
Propensity for participative decision making (PPDM) in Turkey and the USA

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Abstract: Increased subordinate participation in management decisions has been a recognised trend in both private and public organisations in many western nations. Less is known about such practices in other parts of the world, however, especially in emerging countries. This study assesses similarities and differences between US and Turkish managers with regard to propensity for participative decision making (PPDM). The first hypothesis tests the validity of the PPDM scale among a sample of Turkish managers, and was supported. The second hypothesis examines whether US managers report higher levels of participation with respect to the four dimensions of organisational effectiveness, power, culture, and commitment. Surprisingly, the Turkish managers reported higher levels of participation in the first three dimensions, with no statistical difference with the US managers on commitment. Other findings are discussed and directions for future research are also presented.

Keywords: participation; participative decision making; PDM; propensity for participative decision making; PPDM; Turkey; organisational effectiveness; power; culture; organisational commitment; USA.

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1 Introduction

Employees in many public and private western organisations have become more involved in management decisions over the past few decades (Sagie and Aycan, 2003). Proponents of this trend argue that many employees desire a greater role in decision making and that participation is likely to promote job satisfaction, performance feedback, task significance, organisational learning, improved leader effectiveness, and ultimately increases in overall performance (Chiva et al., 2007; Kitapci and Sezen, 2007; Parnell and Bell, 1994; Swody and Powell, 2007; Ukko et al., 2009; Wright and Kim, 2004). Managers are not equally likely to solicit participation from their subordinates, however, nor are they equally skilled in utilising the information they receive (Klenke, 2003; Somech, 2003; Thompson, 2007).

A considerable amount of research on participative decision making (PDM) techniques has been published over the past three decades. Most of this work considers participation in developed nations, particularly those in North America and Europe (Dawkins and Frass, 2005). Relatively little research has been conducted in emerging economies in Asia, Europe, and the Middle East. In addition, extant cross-cultural studies suggest various causes and conceptualisations of participation in different cultures (Sagie and Aycan, 2003). Patterns of participation vary across borders, and significant differences are often seen when organisations in developed nations are compared to those

in emerging economies (London and Hart, 2004; Ralston et al., 2008; Parnell, 2010; Zhou et al., 2006). Hence, cross-cultural studies on participative tendencies, especially between developed and developing nations, are needed. This paper reports on such a study comparing and contrasting US and Turkish managers. Hence, the aim of this study is to determine whether there are differences between US managers and Turkish managers with regard to PPD and to consider plausible explanations for any reasons leading to the emergence of these differences or similarities.

There are three primary reasons why Turkey and the USA were selected as sample nations for this study. First, the cultural differences between the two countries are substantial (Hofstede, 1991). The USA has repeatedly emerged as one of the most individualistic societies in the world, whereas Turkey reflects a more collectivist culture. While the USA scores relatively low on power distance, Turkey is characterised as a high power distance culture (Hofstede, 1980, 1991). Hence, Turkey provide an informative cultural contrast with the USA (Culpan and Gorsoy, 2009; Wasti et al., 2007)

Second, the level of participation in decisions may vary due to the differences in economic development levels of the two nations. While the USA has developed into an information economy, the Turkish economy remains primarily industrial and agricultural. A relationship between the stage of economic development and the level of participation in decisions is plausible. In an information economy, workers are expected to make more intellectual contributions, whereas industrial and agricultural economies demand manual workers and obedience.

Finally, there are differences between the two nations in terms of level of democratisation. In the USA, which has a relatively advanced level of democratisation, there is a greater tendency to participate in decision-making processes. On the other hand, democracy in Turkish society is not as fully developed. Turkey's lag in democratisation may result in a lower tendency to participate in decision-making processes.

Since the early 1980s, government policies in Turkey have focused on developing a free market economy and have encouraged an outward-oriented export-led development strategy. Significant progress has been made in the liberalisation of trade and investment policies and the pursuit of macroeconomic stability and economic growth. This policy stance has also contributed to a substantial increase in inward foreign direct investment to the nation. Due to its high economic growth and rapidly growing population, the US Department of Commerce placed Turkey among the ten largest emerging markets (Aygün et al., 2008; Dincer et al., 2006).

