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İNGİLİZCE İŞLETME BÖLÜMÜ
ORGANIZATIONAL BEHAVIOR
ANA BİLİM DALI**

**PREFERRING A CAREER
MANAGEMENT SYSTEM:
JAPANESE VERSUS AMERICAN
(MASTER THESIS)**

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ÖZET

Çalışmanın amacı; çalışanların ,iki farklı yönetim sisteminin (Japon ve Amerikan) değişik yönleri arasında yaptıkları tercihi ölçmemizi ve anlamamız sağlayabilecek bir ölçek geliştirmektir.

Her iki yönetim sistemi incelendiğinde, bu iki sistemin , yapısal ve felsefik farklar gösterdiği anlaşılmıştır.Bu farklar beş ana noktada toplanarak özetlendi. Biri demografik , diğeri tercih ölçeği olmak üzere iki anket yardımı ile "demografik değişkenlere göre tercihler" listelenmiştir.

ABSTRACT

The purpose of the study is to develop a scale to measure and understand the employees' preferences between the different aspects of the two different human resource management systems namely the American (Western) style management and the Japanese style management.

After the analysis of the two management systems , it is observed that these two systems have quite different structures and philosophies. These differences were resumed under five main points . Via two questionnaires; one being the demographic and the other testing the perceptual preferences of the subjects between the two systems, a list of perception preferences according to the demographic variables is prepared.

PROBLEM FORMULATION AND DEFINITION

various

As the work of the economy becomes more intertwined with the subtle , fast moving realms of technology (including information processes, systems and structures) there is an ever greater demand for employees who can handle change while maintaining focus and commitment to targeted landfalls. In the economy of the 1990s , opportunities and problems will come so fast that there won't be time for executives to work out each new strategic transaction in advance. In many cases new job designs or processes will have to be created immediately by the workers themselves. This new way of working will require confidence, collaboration and trust.

Developing and maintaining this level of engagement requires career management practices that are soundly based and well understood. New thinking

about how people function at work must be put into action . "High touch "(managing the psyche) must engender the same respect as "high tech "(managing the process). No set of mechanical work practices can replace the inherent potential of a team of committed individuals with the will to win and the vision to generate quality work.

The first step in upgrading the career management practices is to look beyond rhetoric and carefully examine the underlying assumptions that define the organization`s relationship to its employees. In addition one must test espoused beliefs against actual operating practices. Most of the current difficulties grow out of a conflict between human values and corporate financial needs. Since human values are not reflected on ledger sheets , they haven`t received the amount of attention they deserve. As a result the viability of the work force has been eroded through disappointment, unfulfilled expectations and callous management practices.

Successful companies will resolve the conflict

between these values and needs in a way that demonstrates strong agreement and an aligned vision.

(Jackson, Vitberg ; 1987)

While trying to manage the "high touch "as well as the "high tech " one should examine the nature and needs of the workforce in order to adopt the right system of human resource management. Chosing the right one among the various different human resource management systems in the world, (we are interested in the particular two of them in the scope of this study;n amely the American and the Japanese types) ,is quite an important task and needs a good deal of research and well understanding of common needs and values of the workforce in question.

This study aims at finding out the differences between these two management systems and conducting a research to reveal the preferences of a sample group work force between the two management systems.

PURPOSE OF THE STUDY

The general purpose of the study is to develop a scale to measure and understand the employees' preferences between the different aspects of American and Japanese styles of human resource management.

More specifically ,the questionnaire aimed to measure whether there is a relationship between the demographic variables (sex, age, tenure and educational level) and the preference of the two different styles of management in five different aspects (specialization, life time employment, career planning, team work and social integration) of these two human resource management systems.

INTRODUCTION AND LITERATURE REVIEW

This chapter consists of theoretical foundations of the American and Japanese type management systems and a comparison between them :

Formal organizational career management programs are increasingly a part of many firms' overall human resource strategies. Organizations often decide to adopt such programs in the belief that they will be of benefit to individual performance and development and will increase employees' commitment. (Granrose, Portwood ;1987)

Today , an increasing number of personnel departments see career planning as a viable way to meet their internal staffing needs. Although this service may be limited to managerial, professional and technical

employees because of available funds, ideally all workers should be able to receive career planning.

When employers encourage career planning, employees are more likely to set career goals and work toward them. In turn these goals may motivate employees to pursue further education, training and other career development activities. These learning activities then improve the value of employees to the organization and give the personnel department a larger pool of qualified applicants from which to fill internal job openings.

Personnel departments should and increasingly do take an active interest in employee career planning. (Werther, Davis;1985) For example in one survey of 210 employees with career management programs , the personnel department is responsible for this activity in over 60 per cent of the cases. (Walker, Gutteridge;1979)

Personnel departments often handle career planning because their human resource plans indicate the organization`s future employment needs and related

career opportunities. In addition personnel experts are more likely to be aware of training and other developmental opportunities . Of course individual managers should also encourage career planning. However if personnel specialists leave career planning to managers, it may not get done. Not all managers take a strong interest in their employees` careers.

The involvement of personnel managers in career planning has grown recently because of its benefits. Here is a partial list of those benefits :(Werther,Davis;1985)

a) Develops promotable employees : career planning helps to develop internal supplies of promotable talent.

b) Lowers turnover: the increased attention and concern for individual career generate more organizational loyalty.

c) Taps employee potential: career planning encourages employees to tap more of their potential abilities because they have specific career goals.

d) Furthers growth: career plans and goals motivate employees to grow and develop.

e) Reduces hoarding : without career planning it is easier for managers to hoard key subordinates. Career planning causes employees , managers and the personnel department to become aware of employee qualifications.

f) Satisfies employee needs: with less hoarding and improved growth opportunities for employees, an individual's esteem needs , such as recognition and accomplishment are more readily satisfied.

g) Assists affirmative action plans: career planning can help members of protected groups prepare for more important jobs. This preparation can contribute to meeting affirmative action timetables.

In practice , personnel departments encourage career planning through career education , information , counselling and management support.

