Hypothesis 4- Supervisors’ reward power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior (4a), and negatively influences intention to quit (4b).	(4a): Rejected. (4b): Accepted.
	Hypothesis 5- Supervisors’ coercive power positively influences subordinate intention to quit (5a), and negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior (5b).	(5a) and (5b): Rejected.
Handling Conflict- Employee Outcomes	Hypothesis 6- Supervisors’ integrating CMS (conflict management style) positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (6a), attitudinal compliance (6b), and organizational citizenship behavior (6c), and negatively influences intention to quit (6d).	Integrating, compromising, and obliging style items loaded on one factor, named as “cooperative style”.
	Hypothesis 7- Supervisors’ obliging CMS positively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (7a), and organizational citizenship behavior (7b), and negatively influences intention to quit (7c).	Integrating, compromising, and obliging style items loaded on one factor, named as “cooperative style”.
	Hypothesis 8- Supervisors’ compromising CMS negatively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (8a), and intention to quit (8b), positively influences organizational citizenship behavior (8c).	Integrating, compromising, and obliging style items loaded on one factor, named as “cooperative style”.
	Hypothesis 9- Supervisors’ avoiding CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (9a), and organizational citizenship behavior (9b).	(9a): Accepted. (9b): Rejected.
	Hypothesis 10- Supervisors’ dominating CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance (10a), and organizational citizenship behavior (10b).	10a): Accepted. (10b): Accepted only for sportsmanship factor. A positive relationship was found for civic virtue factor. An insignificant result was found for helping OCB factor.

5.3. Data Analyses for Demographic Variables

Data analyses for demographic variables were also conducted. The goal is to see whether different groups or conditions of a demographic variable have differing relations with the dependent variables.

Demographic questions that were asked in the research: Gender, age, highest level of education obtained, marital status, organization industry category, level in the organizational hierarchy (top management, middle management, nonsupervisory employees), tenure in the company (in years), and job experience (in years). Data analyses for demographic groups are detailed below:

Gender:

Various significance tests can be used to compare the means of multiple groups. T-tests and the ANOVA (Analysis of Variance) are among the commonly used tests. A t-test is a simplified analysis of variance for two groups or conditions. When an analysis involves more than two groups, an ANOVA test can be used (Lazar et al., 2010).

To test whether or not females and males differ in the listed employee outcomes, independent samples t-tests were conducted. The results indicated that attitudinal compliance F-test significance was .773, which is higher than .05; thus, equal variances are assumed. T-test significance was .006, indicating that the means are significantly different according to gender groups. Attitudinal compliance mean of the female group was 4.4350 while the mean for male group was 4.0935. These values indicated that attitudinal compliance of females is significantly higher.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different by gender groups.

Age:

The respondents' age ranged between 21 and 61. Age variable was grouped into two categories according to the median value (30). Then, independent samples t-test was conducted.

The findings showed that civic virtue OCB F-test significance was .036, which is lower than .05; thus, equal variances were not assumed. T-test significance is .006, indicating that the means were significantly different according to age groups. Civic virtue behavior

mean of the younger group was 4.6409 while the mean for the older group was 4.8635. These values pointed that civic virtue behavior of the older group was significantly higher.

In addition, the outcomes showed that sportsmanship OCB F-test significance was .012, which is lower than .05; thus, equal variances were not assumed. T-test significance was .000, indicating that the means were significantly different according to age groups. Sportsmanship behavior mean of the younger group was 4.1810 while the mean for the older group was 4.5749. This result pointed that sportsmanship behavior of the older group was significantly higher.

These findings are in line with former studies. Chou and Pearson's (2011) research on 85 IT professionals in U.S. indicated that age and tenure in the IT profession have positive effect of an IT professional's OCB. Moreover, Wanxian and Weiwu's (2007) study on 349 Chinese participants from different enterprises. This research examined the employee perception of OCB as in-role behavior according different demographic variables. The authors indicated that several studies (such as "Coyle-Shapiro et al., 2004; Kidder, 2002" in Wanxian and Weiwu, 2007) have suggested "that if employees define their roles loosely so that behaviors normally thought of as OCB were instead deemed 'in-role', those employees would be more likely to perform those OCBs" (p. 103). Wanxian and Weiwu's (2007) study found that employees' age and position are important predictors of OCB as in-role orientation. This research indicated that "the older employees rated OCB as in-role behavior more than the younger did" (Wanxian and Weiwu, 2007, p. 231).

Moreover, the results showed that behavioral compliance F-test significance was .131, which is higher than .05; thus, equal variances were assumed. T-test significance was .024, indicating that the means are different according to age groups. Behavioral compliance mean of the younger group was 4.2885 while the mean for the older group was 4.0689. These values pointed that behavioral compliance of the younger group was significantly higher.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different by age groups.

Marital Status:

Independent samples t-tests were performed. The results showed that only for civic virtue OCB the mean values were significantly different by marital status (F test significance=

.027, indicating that equal variances were not assumed. T-test significance=.002). Civic virtue OCB mean of the married group was 4.8734, and the mean for the single group was 4.6182. These results pointed that civic virtue OCB of the married participants was significantly higher. In line with this finding, Cohen and Avrahami's (2006) research on 241 certified nurses found that married employees have tendency to demonstrate OCB more than unmarried employees do. As a result of their study, it was seen that marital status has an association with three dimensions of OCB: Civic virtue, courtesy, and altruism.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different by marital status groups.

Organization Industry:

One-way ANOVA test was not applied because the size of each compared group cannot be less than 30 to conduct an ANOVA test (Sipahi et al., 2006). In this study, there is one participant each from "real estate activities", "administrative and support service activities", "other service activities" industries; therefore, ANOVA tests were not applied according to organization industry.

Organization Level:

One-way ANOVA was not used for testing. As stated earlier, to apply ANOVA test, compared group sizes should be close to each other (Sipahi et al., 2006). In this research, 40 participants were top managers, 113 participants were middle managers, and 200 participants were nonsupervisory employees. Since the group sizes were not close to each other, ANOVA test was not applied.

Therefore, participants who were top managers and middle managers were combined under the title of "managers". In total, there are 153 participants in this category. There are 200 participants in nonsupervisory employee position. Then, independent samples t-test was done between these groups. The findings pointed that for all the listed employee outcomes, F-test significances were higher than .05; thus, equal variances were assumed. For helping behavior, T-test significance is .016, indicating that the means were significantly different. Helping behavior mean of the "managers" group was 4.6928, while the mean for the nonsupervisory employees was 4.4850. These values showed that helping behavior of the managers was significantly higher than the nonsupervisory employees' helping behavior.

For civic virtue behavior, T-test significance is .000, pointing that the means were significantly different according to organizational level. Civic virtue OCB mean of the “managers” group was 4.9425, while the mean for the nonsupervisory employees was 4.5960. These outcomes showed the managers exhibit more civic virtue behavior than the nonsupervisory employees do.

For sportsmanship behavior, T-test significance is .036, pointing that the means were significantly different according to organizational level. Sportsmanship behavior mean of the “managers” group was 4.4837, while the mean for the nonsupervisory employees was 4.2783. These outcomes showed that sportsmanship behavior of the managers was also significantly higher than the nonsupervisory employees’ sportsmanship behavior.