The following sections highlight research on PDM and the management context of the two nations. Results of a survey are analysed and presented, followed by a discussion and future research directions.

2 Propensity for participative decision making

PDM, often referenced as employee involvement (EI) in literature (Kaufman, 2001; Sumukadas, 2006), is one form of employee participation and refers to the involvement of one group of individuals in decisions typically reserved for another group or individual. Hence, PDM is associated with subordinate involvement in decisions that typically fall within the domain of the manager (Heller et al., 1998; Wagner and Gooding, 1987). Studies suggest that subordinates often prefer participative decision making, regardless of their levels of perceived influence on the organisation

(Selart, 2005). Parnell and Bell (1994) developed a scale to measure a manager's predilection or propensity for participative decision making (PPDM). Refined later by Parnell and Crandall (2001), the PPDM scale measures one's proclivity for eliciting participation from subordinates.

There are numerous studies highlighting PDM's benefits, problems and limitations for organisational behaviour, employee and performance (e.g., Schweiger and Leana, 1986; Leana et al., 1990; Cotton et al., 1990; Glew et al., 1995; Rajagopal and Rajagopal, 2011; Yammarino and Naughton, 1992). Some have argued that PDM has motivational effects of increased employee job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Guthrie, 2001; Pearson and Duffy, 1999; Witt et al., 2000). Others, however, have argued that such support is inconclusive (Parnell, 2002; Jones, 1997). In addition, studies also suggest that participation generates positive results in organisations when it is implemented through goal setting and task strategy formulation (Latham et al., 1994), locus of knowledge, involvement in generating alternatives, planning, and evaluating results (Black and Gregersen, 1997; Souitaris et al., 2010), and cooperative problem solving (Tjosvold, 1982).

The presumed and supported link between PDM and performance is not always accepted across cultures (Dickman and Muller-Camen, 2006; Gerhart and Fang, 2005; Gomez and Sanchez, 2005; Lam et al., 2002; Parnell, 2010; Sagie and Aycan, 2003). Wagner (1994) argued that many participation studies have demonstrated a consistent, albeit small impact on performance. Researchers, however, have struggled to establish a universal positive correlation between participation and productivity. Bacon and Blyton (2005) argued that employees may be suspicious of management motives when teamwork and participative techniques are employed. Indeed, the form of participation and the context in which participative techniques are employed also influence the extent of any positive effect on performance (Scott-Ladd and Marshall, 2004).

The emphasis on specific participative techniques has not resulted in a clear understanding of the participation-performance link. Many researchers contend that PDM is a broad construct whose success is necessarily linked to numerous contextual factors. Heckscher's (1995) interviews of more than 250 managers in 14 large organisations suggested that participation has accomplished little and rarely breaks down the walls of bureaucracy. Without work redesign, he argued, EI efforts may not produce positive results and can even result in negative outcomes. The utilisation of more specific participative concepts such as delegation have met with mixed results, especially in public organisations (Worsham et al., 1997).

3 The PPDM scale

PPDM is an extension of PDM and refers to a manager's proclivity or propensity to solicit employee participation in decisions. As initially developed and tested (Parnell and Bell, 1994), the scale measuring the construct conceptualised a manager's PPDM to be a function of two factors:

- 1 one's beliefs concerning the relationship between participation and decision quality or organisational effectiveness
- 2 one's beliefs concerning the relationship between a manager's power and participation.

Parnell and Crandall (2001) refined the scale to include two additional factors:

- 1 the extent to which participation is embedded within the culture of the organisation
- 2 management commitment to PDM as a long-term approach to effective decision making.

The refined scale is presented in Table 1, and each of the four factors is briefly elaborated below.