CAREER EDUCATION: Many employees know very little about career planning. Often they are unaware of

the need for and the advantages of career planning. And once made aware , they often lack the necessary information to plan their careers successfully. Personnel departments are suited to solve both of these shortcomings, and they can increase employee awareness through a variety of educational techniques. For example, speeches, memoranda and position papers from top executives stimulate employee interest at low cost to the employer. If the executives communicate their belief in career planning, other managers are likely to do the same. (Werther, Davis; 1985)

Workshops and seminars on career planning increase employee interest by pointing out the key concepts associated with career planning. (Bowen, Hall 1977)

INFORMATION ON CAREER PLANNING: Regardless of the educational strategy the personnel department selects, it should provide employees with other information they need to plan their careers. (Werther, Davis ;1985) For example one research study showed that

after being exposed to a career planning program, employees had a significantly increased knowledge of how to initiate a career change. (Eng , Gottsdanker ; 1979)

CAREER COUNSELLING: To help employees establish career goals and find appropriate career paths , some personnel departments offer career counselling. The career counsellor may simply be someone who listens to the employee`s interests and provides the specific job related information (Gambill; 1979) Or the counselor may help employees uncover their interests by administering and interpreting aptitudes and skills tests. (Werther, Davis 1985)

MANAGEMENT SUPPORT

Efforts by the personnel department to encourage career development have little impact unless supported by managers. Commitment by top management is crucial. Without it middle level managers may show much less support of their subordinates` career concerns. This commitment must go beyond mere permission ; Top

management must lead through example by taking an active interest in the career plans of middle level managers. Many North American and European managers do not have a tradition of giving meaningful peer recognition to those who voluntarily support employee development , but such recognition is common among managers in Japan. (Werther, Davis ;1985)



A DIFFERENT APPROACH: CAREER DEVELOPMENT IN

A JAPANESE STYLE MANAGED FIRM

It is true : Japanese companies really are different, and training and development play an important role in that difference. (Stern, Muta ; 1990)

The sole natural resource which Japan has at her disposal is her people. With just 2.6 per cent of the world`s population and 0.1 per cent of its inhabitable area she generates 10 per cent of the world`s economic value. (Stern, Muta;1990)

A very important feature of Japanese organizations is their development of individual careers. This is a system contrasting with the western system of specialization; giving employees an organization-wide knowledge about all the activities in that particular firm.

In a Japanese style human resource management system the typical career path of a new employee who`s

just out of the university would be as follows. He enters in a management trainee position in a bank. He will spend perhaps a year just meeting people and learning his way around while working on various assignments. Then he will be sent out to a branch to learn bank operations , including working with tellers and managing the flow of information , paper and people. From there he will be brought back into headquarters to learn commercial banking, then back out to yet another branch to make small consumer loans .From there he may come again to headquarters, this time to a position in the personnel department ; an important activity he must be familiar with. At about this time ten years will have passed he will gain his first major promotion (may be a section chief) In this capacity he will move to another branch in charge of a new business and then once more again to the headquarters with again a different task. By the time he reaches the peak of his career he will be an expert in taking every function , every specialty and every office of the bank and knitting them together into one

integrated whole . (Ouchi;1987)

The typical Japanese bank will not have an expert with a detailed knowledge about one industry. That is a weakness of the Japanese system of life-long job rotation . However when it comes time to achieve coordination across functions, the Japanese form has advantages. When coordination is necessary , a high level of cooperation exists because every employee knows he will continue through his career to move between functions and offices. So the person from another department who is asking for assistance today may be the person who will be his coworker or even the superior tomorrow. That provides an incentive for taking a broad, organization-wide point of view and for cooperating with everyone.

It is highly likely that when people spend their entire careers within one specialty like Western model, they tend to develop subgoals devoted to that specialty rather than to the whole firm and the quality of cooperation decreases. (Ouchi ;1987)

In the west, people conduct their careers between organizations but within a single specialty . Specialization involves breaking jobs into their finest components (as suggested by Taylor and his disciples). Task specialization has six clearly recognizable advantages; (Strauss,Sayles;1972)

a)It reduces training costs; for a worker learns more quickly when he concentrates on a single function.

b)It avoids the waste of time involved in shifting a man from one kind of job to another and enables each man fully to develop his skills for a particular job.

c)It makes unnecessary the duplication of equipment that would otherwise be used on only a part time basis.

d)It enables the company to purchase more specialized equipment.

e)It simplifies the problem of developing job controls.

f)It reduces the wage costs by making it possible to hire less skilled workers.

Managers sometimes believe they can get something for nothing. They can get the advantages of increased specialization by dividing up more complex jobs into simpler jobs. But they ignore the possibility that the problems of coordination so created may more than outweigh the advantages gained. (Strauss,Sayles;1972)

In Japanese model however , people conduct their specialties between specialties but within a single organization. In the West, transfers among different organizations is much more frequent and a specialist moving from one company to another can be working effectively within five days. Full productivity takes longer but contributions begin right away. In Japan it is difficult to take a worker from one company to another and expect him to be fully productive , since Japanese do not specialize only in a technical field , they also specialize in an organization in learning how to make a specific, unique business operate as well as it possibly can. (Ouchi; 1987)

The term **shushin koyou** is used in Japan to describe an ideal employment condition , one that could last for a long time ; lifetime employment. It is clear that Japanese workers change jobs less often than U.S.workers. The expectations of many Japanese workers that they should and will work for the same company for a long time guides their action at work. Among U.S. employers and workers on the other hand, movement between companies is often a sign of healthy growth for both the employee and the company. (Stern, Muta ; 1990)

One effect of lifelong job rotation of Japanese style management is employer incentives to develop the skills and the commitment of their employees. The notion of lifetime employment cuts down on worker restlessness and insecurity and creates an atmosphere of cooperation and harmony from the corporate viewpoint, lifetime employment provides a rationale for the training of new employees. This makes sense only if it is assumed that trainees will be more or less permanent

employees. (Hasegawa ; 1983) In The U.S. employers are reluctant to invest in employees in new technical skills because the skilled employee can easily find another employer , taking along all that investment . Consequently companies in the U.S.A. do much less training than they could. (Ouchi ; 1987)

In the West , orientation programs attempt to create a favorable impression of the organization and provide more specific information about the tasks of the job and its relationships to the organization as a whole. These activities are becoming increasingly important because of high voluntary turnover of new employees . Turnover results in lost investments in training and increased expenses in recruiting and selecting replacements. (Holley, Jennings; 1987)

In the lifetime employment system, employees along with management, firmly believe in the principle of lifetime belonging , so newly hired personnel naturally acquire a strong feeling of belonging and commitment to their company.