Wanxian and Weiwu’s (2007) study was detailed before in this research (in the data analyses for “Age” demographic variable). The results of their study indicated that employees’ position (employees, departmental managers, or general managers/senior officials) is an antecedent of OCB as in-role orientation. Position is positively associated with OCB in-role orientation, particularly for top leaders or general managers (vs. departmental managers) (Wanxian and Weiwu, 2007). The results of this current research are in line with Wanxian and Weiwu’s (2007) study outcomes.

For intention to quit, T-test significance is .023, showing that the means were significantly different according to organizational level. Intention to quit mean of the “managers” group was 2.6776, while the mean for the nonsupervisory employees was 2.9883. These outcomes showed that intention to quit of the nonsupervisory employees was significantly higher than the managers’ intention to quit.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different by organizational level groups.

Education:

One-way ANOVA was not used for testing because there are 17 participants with high school degree and 3 participants with Ph.D. degree. Thus, ANOVA test was not conducted. Thus, participants with Ph.D. degree and master’s degree were combined under the title of “graduate school”. In total, there are 43 participants in this category. There are 112 participants with university degree. Then, independent samples t-test was done between these

groups. The findings showed that for all the listed employee outcomes, F-test significances were higher than .05; therefore, equal variances were assumed. For intention to quit, T-test significance is .020, indicating that the means were significantly different. Intention to quit mean of the group with “graduate school” degree was 3.1111, while the mean of the group with university degree was 2.7578. These outcomes showed that intention to quit of the group with “graduate school” degree was significantly higher than of the group with university degree.

According to their meta-analysis, Cotton and Tuttle (1986) stated that education is positively correlated with turnover. This finding is in line with the outcome of this current research.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different by education level groups.

Total Job Experience:

The respondents’ total job experience ranged between 1 and 40 (years). This variable was grouped into two categories according to the median value (7). Then, independent samples t-tests were performed.

The outcomes showed that civic virtue OCB F-test significance is .148, which is higher than .05; thus, equal variances are assumed. T-test significance is .000, indicating that the means of total job experience groups are significantly different. Civic virtue behavior mean of the group with less job experience was 4.5797 while the mean for the group with more experience was 4.9136. These values pointed that civic virtue behavior of the group with more total job experience was significantly higher.

Furthermore, the findings showed that sportsmanship OCB F-test significance was .100, which is higher than .05; thus, equal variances were assumed. T-test significance was .000, indicating that the means of total job experience groups were significantly different. Sportsmanship behavior mean of the group with less job experience was 4.1921 while the mean for the group with more experience was 4.5436. These values showed that sportsmanship behavior of the group with more total job experience was significantly higher.

These outcomes are in line with former research findings. For instance, Chou and Pearson's (2011) research on 85 IT professionals in U.S. pointed that age and tenure in the IT profession have positive influence of an IT professionals' OCB.

In addition, the results showed that behavioral compliance factor F-test significance was .609, which is higher than .05; thus, equal variances were assumed. T-test significance was .009, indicating that the means of total job experience groups were significantly different. Behavioral compliance mean of the group with less job experience was 4.3107 while the mean for the group with more experience was 4.0578. These values pointed that behavioral compliance of the group with more total job experience was significantly higher.

The t-test results for the other listed employee outcomes were not significantly different according to total job experience.

Tenure:

The respondents' tenure (in an organization a respondent currently works for) ranged between 1 and 35 (years). This variable was grouped into two categories according to the median value (2). Next, independent samples t-tests were performed. The outcomes showed that the mean values of the employee outcomes according to respondent tenure were not significantly different.

6. EVALUATION OF THE RESEARCH FINDINGS AND DISCUSSION

In this chapter, the research results will be discussed. The conclusions reached, managerial implications, limitations of the research, and suggestions for future research will also be presented.

6.1. Interpretation of the Findings

According to the research outcomes, subordinates perceive that their supervisors use ‘expert and referent power’ more frequently than other power bases. It is reported that coercive power is the least used power base by supervisors. If we review the definitions of these terms: Expert power is associated with the influence a person may have because of expertise, special skill, or knowledge (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Referent power is related to identification with an individual who possesses desirable resources or personal characteristics (Robbins and Judge, 2009). Coercive power is “the ability of the power holder to take something away from the target person or to punish the target for non-compliance with a request” (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008, p. 114). Moreover, supervisors use cooperative style more than other styles in dealing conflict with their subordinates. Avoiding is the least used conflict management style. “Cooperative style” is composed of items from integrating, compromising, and obliging styles. Avoiding style is ignoring the conflict or denying that conflict exists (Phillips and Gully, 2012). These study results are expected because in general IT professionals are highly skilled and educated (Maudgalya et al., 2006). IT professionals “possess a high need for learning and they have a strong desire to be challenged” (Lee, 2000, p. 102). Therefore, IT supervisors may prefer to use ‘expert and referent power’ and cooperative CMS more frequently to manage such a professional group of workers.

The research findings also point some employee outcome differences according to the demographical variables. For instance, attitudinal compliance of female IT professionals is significantly higher than males. In addition, civic virtue and sportsmanship behavior of the older group is significantly higher than the younger group. These findings add to the existing literature about the influence of demographic variables on IT professional employee outcomes.

The first research hypothesis is “supervisors’ legitimate power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (1a), attitudinal compliance (1b)”. This hypothesis is

accepted. This finding underlines the importance of legitimate power in getting both subordinate attitudinal and behavioral compliance. The outcomes indicate that leaders' legitimate power (meaning power based on their respective positions) is an effective tool to get IT professionals' both attitudinal and behavioral compliance. The finding is in line with former studies. For instance, Rahim and Buntzman's (1989) study on 301 American business administration students with at least 1 year job experience with their current supervisors indicated that legitimate power was positively related to behavioral and attitudinal compliance. In addition, Palenzuela's (2001) research investigated the relationship between prekindergarten teachers' and their educational specialist, according to teachers' perspectives. The results indicated that "expert, legitimate, referent, and informational power bases of the High/Scope educational specialist were found to be the most influential on attitudinal and behavioral compliance of teachers" (p. vi). Furthermore, based on a literature review, Rahim and Buntzman (1989) concluded that expert, referent, and to some extent, legitimate power bases generally invoke subordinate compliance.

Moreover, even though it was not hypothesized, the study outcomes point that legitimate power positively influences employee helping OCB and negatively influences sportsmanship OCB. Altruism is defined as helping fellow employees with tasks or problems associated with the work of that organization (Goudge, 2006). Organ (1990, p. 96) defined sportsmanship as "a willingness to tolerate the inevitable inconveniences and impositions of work without complaining". The research findings suggest that supervisors' legitimate power, which is based on supervisors' formal positions, positively influences IT professionals' helping behavior to fellow employees. IT employees usually work in teams (Godse and Thingujam, 2010) and employee helping behavior to other employees is important in such a work environment. However, the findings also show that supervisor legitimate power negatively influences toleration to inconveniences of work. Today's IT work environment requires flexible work schedules and environments (Richard, 2009). Although IT work environments change from industry to industry, some IT industries such as software industry have laid-back, flexible work environment (Careers in Information Technology 2009). "IT personnel look forward to autonomy, challenging tasks, immediate and frequent feedback and rewards, ownership of ideas and enterprise, commitment to profession more

than organization, teamwork/community of practices, de-bureaucratized work environment, and an open, consultative, fun-loving organizational culture” (Thite, 2006, p. 77). It should also be noted that the lines of legitimate power are less distinct in more organic type of organizations such as software firms. In such organizations, an employee may work for more than one boss at the same time. In addition, the leaders and subordinates may have almost equal organizational standing (Griffin and Moorhead, 2012). Since IT environments require flexibility and have less distinct legitimate power structure, supervisors’ legitimate power use and overemphasizing of authority can create a negative influence on IT professionals’ sportsmanship behavior. Therefore, employees might demonstrate less tolerance to inconveniences at work. These interesting research findings can be examined with further studies.