Table 1 Parnell and Crandall's (2001) refined PPDM scale

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Item wording</i>
ORG1	Many organizational problems disappear when everyone has a chance to participate in decision making.
ORG2	Participative decision making usually results in effective decisions.
ORG3	Group decisions are worth any extra time required.
ORG4	Participative decision making stimulates feelings of self worth for subordinates.
ORG5	Participative decision making is an effective communication tool.
ORG6	Participative decision making promotes positive relationships at all levels of the organization.
ORG7	When my boss allows me to participate in decisions I feel more important.
PWR1	Participative decision making requires divulging too much confidential information.
PWR2	Participative decision making gives too much power to subordinates.
PWR3	Subordinates often cannot be trusted.
CUL1	My subordinates tend to possess the same organizational goals that I have.
CUL2	My subordinates are generally informed and experienced.
CUL3	Participative decision making is widely used in my organization.
CUL4	I am free to make decisions as I wish in my organization.
CUL5	Participative decision making is promoted within my organization.
CUL6	My boss frequently solicits my participation in his or her decisions.
COM1	Participative decision making is an effective management style over the long term.
COM2	It's better for a manager not to solicit subordinate participation than to do so and ignore the suggestions.
COM3	Participation works in some cases, but most of the time the manager should make the decision based on his or her expertise and information.
COM4	Participative decision making is a philosophy, not a technique.

3.1 Organisational effectiveness

In general, a manager who believes that PDM enhances organisational effectiveness, and increases productivity and decision quality, will be more likely to employ the technique. There may also be a greater tendency to promote participation as a means of obtaining higher quality decisions when subordinates prefer the added involvement (Chiva et al., 2007; Humphreys and Hoque, 2007). In the PPDM scale, organisational effectiveness is measured by seven items that consider one's beliefs concerning the relationship between participation and the organisational variables of decision quality (ORG1 and ORG2),

productivity (ORG3) self-efficacy of subordinates (ORG4), communication effectiveness (ORG5), positive relationships (ORG6), and feelings of self-worth (ORG7).

3.2 Power

Managers who have had negative experiences with participative management or who perceive that the techniques associated with participation limit their own power may be less likely to solicit EI. Much of the seminal work in this area was done several decades ago. Some research has supported the assertion that participation can result in a loss of managerial power – real or perceived – while other studies suggest that power is not a zero-sum phenomenon but is expandable (Pollock and Colwill, 1987). Employees usually do not report a desire for limiting managerial power, only for increasing their own power (Tannenbaum and Cook, 1974). The PPDM scale accepts the notion that a manager's proclivity for employing PDM techniques is linked to his or her belief that such participation will result in a loss of power. There is an alternative viewpoint, however. When a superior 'loses' power by employing PDM, he or she may also gain influence (Gomez and Sanchez, 2005).

Power is measured by three items in the PPDM scale. PWR1 is concerned with the dissemination of confidential information that may accompany participation. PWR2 assesses the transfer of power that may occur between superior and subordinate. PWR3 reflects the degree of trust that occurs between manager and subordinate.

3.3 Culture

Individuals in an organisation share a culture, or common values, attitudes, and behaviours (Cooke and Rousseau, 1988; Pettigrew, 1979). Managers in organisations where participation is prevalent are more likely to encourage their own subordinates to participate in decisions. Alternatively, managers in organisations where autocracy is the norm are less likely to foster participation. The cultural context determines the meaning that its members attribute to PDM, including its essence, reasons for soliciting participation, who should be involved, and key issues that should be resolved (Sagie and Aycan, 2003). Thus, one's PPDM is affected by the degree to which such behaviour is encouraged or discouraged by the culture of the organisation. In the PPDM scale, CUL1 and CUL2 reflect culture at the department level, whereas CUL3–CUL6 reflect culture at the organisational level.

3.4 Commitment

Most scholars agree that in order to be successful, PDM should be viewed as a long-term philosophy (Humphreys and Hoque, 2007). Cabana (1995) called it participative design, emphasising structural changes in work and the manager-worker relationship required for success. Participative design is more than simply introducing participative decision making into the current system. It requires commitment, is enduring, and necessitates a serious effort to enhance the entire organisational system.