A Japanese company committed to lifetime employment will go to great lengths to build loyalty among its employees by ensuring fair and humane treatment . In the U.S.A. by comparison, an alienated , disgruntled employee can be laid off during the next downswing of the business cycle and thus represents only a short term burden to the employer. The problem is purely one of incentives. People committed to long term relationships with one another have strong commitments to behave responsively and equitably towards one another.

The Japanese understand that even a manager of good intentions can do no more than respond to the objectives that seem to him right and proper. Inevitably managers in large organizations develop local objectives, that further the performance of their local operation ; but that could lead them away in directions not best for the firm as a whole . In case of selecting people for job transfers and promotions through their career paths , the problem of local objectives is crystallized. Typically,

the decision on whether or not to move an employee to a new position is influenced most heavily by a consultation between the candidate and an immediate superior. Typically the employee has been performing well and is being considered for a new challenge. This will often turn out to be a very similar position in the same department or division. After all, this person's skills are needed for the success of the department. A raise and promotion recognize and rewards the performance. This inescapable but local reasoning leads invariably to a narrow specialization of talents. The Japanese, understanding the power of local objectives, have removed the job assignment decision from local managers and have put all such decisions under the purview of personnel department. To enforce broader corporate objectives in the face of local objections, personnel becomes the most potent force within the organization, capable of overruling even a division head who wants to keep the best talent right where it is. Here neither the employee nor his boss can exercise their

first choice . Clearly such a system must contain strong safeguards against the abuse of such centralized power, or else the organization ultimately decays and its employees will be mistreated.

The Japanese and the American approaches to career development have both succeeded . Each has its own peculiar strengths and weaknesses. The great strength of the American approach lies in the capacity to organize its specialized workers into a coordinated workforce. Each worker can perform a specialty in any work setting and thus can move from one city to another and from one employer to another with ease. This innovation made widespread industrial production possible . Industrial production can succeed only if technical experts can be brought together in a coordinated fashion. In the highly mobile society of today, production would never advance rapidly if each company employed a unique set of skills and a different kind of worker. Every company would be spending so much time teaching its methods that the productivity

would be dismal. Given specialization and professionalization , workers can be nomads committed for a lifetime to their profession but loyal to no one employer.

The weaknesses of the American form is that workers can never be intimately integrated with one another.They can achieve a loose coupling of effort ; they can coordinate so long as there is no call for understanding of anything beyond their own specialty. If the right specialties can be put together, then the structure will work. But if the production process requires that each specialist modify goals or talents or develop a unique set of skills , then this approach is unlikely to succeed.

This company based orientation and the mode of formation away from specialization in the Japanese style managed firms leads to more concrete and centrally determined career paths. (Ouchi ; 1987)

According to the individual perspective of the American type personnel management, people have some

degree of control over their destiny and can manipulate opportunities in order to maximize career success and satisfaction. Human resource activities should recognize career stages and assist employees with the developmental tasks faced at each stage. Planning is important because the consequences of career success or failure are closely linked with the individual's self concept and identity as well as career and life satisfaction. A study of one group of employees revealed five factors which they concern in common:

a) Career Equity : Employees want to perceive equity in the organization's performance and promotion system with respect to career advancement opportunities.

b) Supervisory Concern : Employees want their supervisors to play an active role in career development and to provide timely performance feedback.

c) Awareness of opportunities : Employees want knowledge of the career opportunities that exist in their organization.

d) Employee Interest : Employees need different amount of information and have different degrees of interest in career advancement depending on a variety of factors.

e) Career Satisfaction : Employees depending on their age and occupation, have different levels of career satisfaction. (Rottenbach ; 1982)

Another perspective prevailing in the American type firms is the organizational perspective which stresses , like the Japanese model , the needs of the organization when allocating human resources. From this perspective , career is something that is not simply left to employees ,instead it may be managed by the organization in order to ensure the efficient allocation of human and capital resources. But still the starting point for this perspective is the determination of what career sequences and rates of mobility are present in an organization. (Rowland, Ferris ; 1989) In a study by J. Walker, a traditional career path within a group of engineering positions in a major oil company was

introduced pointing a particular career path for each occupational group within the firm. This created an impression among engineers that career opportunities were quite restricted. There has been resulting turnover and expressed dissatisfaction among young engineers (Walker ; 1976) . Generally speaking for the western labor market ; the mobility within one firm and that among different firms largely depends on economic conditions. The demand for organizational products is likely to increase the demand for labor within the organization , which in turn increases vacancies and the rate of movement within the career sequence. Labor market may also have a strong impact. When a large number of jobs are available in the economy, people are more likely to consider to quitting their present job which creates opportunities within the system increasing the overall rate of mobility. Economic recessions also effect the labor market and as far as the labor unions allow , lay-offs are generally seen as a way out by the employer. (Anderson, Milkowitch ; 1980 and

Stoikov , Raimon ; 1968) But in the Japanese system , workers naturally consider business fluctuations to be forces beyond their control. Since they are not personally responsible for recessions they feel it unfair that they should loose their jobs at the first sign of trouble. The Japanese system lessens these fears. A company in distress will exhaust every alternative before resorting to layoffs . First, management will make large scale reductions in the pay of top executives, followed by the cuts in the salaries of the managerial staff. Next , dividents to share holders will be slashed.If these and other cost cutting steps prove insufficient then and only then will management begin to discharge workers.This action will be accepted with relative equanimity by Japanese employees because they recognize it as an unavoidable last resort to save the company. (Ouchi ; 1987)

But when studying the Japanese system of lifetime employment, we should always take into consideration the three factors backing up this system:

First, every major firm in Japan pays all of its employees a large share of their compensation in the form of a bonus . Since all employees receive the same fraction of their salary , the amount is not contingent on individual performance, but only on the performance of the firm. This compensation method in part shifts the entrepreneurial risks of business from stock holders to the employees who suffer through bad years and prosper in good years. Bonuses give employees an incentive to feel a part of the firm and motivate them to cooperate in any way that they can. This system allows a firm to pay small bonuses in a bad year or even defer the payment.