The second hypothesis is “expert power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (2a), attitudinal compliance (2b), and organizational citizenship behavior (2c), and negatively influences intention to quit (2d)”. The third hypothesis is “Supervisors’ referent power positively influences subordinate behavioral compliance (3a), attitudinal compliance (3b), and organizational citizenship behavior (3c), and negatively influences intention to quit (3d)”. During the factor analysis stage, the items belong to expert and referent power loaded on one factor, named as ‘expert and referent power’. Thus, the second and third hypotheses were not tested.

These outcomes point that supervisors’ ‘expert and referent power’ (therefore, their expertise, special skill, knowledge, follower attention, respect, or admiration) positively influences employee behavioral and attitudinal compliance, and negatively influences intention to quit. Such results are in line with hypotheses (2a), (2b), (3a), (3b), (2d), and (3d) and former literature. For instance, based on a literature review, Rahim and Buntzman (1989) concluded that in general expert, referent, and to some degree, legitimate power bases get subordinate compliance. Moreover, Palenzuela’s (2001) research indicated that “expert, legitimate, referent, and informational power bases of the High/Scope educational specialist were found to be the most influential on attitudinal and behavioral compliance of teachers” (p. vi). However, in this current study, ‘expert and referent power’ factor does not explain the variance of OCB factors. Table 5-8 lists the correlation between research variables. From

this table, it can be seen that ‘expert and referent power’ factor is positively and significantly associated with OCB helping ($r = .220$), civic virtue ($r = .111$), and sportsmanship ($r = .128$) factors. Even though ‘expert and referent power’ does not explain the variance in OCB factors, it is positively associated with them.

The fourth hypothesis is “supervisors’ reward power positively influences subordinate organizational citizenship behavior (4a), and negatively influences intention to quit (4b)”. It is accepted that supervisors’ reward power negatively influences intention to quit. As stated earlier, in general, IT professionals are workers demanding very competitive wages (Maudgalya et al., 2006). Moreover, previous studies have indicated that fairness of rewards, pay, and latitude equity (Bartol, 1983; Ditttrich et al., 1985) are among factors that affect turnover intention of IT professionals. In addition, Paré and Tremblay’s (2007) study on 394 IT employees showed that nonmonetary recognition and, to a lesser degree, fair-rewards and information-sharing procedures are negatively correlated with turnover intentions. Afza’s (2005) study on 353 manufacturing employees in India also found that propensity to leave was negatively affected by reward power. These outcomes emphasize the importance of reward power on IT employees’ intention to quit. There is a high turnover culture among IT professionals (Moore and Burke, 2002) and replacing IT workers can be costly for organizations (Young, November 11, 2002). Thus, it might be beneficial for organizations to utilize leader reward power to decrease IT employees’ intention to quit.

However, hypothesis 4a, “supervisors’ reward power positively influences OCB”, was rejected. The outcomes point that supervisor reward power influences employees’ intention to stay within their organizations while reward power does not influence IT employees’ OCB. Podsakoff et al. (2000, p. 533) indicated “when employees are not indifferent to the rewards made available by the organization, when employees perceive that their leaders control those rewards, and when their leaders administer rewards contingent upon performance, organizational citizenship behavior increases”. If these conditions are not held in organizations IT professionals work, these conditions might be influential in why supervisor reward power does not influence IT professionals’ OCB. In general, IT professionals are highly skilled employees with high level of intelligence and education. They also demand very competitive wages (Maudgalya et al., 2006). IT professionals “have a strong need for

growth and personal development compared to professionals in other occupations” (Lee, 2000, p. 102). The outcomes of the research point that IT personnel, a highly skilled and educated professional group, are not motivated to perform OCB just with the influence of supervisors’ reward power. To increase IT employees’ OCB, their supervisors might need other methods instead of just using their reward power.

The fifth hypothesis is “supervisors’ coercive power positively influences subordinate intention to quit (5a), and negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior (5b)”. This hypothesis is not accepted. Such finding can be explained as follows: Coercive power is “the ability of the power holder to take something away from the target person or to punish the target for non-compliance with a request” (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008, p. 114). Turkish culture is high on power distance (Hofstede, 1980). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner’s (1998) research on understanding cultural diversity among 38 nations pointed that “Turkey to have the steepest hierarchy in its organizations, indicating the subordination of employees to their leaders” (in Paşa et al., 2001, p. 568-569). According to Paşa et al.’s (2001) research on 92 Turkish participants, hierarchical-autocratic behavior is the most frequently perceived leader behavior. Moreover, Yahyagil and Ötken’s (2011) and Yahyagil’s (2011, p. 1033) studies on societal/cultural values of Turkish society pointed that “hierarchy was ranked as the second most important polar dimension” (hierarchy versus egalitarianism). Yahyagil and Ötken (2011, p. 1033) stated that such result indicates “a cultural emphasis on the legitimacy of unequal distribution of power, roles, and resources”. Because of these listed cultural characteristics, Turkish IT professionals might tolerate their supervisors’ use of coercive power. Such toleration may be influential on the study result that supervisors’ coercive power does not affect subordinate intention to quit or OCB.

It should also be noted that the findings from Table 5.7 indicate that coercive power is the least used power base by supervisors. In addition, the study outcomes show that coercive power does not explain the variance of any of the employee outcomes. In other words, coercive power is not an influential power base on the listed employee outcomes.

As a result of the factor analysis, it was seen that integrating, compromising, and obliging CMS items loaded on one factor, named as “cooperative style”. Thus, the sixth, seventh, and eight hypotheses were not tested. The findings indicate that cooperative style

positively influences employee behavioral compliance, helping behavior, and civic virtue OCB. These outcomes are in line with former studies. Chan et al. (2008) stated that previous research has found that managers' cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising) generally produced positive subordinate outcomes. The findings suggest that as supervisors use more cooperative styles, IT professionals comply with supervisors' wishes more, help other employees more and demonstrate more civic virtue (indicates participating responsibly in the organization life- Goudge, 2006). In short, supervisors' use of cooperative CMS can produce beneficial outcomes for organizations.

Hypothesis 9a is "supervisors' avoiding CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance" and hypothesis 10a is "supervisors' dominating CMS negatively influences subordinate attitudinal compliance". These hypotheses are accepted. Avoiding style is associated with "low concern for self and for others" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). Dominating style involves "high concern for self and low concern for others" (Rahim and Buntzman, 1989, p. 197). Dominating and avoiding styles are likely to result in an unfavorable evaluation by others (Singh, 2012). In addition, as stated above, former studies have indicated that managers' dominating and avoiding CMS are related with negative employee outcomes (Chan et al., 2008). Thus, it can be said that the hypothesis testing results are in line with former studies.