A manager's long-term commitment to participation is critical to effective implementation of EI programmes (Bacon and Blyton, 2005; Cabana, 1995; Wood and Wall, 2007). Efforts that view PDM as a tool rather than as a long-term philosophy have not been as successful as those that seek a changed organisational mindset. Hence,

commitment to a participative philosophy is also a component of one's predilection to elicit participation.

4 Decision making in Turkey

4.1 Turkish cultural characteristics

Most research on participative decision making has occurred in the west. In Turkey, the firm is usually likened to a family where the manager is seen as a father figure. The values relating to authority and conflict are paternalistic and deeply rooted in early socialisation within the family and society. Leadership philosophies and techniques are adapting to the western culture, but slowly (Kozan and Ilter, 1994). Leadership in Turkish culture involves influencing behaviour that seeks to take over responsibility because leaders typically believe that subordinates need close guidance and assurance from their superiors. Leadership roles are associated with a manager who knows what is best and what should be done. As a result, they relieve other employees of their responsibilities and assure that they minimise risks (Pasa, 2000).

In a similar vein, Bayraktaroglu (1996) adds that Turks are individualistic and unwilling to work in teams because they are too competitive, although this view is not universally supported in the literature (Sargut, 1994). Authority is also a personal matter, and managers may go beyond the need to maintain the authority for organisational goal achievement when defending their positions (Kozan and Ilter, 1994). The focus on authority is also in line with Hofstede's (1980, 1993) work in which Turkey is categorised as high power distance with a masculine culture where managers desire to have total power and control.

4.2 Research on participation in Turkey

Paksoy (1998) analysed the 500 largest firms in Turkey. In the study, 37.5% of the participants reported that the workers partially participate in management, while 57.5% stated that the workers do not participate. Full participation was not reported in any of the organisations. Later, Paksoy (2000) assessed 75 industrial small and medium size enterprises (SMEs) and found that 87% of managers encourage worker participation, a notion supported by 84% of the workers. In addition, 90% of workers believe they should participate in managerial activities concerning their jobs. Eronat (2004) assessed 64 industrial SMEs in Turkey and found a link between job satisfaction and the extent to which workers make their own decisions about work.

Bakan and Büyükbeşe's (2005) study on textile firms found that workers have a greater tendency to take part in decisions related to their jobs and the departments where they work rather than the decisions related to other fields (e.g., decisions about general policies). They also found a significant relationship between workers' perceptions of belongingness to the organisation and their ways of making decisions. When the relationship between the demographics of the participants and their participation in decisions was examined, differences were found along marital status, age, education level, management level and status, and union membership. On the other hand, no significant relationships were observed concerning gender, the length of the time spent in the organisation, total work experience, and the types of decisions made.

Bakan and Büyükeşen (2008) found that workers think that they should be primarily involved in the decisions made about their jobs, but also in decisions made about their departments, general policies, future strategies and even routine operations. When PDM is present, job satisfaction increases, the conception of team-work in the organisation improves, coordination and cooperation increase, and turnover and worker tardiness decrease.

Support for PDM is also seen in the Turkish hospitality industry. A study conducted among the five-star hotels in Turkey found that participants were willing and eager to participate in decision making. Moreover, the study revealed that to solve the managerial problems, almost 60% of managers make decisions after considering subordinate views (Kıngır, 2006).

Tayfun and Kösem (2004, 2005) found that managers tend to believe that workers should be trained for participatory management to be implemented. Non-managers reported that participatory management increases efficiency and effectiveness in the work place, decreases the conflicts in the organisation, and regulates communication between the subordinates and superiors. Females supported PDM more than their male counterparts, while both female and male workers equally believe that participatory management is a psychological deception.

Support for PDM's success can also be found in Turkish family organisations. In one study, managers made 48% of the decisions in such organisations, with family members and managers combining for 81% of the total. Individual decisions account for 56% of the total, while group decisions account for the other 44. Interestingly, 48% of the participant organisations reported that the most important problem encountered in the decision making process was the lack of participation. Improving the decision making process required involving professionals in decision making process (40%) and use more scientific decision making techniques (22%). Other prominent suggestions included increasing participation in decisions (19%) and establishing priorities for group decisions (18%) (Göker and Üçok, 2006).