Thus a firm can cut its payroll by perhaps thirty per cent without laying anyone off. When good times return , an experienced and loyal workforce is ready to go. In a good year they receive a large bonus and tend to save a large fraction of it . This effect has given Japan a rate of savings and capital formation four times that of the U.S.A.

Second, every major firm in Japan has a category

of temporary employees who are mostly women. Even today it is rare that a major Japanese firm will hire a woman into professional and managerial jobs. Women are always considered temporary employees and laid off during slack periods. Women serve as a buffer to protect the job stability of men.

Third in the market there are satellite firms which exist largely at the pleasure and at the mercy of the major firms and they have little hope of ever growing into major competitors. Because a small number of major firms dominate the industries and because the government encourages the creation of large firms , small firms can only grow in new markets. They generally cannot obtain licences to import the raw materials needed to manufacture in major industries. The major firms contract out to them those services most susceptible to fluctuation , with the result that during recession , the small firms will sharply contract or go out of business.

The combination of these three factors provides a

substantial buffer against uncertainty that makes stable lifetime employment a reality for the male employees of the major firms. This structure distributes the social cost in a way different in the West and to some extent , in ways we would find unacceptable. (Ouchi ; 1987)

Another but yet equally important factor which establishes the appropriate grounds for the Japanese type management is the structure of communal responsibility. Sociologists have long maintained that intimacy is an essential ingredient in a healthy society. Once the intimacy in a society begins to disintegrate , the process feeds on itself. People who have not developed a sense of communal responsibility in one setting will loose their general sense of community .A society which loses its capacity for intimacy in one generation may be producing children who have a permanantly diminished sense of community. The result will be a dust heap of individuals without connections with one another.

In the contemporary western mind , there is

apparently the idea that intimacy should only be supplied from certain sources. The religious settings , the family, and other traditional institutions are the only legitimate sources of intimacy. " Personal feelings have no place at work " is the common feeling. Yet we are faced with an anomaly . In the Japanese example , we find a successful industrial society in which intimacy occurs in the place of work as well as other settings. This feeling of intimacy is a good backup for the lifetime employment philosophy (Homans ; 1950).

By using the theoretical explanations about the two management systems, five main points in which these two management systems demonstrate clear differences are defined. These points are ; specialization, life time employment, career planning, team work and social integration. These differences are expressed in the questionnaire (see appendix) so that the subjects can make their preference out of the two conflicting views.

METHOD

This chapter discusses the research approach and design, subject selection , instrumentation and data collection.

SUBJECTS

The data gathering instruments were administered on volunteer basis at different departments at the Head Quarter of T.Garanti Bankasi A.S.

Random sampling technique was adopted in the distribution of the tests. Subjects were from varying hierarchical levels with differing demographical conditions . Neither names nor any other identity information were demanded of the subjects to ensure their feeling safe and answering correctly.

86 questionnaires out of distributed 100 were returned and included into the process. (0.86 return rate)

INSTRUMENTS

An original questionnaire was developed for this study, because among the tested and previously used questionnaires there was not found anyone to serve our purpose.

While developing the questionnaire , the first step was to analyse and find out the main differences between the two management systems . Five such dimensions were resumed and expressed in the questionnaire in fictious firm cases. For each dimension , the conflicting natures of the two management systems were expressed in case forms and for each dimension two cases were prepared; one for the American and one for the Japanese system .Thus the subjects were to indicate the degree of their preferences toward each case on a seven point scale (see Appendix). Negative correlation was expected between the responses to the two different management systems for each case seperately. A pilot study was conducted to secure the

internal validity and reliability of the questionnaire. The sample group was smaller in the pilot study (30 subjects). The expressions of the cases were altered depending on the pilot study findings with the aim of having a more understandable and clearly defined questionnaire.

A second questionnaire used was a demographic one questioning the sex, age, educational status and the duration (time spent in the organization) of the subjects.

PROCEDURE

The questionnaires were distributed via the internal post service of the bank and returned from the same channel. There was not a direct contact between the researcher and the subjects because the researcher currently works at the Personnel division of the bank and the subjects might have misunderstood the aim of the study if there were a direct contact between themselves and an officer of the Personnel division.

STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

A correlational survey approach was utilized in this research to investigate the relationships between the employees' preferences between the American and the Japanese style management systems.

The internal consistency of the questionnaire was tested utilizing factor analysis as the relevant cases of each management style (Japanese versus American) were expected to fall in one factor. This was an initial evidence for constructing validity as well. A further evidence for internal consistency was produced via correlation matrix to test the degree of "presumed" negative relationships between the different management styles indicated in each case.

A t test was employed to determine which one of the cases revealed a significant difference in the subject group with various demographic variables.

Correlation matrix for 10 variables and paired t test tables and mean tables were used in the evaluation of the results.

SCOPE OF THE STUDY

The study was limited to those subjects who were willing to participate in the research. In addition it was limited by the frankness of those subjects who completed the instrument.

The study was further limited by the validity and reliability of the measuring instruments and the questionnaire developed in this study is subject to more statistical articulation in these aspects in subsequent studies.

Finally the findings are valid to the sample group and cannot be generalized to the population.