Although it was hypothesized that supervisors' avoiding style negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior (hypothesis 9b), such relationship is not found in this research. As stated above, Chan et al.'s (2008) study on 169 Chinese employees pointed that, unlike many Western studies, dominating and avoiding CMS of managers did not decrease subordinate job satisfaction or increase turnover intention. The authors suggest that such result might be related to Chinese culture (Chan et al., 2008). Compared to Western cultures, Chinese culture has higher power distance (Hofstede, 2001). Chan et al. (2008) added that Chinese cultural tradition Confucianism might also be effective in such result. Like Chinese culture, Turkish culture is high on power distance (Hofstede, 1980). As stated above, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) found that among 38 nations, "Turkey to have the steepest hierarchy in its organizations, indicating the subordination of employees to their leaders" (in Paşa et al., 2001, p. 568-569). According to Aycan et al. (2000), Turkey was one

of the countries scored high on paternalism. Paternalistic leadership can be defined as “hierarchical relationship in which a leader guides professional and personal lives of subordinates in a manner resembling a parent, and in exchange expects loyalty and deference” (Gelfand et al., 2007, p. 493). Such cultural factors might be influential on the result that the expected effect of supervisors’ avoiding CMS on subordinate OCB is not found in this current study.

Hypothesis 10b is “supervisors’ dominating CMS negatively influences organizational citizenship behavior”. This hypothesis is accepted only for sportsmanship factor. A positive relationship is found for civic virtue factor. In addition, an insignificant result is found for helping OCB factor. These findings can be explained in the following manner: Dominating style is confrontational (Collins, 2009), and it has been associated “with win-lose orientation or with forcing behavior to win one’s position” (Rahim et al., 2002, p. 307). As indicated before, civic virtue behavior is an indication of participating responsibly in the organization life (Goudge, 2006). Civic virtue is “responsible, constructive involvement in the political process of the organization, including not just expressing opinions but reading one’s mail, attending meetings, and keeping abreast of larger issues involving the organization” (Organ, 1990, p. 96). IT professionals might be demonstrating civic virtue behavior because of supervisors’ dominating CMS. Such behavior might be demonstrated since the employees are obligated and this behavior is forced by their supervisors. Moreover, the outcomes suggest that as supervisors use dominating CMS more, employees would demonstrate less sportsmanship behavior. Sportsmanship is a willingness to make personal sacrifices for coworkers and the organization (Baum, 2006). It can be said that this current study’s finding about sportsmanship OCB is in line with former studies. For instance, Salami’s (2010) research found that supervisor forcing (competing) strategy negatively and significantly predicted subordinate OCB. In addition, Chan et al. (2008) stated that previous researches have pointed that uncooperative CMS (namely dominating and avoiding) are associated with negative job outcomes.

In addition, even though it was not hypothesized, the outcomes indicate that dominating CMS positively influences employee behavioral compliance. However, the findings point that dominating style negatively influences attitudinal compliance and

sportsmanship behavior. Furthermore, dominating CMS may increase the conflict and the loser may try to retaliate (Phillips and Gully, 2012). Thus, supervisors should use dominating CMS with caution.

6.2. Conclusion

Although leadership, social power, and conflict management are widely researched concepts, these points still need special attention by scholars and practitioners alike because they are highly critical issues for organizations. The purpose of this research was to investigate the influence of bases of leader power and conflict management styles on certain behaviors of Turkish information technology professionals: attitudinal and behavioral compliance, organizational citizenship behavior, and intention to quit.

In this study, quantitative research was employed. In addition, hypothesis testing and cross-sectional research design was selected. The study model was tested via SPSS (Statistical Package for the Social Sciences) software. 353 Turkish IT professionals employed in different industries participated to the survey.

The results partially supported the influence of leader power bases and styles of handling conflict on the listed employee outcomes. The findings point that leaders' cooperative and dominating conflict management styles (CMS), 'expert and referent power', and legitimate power positively influence subordinates' behavioral compliance. Moreover, 'expert and referent power' and legitimate power positively influence attitudinal compliance while avoiding and dominating CMS negatively influence attitudinal compliance. The outcomes also show that cooperative CMS and legitimate power positively influence helping OCB. Cooperative and dominating CMS and legitimate power positively affect civic virtue OCB. In addition, dominating CMS and legitimate power negatively influence sportsmanship OCB. The findings also point that 'expert and referent power', and reward power negatively affect intention to quit.

In short, the findings indicate that for management of IT professionals, their supervisors prefer to use 'expert and referent power' and cooperative CMS frequently. Using their 'expert and referent power' and cooperative CMS are important strategies for leaders to get beneficial organizational outcomes. Legitimate power is also among the most frequently used power bases. This power base can be used to influence employee attitudinal and

behavioral compliance, and helping OCB to fellow employees. However, leaders should use legitimate power with caution since this power base can also decrease employee sportsmanship OCB. Coercive power is the least used power base, and it does not influence any of the employee outcomes. Therefore, supervisors of IT employees may need additional methods instead of using coercive power to influence the listed employee outcomes. Supervisors should also use dominating and avoiding CMS with caution since these CMS have also negative influence on some of the listed employee outcomes. The managerial implications of this study are discussed in detail in the next section.

The study outcomes also point some cultural differences between this current study and former researches. For instance, Chan et al. (2008) stated that former researches have pointed that uncooperative CMS (dominating and avoiding) are related to negative job outcomes. In this current study, based on former research, it was hypothesized that supervisors' avoiding style negatively influences OCB. However, such relationships were not found in this research. Such difference might be related with cultural differences.

With these findings, this study contributed to the literature in several different ways. This research is unique in the sense that it investigated the relationship between bases of leader power, leaders' conflict handling styles, and the listed employee outcomes in a single study. Moreover, this research provided contribution to the existing literature by examining leadership practices of IT sector in Turkey. Turkish IT market is one of the fastest developing markets in Europe (Turkey Information Technology Report, 2011). This situation increases the importance of this study.

6.3. Managerial Implications

The results of this study have several managerial implications. The findings can be beneficial for organizational leaders and human resource practitioners in understanding the influence of leaders' bases of power and styles of handling conflict on IT professionals' organizational citizenship behavior, compliance, and intention to quit. The results may also be useful for organizations in increasing leadership effectiveness and better management of IT human capital.

In today's world, effective management of human resources is crucially important for organizations to stay competitive. This is especially true for the management of IT

professionals since they are highly skilled employees who work in a demanding environment. As indicated earlier in this study, IT profession involves long hours, travel, and constant updating of skills more than other professions (Ahuja, 2002). For such a work environment, the study outcomes can be useful for organizations in increasing IT professional attitudinal and behavioral compliance and OCB. Moreover, even though a weak labor market has limited their job turnover, skilled IT professionals are still an important resource for organizations (Dinger et al., 2011). Beard (2004) indicated that there is a high job turnover culture among IT employees. As knowledge workers, IT personnel are more loyal to their profession than the organization they work (Agrawal and Thite, 2003 in Thite, 2006). Thus, the findings can also be beneficial for organizations in decreasing IT professionals' intention to quit.

Moreover, IT leaders are encouraged to assess their preferred power bases and conflict management styles with subordinates, and the influence of these factors on the listed employee outcomes in order to increase their leadership effectiveness. For such assessment, organizations can offer leaders development opportunities such as executive coaching or management development trainings.