Similar results have been found in other research on family organisations. One study revealed that founders are willing to share information regarding the organisation and to bestow full authority on workers to make decisions related to their own areas of work (Genç and Deryal, 2006). Another study of family organisations revealed that family members participate in 88% of the decisions. While 52% of the family members fully participate in the decisions made, 36% of them partially participate (Çelik et al., 2006).

Participation is not as common in smaller firms, however. Özgener's (2003) assessment of small- and middle-scale organisations showed that the owners on their own make 62% of the decisions and that experience (41%) trumps analytical techniques in decision making. Initiative is given to the workers in decision making only 10% of the time. Interestingly, 21% of the respondents stated that they seek the opinions of the family members (see also Gümüştekin, 2005). In one study, nurses reported that participation improves efficiency in hospitals (Özgener and Küçük, 2008). Interestingly, another study of hospital workers revealed that participation in decisions and taking initiative does not significantly affect motivation (Karakaya and Ay, 2007). Gümüştekin et al. (2007) analysed marble enterprises and found a positive relationship between PDM and organisational communication.

Öğretici's (2006) study of iron and steel workers, Akçakaya's (2004) study of local government workers, and Günbatan's (2006) study of a military factory also identified beneficial effects of PDM. Gürkan's (2006) study of vocational teachers found few

opportunities but a strong desire for participation, not only in educational decisions but also in administrative ones. Female and experienced teachers were found to participate more in the school-level decisions than their male and inexperienced counterparts (see also Acet, 2006). Aksay (2005) found that the teachers participate most in educational decision making but rarely in administrative decision making.

In sum, participative decision making techniques do not appear to be widely employed in Turkey, but success is often reported when practiced. Workers are interested in greater levels of participation, but cultural restrictions are not always supportive of such a change.

5 Rationale for the study and data collection

PDM tends to be more common in developed nations (Kozan, 1993). Although PDM is widely accepted in the USA, the pace of its emergence in Turkey remains unclear. Yetim and Yetim (2006) found that in Turkish SMEs, job satisfaction is viewed as collectivism, a structure in which values of social life, such as consideration for group relationships, loyalty to group norms and solidarity, are emphasised. Workers want to enjoy the satisfaction resulting from continuity of group relationships and living together in order to appreciate full satisfaction from their work. Entrepreneurs demonstrate quite a few of paternalistic tendencies that seem to be direct results of the pervading national culture and business environment. In their relationships with their employees, entrepreneurs seem to lean more towards collectivism and increase the power distance.

Following this logic, this study tests two propositions. First, it is proposed that the PPDM measures of organisational effectiveness, power, culture, and commitment will be validated among a sample of Turkish managers. Participative management – including PPDM – has proven to be a generally understood notion across cultures (Parnell and Crandall, 2003; Sagie and Aycan, 2003; Wright and Kim, 2004), albeit, with some differences in the details.

Hypothesis 1 A factor analysis of data from Turkish managers will produce a coherent four-factor structure of the PPDM scales of organisational effectiveness, power, culture, and commitment.

Second, PDM is less common in developing countries (Kozan, 1993). Following Yetim and Yetim (2006), many workers have come to expect a stable, centralised power structure and a strong entrepreneurial leader expect in the workplace. Workers tend to follow the decisions made by their employer, whom they see as someone with a higher status and more knowledge than themselves. Three decades ago, Kenis (1977) found that US first-line supervisors reported significantly higher participation in decision making than their Turkish counterparts. This tendency appeared not only on the overall score but also on the scores of every item of the scale. The US supervisors felt that they had greater input and influence on their organisations. Kenis (1977) concluded that participation represents a basic cultural value in US society. Americans are taught and encouraged to participate in schools, at home, at work, and in their communities. For this reason, they develop an expectation to participate, and the chance to participate leads to positive attitudes (Pereira and Osburn, 2007). In Turkish society, however, values such as obedience, submission, and respect for authority are more highly emphasised.