IN THIS STUDY, THE TERMS "AMERICAN TYPE MANAGEMENT AND JAPANESE TYPE MANAGEMENT" REFER TO CAREER MANAGEMENT SYSTEMS OF THESE COUNTRIES.

RESULTS

FACTOR ANALYSIS

The cases of the questionnaire were subjected to confirmatory factor analysis with the principal component factoring extraction method , since a two factor solution would provide the most efficient and consistent alternative for the purpose of the study.

The two factor solution accounted for about 47% of the total variance ; each factor having Eigenvalues in excess of unity. The results provided high evidence for the internal consistency (construct validity) of the questionnaire as each factor combined of the cases of different management style without any deletions.

The loadings of cases on each factor are shown in table 1.

CORRELATIONAL STUDY RESULTS

The inter-case correlations for the questionnaire can be seen at Table 2 . The correlations indicate a negative relationship between the two management

systems . The largest correlation coefficient is the one between the Japanese type "social integration" and American type "social integration" (-.553) claiming a relatively high negative correlation when compared to other dimensions. The smallest correlation coefficient is for the life time employment case which is -.078. Although this value is small in volume it still has a negative direction.



Factor Analysis Results

Table 1 Eigenvalues and Proportion Variances

MANAGM. STYLE	CASE NAME	FACTORS		VARIANCE PROPORT. OF F1	VARIANCE PROPORT. OF F2
		1	2		
JAPANESE	SPECIALIZAT.	.62		.28	.19
	LIFE TIME EMP.	.60			
	CAREER PLAN.	.66			
	TEAM WORK	.62			
	SOCIAL INTEGR.	.81			
AMERICAN	SPECIALIZAT.		.72		
	LIFE TIME EMP.		.72		
	CAREER PLAN.		.81		
	TEAM WORK		.58		
	SOCIAL INTEGR.		.47		

TABLE 2 CORRELATIONS

J \ A	SPECIALZ.	L.T.EMPLY.	CAR.PLAN	TEAM WR.	SOC.INTEG.
SPECIALZ.	-.228	-.160	-.322	.181	-.009
L.T.EMPLY.	-.096	-.078 ^v	-.028	-.027	.060
CAR.PLAN	-.099	.048	-.323	.133	-.093
TEAM WR.	-.111	-.062	-.047	-.167	.079
SOC.INTEG.	-.014	-.031	-.110	-.187	-.553 ^k

A: American

J: Japanese

SPECIALZ.: Specialization

L.T.EMPLY. :Life Time Employment

CAR.PLAN :Career Planning

TEAM WR. :Team Work

SOC.INTEG. :Social Integration

T TEST RESULTS

Tables 3, 4, 5, 6, and 7 present the t test results of the whole group based on comparisons between various demographic characteristics. Only significant findings are given on these tables. On the last column of the tables ; the letters A and B stand for American and Japanese styles respectively and reflect the preferred management style for each dimension.

At Table 3 the whole group t test results and means for the cases are presented. As a whole , in three dimensions out of four Japanese style is preferred to American style.

Table 4 presents the sex based t test results. Males prefer Japanese style on four dimensions. Females on the other hand prefer three of the Japanese style dimensions being undecisive on "specialization" and " social integration" .

Table 3

T TEST RESULTS OF THE WHOLE GROUP

CASES	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	t	P	EXPLANATION
SPECIAL.	4.37	3.14	2.46	.01	A PREFERRED
L.T.EMPL.	2.45	4.93	9.20	.00	B PREFERRED
TEAM WORK	3.56	5.57	7.45	.00	B PREFERRED
SOC.INTEGR.	3.18	5.12	5.58	.00	B PREFERRED

Table 4 T TEST RESULTS OF THE TWO SEXES

	CASES	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	t	P	EXPLANATION
MALES	SPECIAL.	4.06	5.23	3.03	.00	B PREFERRED
	LIFE T.EMP.	2.52	5.17	7.05	.00	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WORK	3.61	5.54	5.47	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEGR.	2.94	5.44	6.87	.00	B PREFERRED
FEMALES	LIFE T.EMP.	2.35	4.56	6.04	.00	B PREFERRED
	CAREER PL.	4.12	3.14	-2.00	.05	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WORK	3.47	5.62	5.03	.00	B PREFERRED

Table 5 presents the t test results and means of different age groups. The largest mean difference for the old age group occurred for the life time employment preference favoring Japanese type life time employment (3.61). The only American management style preference is for " career planning" at the young group. Other results all in favor of Japanese style management at every age group.

At table 6 , the t test results and means of differing tenure groups are presented . Those who are in the organization for less than one year prefer American style for "career planning " and Japanese style for "team work". The group is undecided on other three dimensions. Those who are in the organization from one to three years make significant preference on five dimensions where "specialization " and "career planning" are preferred in American style , and "life time employment", "team work" , "social integration" are preferred in Japanese style. Those having more than three years of tenure prefer Japanese style in all dimensions.

Table 5 T EST RESULTS OF DIFFERENT AGE GROUPS

	CASES	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	t	P	EXPLANATION
YOUNG (<25)	L.T.EMP.	2.95	4.19	2.03	.05	B PREFERRED
	CAR.PLN.	5.33	2.62	-5.5	.00	A PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.47	5.81	4.12	.00	B PREFERRED
MIDDLE AGED (25-35)	L.T.EMP.	2.25	4.64	6.44	.00	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.46	5.44	4.72	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTG.	3.20	4.72	2.84	.00	B PREFERRED
OLD (>35)	SPECIAL.	3.58	6.19	6.8	.00	B PREFERRED
	L.T.EMP.	2.35	5.96	9.03	.00	B PREFERRED
	CA.PLAN.	2.27	4.77	3.04	.00	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.77	5.58	3.95	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTG.	2.73	5.92	8.14	.00	B PREFERRED