Furthermore, the outcomes underline that leader expert and referent power and legitimate power need special attention because these power bases are the most frequently used power bases. Leaders of IT professionals can use these findings in different ways. For instance, utilizing on their expert power, IT managers can make their expertise easily accessible by subordinates when needed. Making use of referent power base at work, organizations can hire IT supervisors who have charisma and who can get admiration, attention, and respect from IT employees. In addition, supervisors can aim to be role models or mentors to their subordinates. Legitimate power, which is the ability to influence because of a formal position (Spoelstra and Pienaar, 2008), can be used to influence employee attitudinal and behavioral compliance, and helping OCB to fellow employees. However, leader legitimate power should be used with caution since it may also decrease employee sportsmanship OCB.

The outcomes also point that supervisor reward power negatively influences subordinate intention to quit. Organizations can give supervisors reward power to decrease IT

professionals' intention to quit. These rewards may be in different forms such as pay raises, promotion, privileges, increased responsibilities ('Based on French and Raven, 1959 and Mullins, 2002' in Hewison, 2005), or recognition and acceptance (McKenna, 2001). It should be noted that reward power negatively influences employee intention to quit; however, it does not influence employee OCB. Thus, to increase OCB of IT employees, their leaders need additional methods to reward power.

In the light of these findings, it can be said that along with monetary rewards, organizations can offer non-monetary rewards to IT professionals to effectively utilize their IT human capital. These non-monetary benefits can be such as in the form of employee personal growth and development opportunities, trainings that allow constant updating of skills, or mentoring.

The outcomes also indicate that supervisor coercive power does not influence any of the employee outcomes. Moreover, coercive power is the least used power base by supervisors. Thus, IT supervisors may need methods other than using coercive power to influence the listed employee outcomes.

Moreover, the research outcomes point that special attention should be given to leader cooperative conflict management style (CMS) since it is the most frequently used CMS style. Cooperative CMS (integrating, obliging, and compromising) focus on satisfying others' concerns (Chan et al., 2008). IT leaders can utilize cooperative CMS with subordinates by applying techniques such as openness, exchange of information, minimizing differences and emphasizing common points, or sacrifice according to the situation.

Furthermore, leaders' avoiding and dominating CMS can be used with caution because both of these styles negatively influence subordinate attitudinal compliance. In addition, dominating CMS negatively affects employee sportsmanship OCB. Avoiding and dominating CMS may be used when the situation requires such CMS. For instance, a downsizing situation may require a manager to utilize dominating CMS and the supervisor might be obligated to make decisions that will not be well-received (Collins, 2009). Or, an avoiding CMS may be beneficial when issues are not important, or when the costs related with challenging someone weigh more than the benefits (Tosi and Plati, 2011).

6.4. Limitations of the Study

The data were collected through questionnaires from IT professionals with self-reported measures. The answers represented the perceptions of employees, such as their perceptions about supervisors' use of power bases or conflict handling styles with subordinates. In addition, both independent and dependent variables were gathered from the same source, which may lead to common method variance due to single-source bias. Moreover, the data were collected from respondents agreeing to participate to the survey. Furthermore, convenience and snowball sampling were employed to collect data. These factors might limit the generalizability of the survey results.

Moreover, the data collection was conducted through an online survey web site. Even though using the internet assured the confidentiality of responses and helped reaching a wide range of participants, it also limited tracking the number of leaders that were evaluated and the names of organizations the participants work. However, it is obvious that asking questions that can identify the respondents' leader or organization name would have limited the respondents' willingness to complete the questionnaire.

Furthermore, it is common for IT professionals to work on more than one project at the same time (Schwalbe, 2011). Thus, if a respondent has more than one supervisor, the IT professional may hesitate about which one of the supervisors he/she should consider in answering the questionnaire.

6.5. Suggestions for Future Research

Some aspects of this study need to be investigated with further researches. Future studies can test alternative models with additional variables such as organizational climate or leadership style (e.g. transactional or transformational).

In addition, the sample size can be increased to test the validity of hypothesized model. Moreover, in this research, the participants employed in different industries completed the survey instrument. This study can be replicated to conduct industry specific analyses (such as for financial activities, manufacturing, or education industries).

In this research, to measure leader styles of handling conflict with subordinates, Rahim Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II) (1983) was used. After conducting the data analysis, it was seen that some of the items in the scale did not aggregate under the

proposed subscales. As indicated earlier in this study, such result might be due to cultural differences or participants' occupational differences. In future studies, modifications can be done on the scale to reflect Turkish context and IT profession.

This research used questionnaires to collect data. Future studies can employ qualitative research methods (such as interviews or focus groups) to generate more insights and expand our understanding on the subject. In addition, future studies on this subject especially in non-western settings can be fruitful.

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APPENDIXES

APPENDIX A- INVITATION TO THE SURVEY

Dear Participant,

This research is conducted as a part of my dissertation under the supervision of Professor Ülkü Dicle at Yeditepe University, Department of Business Administration Ph.D. program. This study is on information technology professionals and the problems they encounter in business life in Turkey. Your responses will be just used for scientific purposes and your identity will be held in strict confidence. Thank you very much for your participation.

Tuna Cenkei

APPENDIX B- MEASUREMENT SCALES IN ENGLISH

- **Leader Power Bases (Rahim, 1988)**

Rahim Leader Power Inventory (RLPI)

We are interested in your *opinion* about your superior and your relationship with him (her). Please indicate, by circling a number on a scale provided, the extent to which each of the following statements describes your opinion. Your responses will be held in *strict confidence* by the researchers. We would appreciate your candid opinion.

The ratings are made on 1-5 Likert scales: Strongly agree (5), agree (4), undecided (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1).

1. My superior has a pleasing personality.
2. My superior can take disciplinary action against me for insubordination.
3. I approach my superior for advice on work-related problems because she (he) is usually right.
4. My superior can recommend me for a merit recognition if my performance is especially good.
5. When a tough job comes up my superior has the technical “know-how” to get it done.
6. It is reasonable for my superior to decide what he (she) wants me to do.
7. My superior has specialized training in his (her) field.
8. My superior is justified in expecting cooperation from me in work-related matters.
9. My superior can fire me if my performance is consistently below standards.
10. My superior does *not* have the expert knowledge I need to perform my job.
11. My superior can provide opportunities for my advancement if my work is outstanding.
12. I *don't* want to identify myself with my superior.
13. My superior's position entitles her (him) to expect support of her (his) policies from me.
14. My superior can suspend me if I am habitually late in coming to work.
15. My superior *cannot* get me a pay raise even if I do my job well.

16. My superior can see to it that I get no pay raise if my work is unsatisfactory.
17. I prefer to do what my superior suggests because he (she) has high professional expertise.
18. My superior has considerable professional experience to draw from in helping me to do my work.
19. I admire my superior because she (he) treats every person fairly.
20. My superior can fire me if I neglect my duties.
21. I like the personal qualities of my superior.
22. If I put forth extra effort, my superior can take it into consideration to determine my pay raise.
23. My superior's position *does* not give him (her) the authority to change procedures of my work.
24. I want to develop a good interpersonal relationship with my superior.
25. My superior is *not* the type of person I enjoy working with.
26. I should do what my superior wants because she (he) is my superior.
27. My superior can get me a bonus for earning a good performance rating.
28. My superior can recommend a promotion for me if my performance is consistently above average.
29. My superior has the right to expect me to carry out her (his) instructions.