The literature suggests that since participation is more widely practiced in the USA, US managers will report higher levels along the four PPDM subscales than their Turkish counterparts (Bakan and Büyükbeşe, 2004; Chiva et al., 2007; Humphreys and Hoque, 2007).

Hypothesis 2 US managers will report higher levels of organisational effectiveness, power, culture, and commitment than Turkish managers on the PPDM scale.

6 Methods

The instrument utilised in the present study was Parnell and Crandall's (2001) refined PPDM scale. Demographic questions were also included, such as age, gender, management and organisational experience, functional background, and position in the firm. For the Turkey sample, the questionnaire was translated into Turkish by a bilingual academic and compared to the English version by a bilingual academic with expertise in organisational theory. The two translators then met to finalise the Turkish version of the survey.

A total of 595 responses were completed, 261 in Turkey and 334 in the USA. Data were collected from managerial personnel in 190 firms located in Turkey. Turkish respondents were randomly selected from a group of 1,000 firms representing a variety of manufacturing and service enterprises derived from Google's business database (<http://www.google.com.tr>). The sample included small and large organisations, domestic and global enterprises, and manufacturing and service firms. Surveys were mailed to executives in these firms, with a second mailing a week later. In the end, 274 surveys were returned from 190 firms. Thirteen were not usable, leaving 261 for analysis, a response rate of 26.1%. This response rate is a little lower than a typical survey in the USA, but is expected in Turkey for a variety of reasons. Incorrect mail and e-mail addresses, as well as the time required to complete the survey are obvious challenges. In addition, however, Turkish managers are often suspicious of surveys and some may have hesitated to complete them fearing that confidentiality may not be maintained.

US respondents were selected from the membership of a Chamber of Commerce in a mid-size city in the Southeastern USA. Like the Google business database, a typical Chamber of Commerce in a mid-size city in the Southeastern USA consists of small and large organisations, domestic and global enterprises, and manufacturing and service firms. A total of 977 surveys were distributed to the membership. The response rate was 34.2%, with 335 surveys returned. There were no significant differences between the sample and the population in the mean age and gender distribution.

7 Findings

Females outnumbered males in the US sample 57.2% to 42.5%. Males outnumbered females in the Turkish sample, however, 69.3% to 30.7%. The large percentage of Turkish males in the sample is consistent with their higher representation in the work force. Respondents were dispersed across management levels in both samples, with lower and middle managers comprising the largest groups. The average age for the composite

sample was 36.7 years, with respondents reporting 7.8 years of management experience and 7.3 years of experience with the present organisation. Age and experience differences were not significantly different across samples. A summary of key sample data is presented in Table 2.

Data from both countries were factor analysed to assess properties of the scale. A four-factor solution was forced with a varimax rotation. Four factors accounted for 53.9% of the variance. The existence of four factors was supported by a scree test, as the fourth factor produced an eigenvalue of 1.60 while the fifth and sixth factors declined to 1.10 and 1.00 respectively. Table 3 presents the composite results when the samples of both samples are analysed together. Tables 4 and 5 present country-specific results.

Table 2 The sample: frequencies and descriptive data

	<i>Composite data</i> (<i>n</i> = 595)		<i>US only</i> (<i>n</i> = 334)		<i>Turkey only</i> (<i>n</i> = 261)	
Frequencies						
Gender*						
Males	323	54.3%	142	42.5%	181	69.3%
Females	271	45.5%	191	57.2%	80	30.7%
Management level						
Non-managers	109	18.3%	73	21.9%	36	13.8%
Lower managers	149	25.0%	113	33.8%	36	13.8%
Middle managers	214	36.0%	99	29.6%	115	44.1%
Top managers	123	20.7%	49	14.7%	74	28.4%
Descriptive data (mean and standard deviation)						
Age	36.69	sd = 10.08	36.47	sd = 10.67	36.97	sd = 9.28
Management experience	7.82	sd = 8.09	7.02	sd = 7.96	8.84	sd = 8.16
Experience with organisation	7.34	sd = 7.26	6.89	sd = 7.40	7.90	sd = 7.05

Note: *One US respondent did not select a gender.