Table 6 T TEST RESULTS OF TENURE

	CASES	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	t	P	EXPLANATION
LESS T. 1 YEAR	CA.PLAN.	5	2.86	-3.5	.00	A PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.36	5.5	3.94	.00	B PREFERRED
1 TO 3 YEARS	SPECIAL.	5.59	4.27	-2.8	.00	A PREFERRED
	L.T.EMPLOY.	2.77	4.59	3.49	.00	B PREFERRED
	CA. PLAN.	5	3.04	-3.8	.00	A PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	4.04	5.68	2.47	.02	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEG.	3.59	5	1.77	.09	B PREFERRED
4 TO 9 YEARS	L.T.EMPLOY.	1.79	5.63	8.98	.00	B PREFERRED
	CA.PLAN.	3.28	4.47	2.00	.06	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	2.95	6	6.70	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC INTEG.	3	4.84	2.15	.04	B PREFERRED
10 TO 15 YEARS	SPECIAL.	3.09	5.18	2.90	.01	B PREFERRED
	L.T. EMPLOY	1.82	4.27	2.98	.01	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.82	5.27	1.84	.09	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEG.	3	5.45	3.48	.00	B PREFERRED
MORE T. 15 YRS.	SPECIAL.	3.15	6.3	8.64	.00	B PREFERRED
	L.T.EMPLOY.	2.5	5.65	6.06	.00	B PREFERRED
	CA PLAN.	3.15	4.55	2.59	.02	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.6	5.25	3.11	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEG.	3.52	4.85	6.85	.00	B PREFERRED

Table 7 gives the t test results and the means of different dimensions for two education levels being University graduates and Nonuniversity (secondary school graduates and lyce graduates). The largest mean difference at this table is for the "life time employment" for nonuniversity graduates which is 2.97 and this difference shows a tendency toward Japanese type life time employment. University graduates prefer American type management in specialization and career planning cases. Other preferences are for Japanese style management.

Table 7

T TEST RESULTS OF EDUCATION

	CASES	\bar{A}	\bar{B}	t	P	EXPLANATION
UNIVER. GRADTS.	SPECIAL.	5.22	4.35	-1.9	.05	A PREFERRED
	L.T.EMPLY	2.67	4.57	4.83	.00	B PREFERRED
	CA.PLAN.	4.25	3.35	-1.8	.06	A PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.72	5.8	5.28	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEG	3.52	4.85	2.37	.02	B PREFERRED
NON- UNIVER. GRADTS.	SPECIAL.	3.63	5.82	7.15	.00	B PREFERRED
	L.T.EMPLY	2.26	5.23	8.35	.00	B PREFERRED
	TEAM WK.	3.41	5.37	5.21	.00	B PREFERRED
	SOC.INTEG	2.89	5.37	5.88	.00	B PREFERRED

DISCUSSION OF THE RESULTS

CORRELATIONAL STUDY RESULTS

The correlation coefficients for each dimension between the two management systems have, with no exceptions, minus signs (See table 2). This is an indication that the sample group's perception of the two management systems for each case has a negative correlation. That is; at the points of differences (i.e.; each case of the questionnaire) the conflicting points of the two management systems are perceived as confusions by the sample group, and replied accordingly. This is in line with our expectations, since each case was developed to reflect a main difference in one aspect of human resource management between the two systems.

The absolute values of the correlation coefficients are not very high (See table 2). This may either be due to

the insufficient differentiation in the text of the cases, that is; the differences might not be expressed clearly enough, or to the nature of the preferences of the sample group, that is; the subjects might have liked some aspects of both management systems instead of polarizing their preferences.

T TEST RESULTS

For the specialization case; when the whole group t test is considered the perception of "specialization" tends toward American style management with a mean of 4.37 which favors division of labor and specialization. Although this value of four is near to an undecisive choice in our seven point scale , it is still higher than the mean of the Japanese style management preference which is 3.14 and points out to a tendency toward American style management in the whole group evaluation.

Sexual demographic variable based t test yielded the result that males have a tendency of perception toward Japanese style management in specialization which favors nonspecialized job structure with a mean of 5.23 where there is no significant findings for females population.

In the age based t test the only significant finding was for the old age group (36 and over) for the specialization case and it revealed a perception preference toward Japanese style management with a mean of 6.19 which is quite strong. Old age group prefers a nonspecialized but a generalist approach in the workplace.

When we consider the tenure (time spent in the organization), 1 to 3 years' group reflected a preference toward American style management in "specialization" with a mean of 5.59 , 10 to 15 years' group and more than 15 years' group toward Japanese style management with the means of 5.18 and 6.3 respectively. Other groups revealed no significant results. In "specialization" ,as

the duration increases there is a tendency toward Japanese style of nonspecialized work structure.

In the education based t test results ,we observe that the university graduates tend to prefer American style management in " specialization" with a mean of 5.22 rather than the Japanese style. But the nonuniversity graduates' perception of specialization tend toward Japanese style with a mean of 5.82.This can be a sequence of the American influence on the university system in Turkiye. It is generally taught that specialization is the contemporary way of business life and it is also a good way of increasing productivity with no mention of another way of approaching the problem. The university graduate group, with this knowledge in mind, might be rejecting the Japanese way of nonspecialized work setting.

As for the life time employment case; in the whole group t test , the perception of the group for this case tends toward Japanese style of life time employment with a mean of 4.93 rather than the

American style of short term employment (mean 2.45). This situation may be due to the high unemployment rate in Turkiye since the Japanese style life time employment is in a way a quarantee for the workers.

The whole group result of Japanese style preference was also replicated in sex based t test; males' perception of this case tended toward Japanese style with a mean of 5.17 and so did females' with a lower mean of 4.56. Probably male subjects are under a heavier pressure than females for keeping their jobs in a country with quite a high unemployment rate due to their social roles.

In every 3 category of age , the perception of life time employment favored Japanese style with the means of 4.19 for young, 4.64 for middle aged , and 5.96 for old age groups. The means get higher as the age category switches to an older one. This seems logical since one would expect that as the age of a person gets higher, he would need a guarantee for his job more than ever.

The duration (time spent in the organization) t

tests again yields that the perception of each category tends toward Japanese style with the means of 4.59 for 1 to 3 years' group, 5.63 for 4 to 9 years group, 4.27 for 10 to 15 years group , and finally 5.65 for 15 years and above group.