- **Rahim (1983) Organizational Conflict Inventory (ROCI-II)**

You may have incompatibilities, disagreement, or differences (i.e. conflict) with your subordinates. Rank each of the following statements to indicate how you handle your conflict with your subordinates. Try to recall as many recent conflict situations as possible in ranking these statements. Mark your responses in the appropriate boxes on your answer sheet.

There are no right or wrong answers. The response which is most characteristic of your behavior, in a situation of conflict with your subordinates, is the best answer. Any other answer, which may be considered as more desirable or acceptable, will simply lead to misleading information.

Scale: Strongly disagree, disagree, neither agree nor disagree, agree, strongly agree.

1. I try to investigate an issue with my subordinates to find a solution acceptable to us.
2. I generally try to satisfy the needs of my subordinates.
3. I attempt to avoid being “put on the spot” and try to keep my conflict with my subordinates to myself.
4. I try to integrate my ideas with those of my subordinates to come up with a decision jointly.
5. I try to work with my subordinates to find solutions to a problem which satisfy our expectations.
6. I usually avoid open discussion of my differences with my subordinates.
7. I try to find a middle course to resolve an impasse.
8. I use my influence to get my ideas accepted.
9. I use my authority to make a decision in my favor.
10. I usually accommodate the wishes of my subordinates.
11. I give in to the wishes of my subordinates.
12. I exchange accurate information with my subordinates to solve a problem together.
13. I usually allow concessions to my subordinates.
14. I usually propose a middle ground for breaking deadlocks.
15. I negotiate with my subordinates so that a compromise can be reached.
16. I try to stay away from disagreement with my subordinates.
17. I avoid an encounter with my subordinates.
18. I use my expertise to make a decision in my favor.
19. I often go along with the suggestions of my subordinates.
20. I use “give and take” so that a compromise can be made.
21. I am generally firm in pursuing my side of the issue.
22. I try to bring all our concerns out in the open so that the issues can be resolved in the best possible way.
23. I collaborate with my subordinates to come up with decisions acceptable to us.
24. I try to satisfy the expectations of my subordinates.

25. I sometimes use my power to win a competitive situation.
26. I try to keep my disagreement with my subordinates to myself in order to avoid hard feelings.
27. I try to avoid unpleasant exchanges with my subordinates.
28. I try to work with my subordinates for a proper understanding of a problem.

- **Compliance with Superior's Wishes (Rahim, 1988)**

Organizational members generally do the things their superiors want them to do. Please indicate the extent to which you do or prefer to do the things your superior wants by circling a number on the scale provided for each statement.

Scale: Strongly agree (5), agree (4), undecided (3), disagree (2), strongly disagree (1).

1. I follow my superior's orders.
2. I like to do what my superior suggests.
3. I prefer not to comply with my superior's instructions.
4. I comply with the directives of my superior.
5. I do what my superior suggests.
6. I don't like to follow my superior's orders.
7. I prefer not to comply with the directives of my superior.
8. I follow the work-procedures set up by my superior.
9. I prefer to follow the work-procedures set up by my superior.
10. I comply with the instructions of my superior.

- **Organizational Citizenship Behavior (Podsakoff, et al. 1997)**

In Podsakoff et al. (1997), the ratings are made on a 7-point Likert type scale (1 = strongly disagree to 7 = strongly agree).

1. I help out others who fall behind in their work.
2. I willingly share my expertise with others.
3. I try to act like a peacemaker when others have disagreements.
4. I take steps to try to prevent problems with coworkers.
5. I willingly give of my time to help others who have work-related problems.

6. I “touch base” with others before initiating actions that might affect them.
7. I encourage others when they are down.
8. I provide constructive suggestions about how others can improve their effectiveness.
9. I am willing to risk disapproval to express my beliefs about what's best for others/organization.
10. I attend and actively participate in meetings.
11. I always focus on what is wrong with our situation, rather than the positive side.
12. I consume a lot of time complaining about trivial matters.
13. I always find fault with what others are doing.

- **Intention to Quit (Colarelli, 1984)**

In Colarelli (1984), the following items were anchored from strongly disagree (1) to strongly agree (5).

1. I frequently think of quitting my job.
2. If I have my own way, I will be working in my current employer one year from now.
3. I am planning to search for a new job during the next 12 months.

APPENDIX C- QUESTIONNAIRE IN TURKISH



YEDİTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu araştırma, Yeditepe Üniversitesi İngilizce İşletme bölümü bünyesinde, Prof. Dr. Ülkü Dicle danışmanlığında sürdürülen doktora tezi çalışmam kapsamında yapılmaktadır. Araştırma, bilişim teknolojileri alanında görev alan profesyonellerin iş yaşamındaki uygulamalara ilişkindir. Vereceğiniz cevaplar sadece ilgili bilimsel araştırma için kullanılacak ve kimliğiniz kesinlikle gizli tutulacaktır. Katılımınız için çok teşekkür ederim,

Tuna Cenkeci

I. BÖLÜM

Aşağıda bir kurumda çalışanların iş tanımlarında yer almayan ancak gönüllü olarak gerçekleştirdikleri birtakım davranışlar tanımlanmıştır. Bu tutum ve davranışları ne derece gerçekleştirdiğinizi “hiç katılmıyorum”dan “tamamen katılıyorum”a uzanan ölçek üzerinde seçeneklerden uygun gördüğünüzü “X” işareti koyarak belirtiniz.	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Çok Az Katılıyorum	Az Katılıyorum	Orduka Katılıyorum	Çok Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. İşinde geri kalmış olanlara yardım ederim.						
2. Uzmanlığımı gönüllü olarak başkalarıyla paylaşıyorum.						
3. İş arkadaşlarım arasında anlaşmazlık olduğunda arabuluculuk yapmaya çalışırım.						
4. İş arkadaşlarımın arasında problem çıkmaması için önlem almaya çalışırım.						
5. İşle ilgili problemi olanlara yardım etmek için gönüllü olarak zaman ayırırım.						
6. Başkalarını etkileyebilecek durumlarda harekete geçmeden önce onlarla görüşürüm.						
7. Morali bozuk olan iş arkadaşlarımı cesaretlendiririm.						
8. İş arkadaşlarımın daha başarılı olmaları için onlara yapıcı önerilerde bulunurum.						
9. Onaylanmayacağımı bilsem bile kuruluşun ve iş arkadaşlarımın iyiliği için inandığım görüşlerimi dile getiririm.						
10. Toplantılara aktif olarak katılır ve görüşlerimi ifade ederim.						

11. Olayların olumlu yönlerinden çok olumsuz yönlerine odaklanırım.						
12. Önemsiz sorunlardan şikayet ederek çok zaman harcarım.						
13. Başkalarının yaptıklarında sürekli hata bulurum.						

II. BÖLÜM

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadelere ne derece katıldığınıza ilişkin görüşünüzü verilen cevap aralığında belirtiniz.	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Çok Az Katılmıyorum	Az Katılmıyorum	Orduka Katılmıyorum	Çok Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1. Sık sık işimden ayrılmayı düşünürüm.						
2. İşler istediğim gibi giderse, gelecek yıl da bu işyerinde çalışıyor olacağım.						
3. Gelecek bir yıl içinde yeni bir iş aramayı planlıyorum.						