T test results based on education were similar to other t tests on other demographic variables ; Both of the groups favored Japanese style ; mean score being 4.57 for university graduates and 5.23 for nonuniversity graduates. This difference between the means of the two group is meaningful because people with less qualifications would demand more security at job than highly qualified ones.

For the career planning case; the whole group t test has not yielded a significant result for the perception of career planning preference .

In the sex based t test, the perception of females for career planning tended toward American style which emphasizes the employee preferences in career planning with a mean of 4.12 rather than the centralized view of

the Japanese style management. This tendency might be due to the feministic reaction against any authoritarian reaction imposed on them.

In the age based t tests , the young and old groups yielded significant results ; youngsters showing a tendency toward American style "career planning " with a mean of 5.33 while the old group tending toward Japanese style "career planning" (mean = 4.77). This result might be a reflection of individualism among the youth and the traditional view of dedication to the workplace among elderly people.

The tenure based t test yielded that the perception of the group working for less than 1 year and that of the group working for 1 to 3 years for career planning tend toward American style both having a mean of 5.00 whereas that for the groups working for 4 to 9 years and for 15 years and over tend toward Japanese style career planning (means; 4.47 and 4.55 respectively).

University graduates' perception of career planning is closer to the American style than it is to the Japanese

style (means ; 4.25 and 3.35 respectively). But for the nonuniversity graduates the result was not significant.

As for the team work; the whole group t test yielded that the group for "team work" tends toward the Japanese style with a mean of 5.57 where the "team work" is the core of the work environment. For the American style mean is 3.56 .

This tendency toward Japanese style team work replicated in all of the demographic variable t tests for all of the categories included.

The strength of the preference tendency (mean difference) varies somewhat from one category to another but yet comparably the tendency is toward Japanese style of closely knitted team work.

For the social integration case on the other hand;the perception of the whole group for social integration tends toward the Japanese style management(mean=5.12) which emphasizes close social integrity within the work environment. This is in confirmity with the Turkish traditional social values

like cooperation, close knitted social relations and integration.

Among all the demographic variables analysed there occurred no single category tending toward American way of weak social integration rather than the Japanese style . Some categories yielded insignificant results. (See tables 3,4,5,6 and 7)

As a general comment; in this study, preferences of 86 subjects working at T.Garanti Bankasi were compared on the basis of four demographic variables in a total of 12 categories. 51 of the t- test results were proved to be significant and out of these 51 statistics, the number of resulting preferences in favor of the American style management system is 7 ,where the number of resulting preferences in favor of the Japanese style management is 64.

This quite heavy tendency toward the Japanese style management may be attributable to the lack of social security as a reliable institution in our country which results in a search for security at job, and backing

up this phenomena , the comperably very high unemployment rate also creates a similar result. One could consider also the similarities in the traditional structures and social settings of the Japanese and Turkish nations.

The reasons behind the above mentioned results of the study could be a topic for another survey , and from our point of view this aspect of the problem is worth studying because it would establish another step toward the creation of an ideal Human Resource Management System for Turkiye.

APPENDIX



İlişikte iki bölüm halinde sunulan anket, MARMARA ÜNİVERSİTESİ
SDSYAL BİLİMLER FAKÜLTESİ tarafından yürütölmekte olan Kariyer
Planlama konulu bir yüksek lisans tezine ait çalışmadır.

Sizden kimliđinize veya çalıştıđığınız birime dair hiçbir bilgi
istenmemektedir. Bu sebeple sorulara açık kalple ve eksiksiz
cevap vermenizi diliyor, katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkürlerimizi
sunuyoruz.

NIHAD AKYOL
Marmara Üniversitesi
Organizational Behavior Ana Bilim Dalı

1-CİNSİYETİNİZ.

Kadın ()

Erkek ()

2-YAŞINIZ.

.....

3-EĞİTİM DÜZEYİNİZ.

Ortaokul ()

Lise ()

Yüksek Okul ()

Yüksek Lisans ()

Diğer ()

4-BU ÖRGÜTTE ÇALIŞTIĞINIZ SÖRE

a)1 den az

b)1-3 yıl

c)4-9 yıl

d)10-15 yıl

e)15 yıldan fazla.

B BANKASI

B bankası, elemanlarını yeni mezunlar arasından seçer, onlara iş hayatları boyunca B bankasına has olan tüm bankacılık işlemlerini öğretir:örneğin üniversiteden yeni mezun olan bir genç, B bankasında çalışmaya başlar.Burada geleceğin yöneticisi olarak eğitilecektir.1 yıl kadar değişik görevlerde bulunur.Sonra bir şubeye gönderilip değişik servislerde çalıştırılır.Ardından Genel Müdürlükte ticari bankacılığı öğrenmeye başlar.Sonra tekrar bir şubeye tayin olup tüketici kredileri konusunda çalışır.Bir yıl sonra Personel Bölümünde işe başlar. On yıl kadar süren bu süreçten sonra ilk defa terfi eder ve bölüm şefi olur ve tekrar bir şubeye atanır.Bir müddet sonra genel müdürlüğe döndüğünde bankanın uluslararası ilişkilerinde çalışır.MESLEĞİNİN DORUĞUNA VARDIĞINDA B BANKASININ HER BİRİMİNDE ÇALIŞMIŞ OLACAK VE BUNLARI BİR BÜTÜN HALİNDE BİRLEŞTİREREK KULLANMAYI ARTIK ÇOK İYİ BİLECEKTİR.İŞ HAYATINI B BANKASINDA TAMAMLAR.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BIRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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A BANKASI

A Bankasında İŞE GİREN ELEMANLAR TEK BİR SERVİSTE ÇALIŞIR VE BU SERVİSE AIT İŞLEMLERİ DERİNLEMESİNE ÖĞRENİRLER, örneğin:A bankasında ihracat Servisinde işe giren bir genç,burada belirli bir sektörün ihracat işlemleri üzerinde ihtisas yapar.İki sene içinde ilk terfisini alır ve büyük bir şubenin ihracat servisine atanır. Bu arada diğer firmalar ve bankalarla da irtibat halindedir ve iyi bir teklif geldiği taktirde başka şirketlerde ihracat konusunda iş hayatına devam eder.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BIRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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B BANKASI