III. BÖLÜM

Aşağıdaki cümleler sizin yöneticinizle olan ilişkinizi tanımlamaya yöneliktir. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne derece katıldığınızı verilen cevap aralığında işaretleyiniz.	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Çok Az Katılmıyorum	Az Katılmıyorum	Orduka Katılmıyorum	Çok Katılmıyorum	Tamamen Katılmıyorum
1. Yöneticim hoş bir kişiliğe sahiptir.						
2. Yöneticim, emre itaatsizlik durumunda bana disiplin cezası uygulayabilir.						
3. Yöneticime işle ilgili konularda danışırım, çünkü genellikle o haklı çıkar.						
4. Yöneticim üstün başarılarımdan dolayı beni şirkette ödül için aday gösterebilir.						
5. İşle ilgili zor bir durumla karşılaştığımda, yöneticim işin nasıl yapılacağı konusunda aydınlatıcı teknik bilgi ve beceriye sahiptir.						
6. Yöneticimin ne yapmam gerektiğine karar vermesi onun hakkıdır.						
7. Yöneticim kendi uzmanlık alanında özel eğitim almıştır.						
8. Yöneticimin işle ilgili konularda benden işbirliği beklemesi doğaldır.						

9. Performansım sürekli olarak beklenenin altında olması durumunda yöneticim işime son verebilir.						
10. Yöneticim işimde ihtiyaç duyduğum uzmanlık bilgisine sahip değildir.						
11. Performansım gerçekten yüksek ise yöneticim kariyerimde ilerlemem için fırsatlar sağlar.						
12. Kendimi yöneticimle özdeşleştirmek istemem.						
13. Yöneticimin pozisyonu onun işyeri uygulamalarını benimsememi zorunlu kılar.						
14. İşe geç gelmeyi alışkanlık haline getirdiğimde, yöneticim beni cezalandırabilir.						
15. İşimi iyi yapsam bile yöneticim maaşımın artmasını sağlayamaz.						
16. İşimde yetersiz olduğumda yöneticim maaş zammı almamı engeller.						
17. Yöneticim kendi alanında uzman olduğu için onun önerilerine uyarım.						
18. Yöneticim işimi yaparken bana faydası olacak, hatırı sayılır bir iş deneyimine sahiptir.						
19. Yöneticimi herkese adil davrandığı için takdir ederim.						
20. Görevlerimi aksatarsam yöneticim beni işten çıkarabilir.						
21. Yöneticimin kişisel özelliklerini beğenirim.						
22. İşimle ilgili büyük çaba gösterdiğimde, yöneticim bunu maaş artışımı belirlerken dikkate alır.						
23. Yöneticimin benim iş yöntemlerimi değiştirme yetkisi yoktur.						
24. Yöneticimle iyi bir kişisel ilişki geliştirmek isterim.						
25. Yöneticim beraber çalışmaktan zevk alacağım tipte bir kişi değildir.						
26. Yöneticim ne isterse yapmalıyım çünkü o benim amirimdir.						
27. İyi bir performans değerlendirme aldığımda yöneticim beni primle ödüllendirebilir.						
28. Performansım sürekli olarak ortalamanın üstünde ise yöneticim terfi edilmem için beni önerebilir.						
29. Yöneticim benden direktiflerini yerine getirmemi bekleme hakkına sahiptir.						

IV. BÖLÜM

Yöneticinizle fikir ayrılığına düştüğünüz veya anlayamadığınız konular olabilir. Anketin bu kısmında, lütfen <u>yöneticinizin çalışanlarıyla bu tür anlaşmazlıklarda durumu nasıl yönettiğine ilişkin görüşlerinizi belirtiniz.</u> Soruları cevaplandırırken mümkün olduğunca çok sayıda, yakın zamanda karşılaştığınız anlaşmazlık durumlarını hatırlamaya çalışınız. Yöneticinizin davranışını en iyi yansıtan seçeneği verilen cevap aralığında işaretleyiniz. YÖNETİCİM:	Hiç	Çok Az	Az	Oldukça	Çok	Tamamen
	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılıyorum
1. Herkes için kabul edilebilir bir çözüm bulabilmek için sorunu bizimle birlikte incelemeye çalışır.						
2. Bizlerin ihtiyaçlarına cevap verebilmek için uğraşır.						
3. Bizlerle olan uyuşmazlıklarını gizleyerek zor durumda kalmamaya çalışır.						
4. Görüşlerini bizimkilerle birleştirerek ortak bir karar alınmasına çaba gösterir.						
5. Ortak beklentilerimizi karşılayacak şekilde sorunlara çözüm bulabilmek için bizimle işbirliği yapmaya çalışır.						
6. Bizimle olan fikir ayrılıklarını açıkça konuşmaktan genellikle kaçınır.						
7. İçinden çıkılmaz durumları çözmek için orta yolu bulmaya çalışır.						
8. Fikirlerini kabul ettirmek için baskı yapar.						
9. Kendi lehine karar alınması için otoritesini kullanır.						
10. İsteklerimizi genellikle karşılar.						
11. Bizlerin isteklerini sonunda kabul eder.						
12. Sorunları birlikte çözebilmek için bizimle tam ve doğru bilgi alışverişinde bulunur.						
13. Genellikle bizlere tavizkar davranır.						
14. Tam bir çıkmaz durumunda sorunları çözmek için genellikle ortak bir anlaşma zemini önerir.						
15. Ortak bir noktada birleşebilmek için bizimle görüşür.						
16. Bizimle fikir ayrılığına düşmekten kaçınır.						
17. Bizlerle herhangi bir konuda ters düşmemek için çalışır.						
18. Kendi lehine karar çıkarmak için uzmanlığını kullanır.						

19. Çoğunlukla bizlerin önerileri doğrultusunda hareket eder.						
20. Uzlaşma sağlanabilmesi için karşılıklı fedakârlık ilkesini kullanır.						
21. Genellikle kendi görüşünün kabul edilmesi için çok ısrar eder.						
22. Sorunların en iyi şekilde çözülmesi için herkesin endişelerini açıkça dile getirmesine çalışır.						
23. Hepimizce kabul edilebilir çözümler üretebilmek için bizimle iş birliği yapar.						
24. Bizlerin beklentilerini karşılamaya çalışır.						
25. Rekabet içeren bir durumda kazanmak için işyerindeki gücünü kullanır.						
26. Karşılıklı gücencmeleri önlemek için fikirlerimize katılmadığında bunu kimse ile paylaşmaz.						
27. Bizlerle hoş olmayan tartışmalardan kaçınır.						
28. Sorunun tam olarak anlaşılabilmesi için bizlerle beraber çalışır.						

V. BÖLÜM

Kuruluşlarda üyeler genellikle yöneticilerinin onlardan istediklerini yaparlar. Amirinizin sizden yapmanızı istediği şeyleri ne derece yaptığınızı veya yapmayı tercih ettiğinizi verilen cevap aralığında işaretleyiniz.	Hiç		Çok Az		Az		Orduka		Çok		Tamamen	
	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Katılıyorum
1. Yöneticimin önerilerine uymayı tercih ederim.												
2. Yöneticimin emirlerine eksiksiz uyarım.												
3. Yöneticimin önerdiği şeyleri yaparım.												
4. Yöneticimin emirlerini uygulamaktan hoşlanmam.												
5. Yöneticimin direktiflerine uymamayı tercih ederim.												
6. Yöneticimin işyeri yönergelerine uyarım.												
7. Yöneticimin işyeri yönergelerine uymayı tercih ederim.												
8. Yöneticimin talimatlarına uyarım.												

VI. BÖLÜM

Lütfen aşağıdaki sorulara cevap veriniz:

1. Cinsiyetiniz: Kadın () Erkek ()
2. Yaşınız: _____
3. Medeni Durumunuz: Evli () Bekar ()
4. En son *mezun olduğunuz* eğitim kurumu:
İlköğretim ()
Lise ()
Üniversite ()
Yüksek Lisans ()
Doktora ()
5. Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatındasınız? _____
6. Şimdiki işyerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? _____
7. Şirketiniz hangi sektörde faaliyet göstermektedir? (Örneğin imalat, yazılım, finans, eğitim, sağlık vb). _____
8. Şirket içindeki pozisyonunuz:
Üst kademe yönetici () Orta kademe yönetici () Personel ()

APPENDIX D- INDUSTRY LIST (based on European Communities, 2008)

- 1.** Agriculture, forestry and fishing
- 2.** Mining and quarrying
- 3.** Manufacturing
- 4.** Electricity, gas, steam and air conditioning supply
- 5.** Water supply; sewerage, waste management and remediation activities
- 6.** Construction
- 7.** Wholesale and retail trade; repair of motor vehicles and motorcycles
- 8.** Transportation and storage
- 9.** Accommodation and food service activities
- 10.** Financial and insurance activities
- 11.** Real estate activities
- 12.** Professional, scientific and technical activities
- 13.** Administrative and support service activities
- 14.** Public administration and defense; compulsory social security
- 15.** Education
- 16.** Human health and social work activities
- 17.** Arts, entertainment and recreation
- 18.** Other service activities
- 19.** Activities of households as employers; undifferentiated goods- and services-producing activities of households for own use
- 20.** Activities of extraterritorial organizations and bodies
- 21.** Information and communication
 - 21.1.** Publishing activities
 - 21.2.** Motion Picture video and television programme production, sound recording and music publishing activities
 - 21.3.** Programming and broadcasting activities
 - 21.4.** Telecommunications
 - 21.5.** Computer programming, consultancy and related activities
 - 21.6.** Information service activities

APPENDIX E- REGRESSION ANALYSIS RESULTS

Regression Analyses for Compliance with Supervisor's Wishes

Dependent Variable: Behavioral Compliance (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.246	3.534	.000
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	.026	.584	.279
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	.168	3.596	.000
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.244	4.123	.000
Reward Power (Factor 2)	.027	.550	.291
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.035	.892	.186
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.482	11.668	.000

R=.766; Adjusted R² = .578; F value= 69.904; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Attitudinal Compliance (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	-.066	-.714	.238
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.179	-3.078	.001
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	-.280	-4.506	.000
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.362	4.601	.000
Reward Power (Factor 2)	-.031	-.467	.320
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.079	1.513	.065
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.179	3.246	.000

R= .518; Adjusted R² = .254; F value= 18.090; p value= .000

* One-tailed t-test significances

Regression Analyses for Organizational Citizenship Behavior

Dependent Variable: Helping (Factor 1)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.214	2.099	.018
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.019	-.296	.384
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	.101	1.472	.071
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.063	.732	.232
Reward Power (Factor 2)	-.043	-.595	.276
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.018	.307	.379
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.216	3.563	.000

R= .337; Adjusted R² = .095; F value= 6.300; p value= .000

Dependent Variable: Civic Virtue (Factor 2)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	.249	2.387	.009
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.067	-1.024	.153
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	.178	2.553	.005
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	-.044	-.491	.312
Reward Power (Factor 2)	.076	1.026	.153
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.069	1.179	.119
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.093	1.509	.066

R= .268; Adjusted R² = .053; F value= 3.814; p value= .001

Dependent Variable: Sportsmanship (Factor 3)

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	-.056	-.530	.298
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.026	-.395	.346
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	-.140	-1.988	.024
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	.130	1.457	.073
Reward Power (Factor 2)	.062	.831	.203
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.029	.497	.309
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	-.158	-2.528	.006

R=.241; Adjusted R² = .039; F value= 3.036; p value= .004

* One-tailed t-test significance

Regression Analyses for Intention to Quit

Dependent Variable: Intention to Quit

Independent Variables:	Beta	t value	p value*
Cooperative Style (Factor 1)	-.060	-.629	.265
Avoiding Style (Factor 2)	-.002	-.035	.486
Dominating Style (Factor 3)	-.051	-.794	.214
Expert and Referent Power (Factor 1)	-.261	-3.206	.000
Reward Power (Factor 2)	-.243	-3.585	.000
Coercive Power (Factor 3)	.043	.795	.213
Legitimate Power (Factor 4)	.064	1.126	.130

R=.469; Adjusted R² = .204; F value= 13.874; p value= .000

* One-tailed t-test significances

CURRICULUM VITAE

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EDUCATION

Business Administration Doctorate Program, 2008 - 2013

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EMPLOYMENT

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PUBLICATIONS AND PRESENTATIONS

- *Journal Article* (co-authored with A.B. Ötken): “The Impact of Paternalistic Leadership on Ethical Climate: Investigating the Moderating Role of Trust in Leader”, 2012, *Journal of Business Ethics*, Volume 108, Issue 4, p. 525-536.
- *Journal Article*, January 2013, (co-authored with A.B. Ötken), “Beş Faktör Kişilik Özellikleri ve Örgütsel Muhalefet İlişkisi Üzerine Bir Araştırma”, *Öneri Journal of Marmara University*, 39, 19, 10, p. 41-51.
- *Presentation and Full Manuscript Publication*: “The Impact of Leader Power on

Employee Outcomes: The Case of Information Technology Professionals in Turkey”, February 27 - March 1, 2013, North American Management Society 2013 Conference, Chicago, IL, U.S.A.

- *Presentation and Full Manuscript Publication* (co-authored with A.B. Ötken): “The Influence of Organizational Climate on Employee Dissent in Turkey”, March 3-4, 2012, University of Riverside, Global Mindset Development in Leadership and Management Conference Proceedings, Los Angeles, CA, U.S.A, p. 106-130.
- *Presentation and Extended Abstract Publication:* (co-authored with Ü. Dicle & A.B. Ötken): “Liderin Gücü ve Çatışma Yönetimi Yaklaşımlarının Bilişim Teknolojisi Çalışanlarının Uyum ve İşten Ayrılma Niyetine Etkilerinin İncelenmesi”, May 30 - July 1, 2013, 21. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı, Kütahya, Turkey, p. 654-665.
- *Presentation and Extended Abstract Publication:* (co-authored with A.B. Ötken), “Beş Faktör Kişilik Özellikleri ve Örgütsel Muhalefet İlişkisi Üzerine Bir Araştırma”, May 24-26, 2012, 20. Ulusal Yönetim ve Organizasyon Kongresi Bildiriler Kitabı, İzmir, Turkey, p. 359-363.

MEMBERSHIPS AND PROFESSIONAL ACTIVITIES

- As a Member of *Academy of Management*, attended 2011 Annual Meeting of the Academy of Management in San Antonio, Texas, USA, August 12-16.
- Service:
 - Ad Hoc Reviewer for *Asian Journal of Business Ethics*.
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- Member of *Junior Chamber International (JCI)* Istanbul, 2011-Present.
- Member of *Toastmasters International* Istanbul, 2012-Present.