B Bankasında bir elemanın çalışma süresi ve aldığı iş eğitimi şöyledir: B BANKASINDA İŞE GİREN HER ELEMAN İŞ HAYATI BOYUNCA BU BANKADA ÇALIŞIR. Bu adeta gizli bir mukavele gibidir. Çok ciddi bir hata yapmadığı sürece işten çıkarılması söz konusu olamaz. Elemanlar da başka bir şirkete girmeyi düşünmezler. Elemanların emekli olana kadar aynı bankada çalışma olasılığı yüksektir; BU EĞİLİMİN SONUCU OLARAK BANKA PERSONEL GELİŞİMİNE ÖNEM VERİR VE ONLARA MAKSİMUM İŞ EĞİTİMİNİ SAĞLAR.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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A BANKASI

A Bankasında bir elemanın çalışma süresi ve aldığı iş eğitimi şöyledir: Bu banka piyasa şartları kötüye gittiğinde veya herhangi bir birime artık ihtiyaç duyulmadığında eleman çıkartma yoluna gidebilir. Buna karşılık elemanların da başka şirketlere geçme ihtimalleri çoktur. Buna bağlı olarak A BANKASI ELEMANLARINA VERDİĞİ EĞİTİMİ ASGARI SEVİYEDE TUTAR ÇÜNKÜ HER ELEMAN EĞİTİM ALDIKTAN SONRA BAŞKA BİR ŞİRKETE GEÇEBİLİR.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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B BANKASI

Kariyer planlaması ile ilgili düzenleme şöyledir: ELEMANLARIN TERFİ VE TAYİN İŞLEMLERİ KENDİ TERCİHLERİNDEN ÇOK GENEL MÜDÜRLÜĞÜN KARARLARINA BAĞLI OLARAK GERÇEKLEŞTİRİLİR. Çünkü önemli olan bankanın ihtiyaçlarıdır. Elemanın, kendi tercihinine uymayan böyle bir karar karşısında iş değiştirmesi söz konusu olmaz çünkü o da bankanın çıkarını gözetmektedir; Bankanın yıl sonu karının kendi maaşına da yansıtacağını bildiğinden bunu kendisine yapılmış bir haksızlık olarak yorumlamamaktadır.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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A BANKASI

Kariyer planlaması ile ilgili düzenleme şöyledir: TAYİN VE TERFİ İŞLEMLERİNDE ELEMANLARIN KENDİ TERCİHLERİ ÖN PLANDA TUTULUR. Çünkü elemanlar bankanın yıl sonu karının kendilerine yansıtıp yansımayacağından emin değildirler. Bunun sonucunda da kendi tercihlerine ters düşen tayin ve terfilerine ilişkin bir karar karşısında iş değiştirebilirler. Dolayısıyla elemanlar işletmenin çıkarlarından çok kendi çıkarlarını ön planda tutmak eğilimindedirler.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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B BANKASI

Yetki ve sorumluluk dağılımı şöyle düzenlenmiştir: Ekip çalışmasına önem verilir, örneğin bir proje alt kademede bir eleman tarafından başlatılarak her kademede çalışanların önerileriyle geliştirilir . Hazırlanan öneri son haliyle üst kademe yöneticilerin katıldığı yürütme kurulunda görüşülür ve karara bağlanır. BURADA YETKİ/SORUMLULUK VEYA BAŞARI/BAŞARISIZLIK ŞAHİSLARA DEĞİL O ÖNERİYİ HAZIRLAYAN EKİBE AITTİR. EKİP ÇALIŞMASI TEŞVİK EDİLİR.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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A BANKASI

Yetki ve sorumluluk dağılımı şöyle düzenlenmiştir: Yetki, sorumluluk ve görevler kesin çizgilerle birbirinden ayrılmıştır. Değişik kademelerdeki yöneticiler kendi yetki sınırları dahilinde tek başına karar verme sorumluluğunu yüklenmektedir. Alt kademede çalışanlar da önceden belirlenmiş görev tanımları çerçevesinde her işin kendi paylarına düşen kısmından sorumludurlar. BAŞARI YA DA BAŞARISIZLIK BİREY OLARAK O KONUDA KARAR VERENE AITTİR.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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B BANKASI

ELEMANLARLA BANKA ARASINDAKI İLİŞKİLER BİREYİN ÇALIŞMA HAYATI DIŞINDAKİ SOSYAL YAŞAMINI DA KAPSAR. Bu, bankanın bireyin psikolojik yaşamındaki etkisini güçlendirmek için seçilen bir yoldur. (Örneğin sosyal tesislerden faydalanmak, çeşitli vesilelerle ailelerin de katılımıyla düzenlenen törenler, gibi.) Çünkü birey bu işletmede ömrünün sonuna kadar sürecek bir iş hayatına başlamaktadır. Bankayı kendi hayatının bir parçası olarak görmek zorundadır.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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A BANKASI

ÇALIŞANLARLA BANKA ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİLER İŞ İLİŞKİSİYLE SINIRLIDIR. Çalışanlar, aileleri ve banka arasında sosyal bir beraberlik yoktur. Çalışanlar için banka sadece bir işyeridir. Bireyin iş arkadaşlarıyla geliştirdiği sosyal ilişkiler çalıştığı kurumu benimsemesinde bir araç olarak kullanılmaz. Yani banka çalışanlar arasında sosyal ilişkilerin gelişmesini özellikle teşvik eden bir rol yüklenmez.

BU TÜR BİR BANKADA ÇALIŞMAYI ;

ÇOK İSTERİM	İSTERİM	BİRAZ İSTERİM	KARARSIZIM	PEK DE İSTEMEM	İSTEMEM	HİÇ İSTEMEM
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