Table 3 Factor analysis results: four-factor solution (composite data)

	<i>Factor 1:</i> <i>organisation</i>	<i>Factor 2:</i> <i>culture</i>	<i>Factor 3:</i> <i>power</i>	<i>Factor 4:</i> <i>commitment</i>
ORG1	.674	.183	.023	.205
ORG2	.712	.209	-.221	.014
ORG3	.731	.212	.057	.074
ORG4	.716	-.017	-.125	.048
ORG5	.775	.086	-.022	-.113
ORG6	.710	.119	.091	.018
ORG7	.675	.090	.165	.058
PWR1	.020	.136	.776	.204
PWR2	.013	.133	.841	.084
PWR3	-.095	.117	.715	.235

Table 3 Factor analysis results: four-factor solution (composite data) (continued)

	<i>Factor 1: organisation</i>	<i>Factor 2: culture</i>	<i>Factor 3: power</i>	<i>Factor 4: commitment</i>
CUL1	.334	.382	.311	-.266
CUL2	.190	.432	.259	-.214
CUL3	.204	.813	.174	-.088
CUL4	.021	.690	.163	.183
CUL5	.164	.877	.047	.006
CUL6	.173	.781	-.062	.160
COM1	.270	.025	-.007	.710
COM2	.037	.020	.328	.315
COM3	-.072	.061	.333	.627
COM4	.028	.007	.240	.634

Table 4 Factor analysis results: four-factor solution (US sample only)

	<i>Factor 1: organisation</i>	<i>Factor 2: culture</i>	<i>Factor 3: power</i>	<i>Factor 4: commitment</i>
ORG1	.561	-.086	.107	.172
ORG2	.742	.028	-.034	.007
ORG3	.588	.172	.036	-.035
ORG4	.673	.048	.069	-.130
ORG5	.763	-.106	-.038	.142
ORG6	.733	-.007	.040	-.012
ORG7	.652	.142	-.011	.030
PWR1	.020	.026	.889	.034
PWR2	.395	.056	.571	-.058
PWR3	-.161	.081	.844	.040
CUL1	.138	.504	.015	.070
CUL2	.109	.524	.022	-.057
CUL3	.021	.780	.028	.028
CUL4	-.109	.572	.327	-.012
CUL5	-.059	.782	-.026	-.057
CUL6	-.010	.704	-.007	.041
COM1	.248	.034	-.062	.753
COM2	-.304	.192	.213	.533
COM3	-.014	-.085	-.016	.825
COM4	.061	-.028	-.005	.827

Table 5 Factor analysis results: four-factor solution (Turkey sample only)

	<i>Factor 1: organisation</i>	<i>Factor 2: culture</i>	<i>Factor 3: power</i>	<i>Factor 4: commitment</i>
ORG1	.635	.096	.054	.179
ORG2	.746	.116	-.080	-.026
ORG3	.672	.214	.098	.012
ORG4	.704	.019	.008	-.062
ORG5	.783	.019	.012	.009
ORG6	.678	.094	-.048	.036
ORG7	.649	.131	.093	.061
PWR1	.012	.128	.853	.109
PWR2	.223	.090	.806	.019
PWR3	-.163	.162	.740	.118
CUL1	.230	.492	.097	.020
CUL2	.121	.533	.025	-.023
CUL3	.116	.813	.060	.003
CUL4	-.083	.653	.134	.077
CUL5	.062	.833	-.008	-.033
CUL6	.156	.694	.099	.040
COM1	.282	-.004	.043	.721
COM2	-.253	.186	-.247	.465
COM3	-.031	-.016	.130	.783
COM4	.083	-.029	.176	.735

7.1 Hypothesis 1

The first hypothesis was generally supported, as results of the four-factor solution support the PPD scale with only a couple of suspect items. For the Turkish sample, only two items produced a loading below .500 on the appropriate factor, .492 for CUL1 and .465 for COM2. For the US sample, each item produced a loading in excess of .500 on the appropriate factor. Significant cross-loadings did not appear in either case. When data from both nations were analysed together, there were some cross-loadings along these two items.

The subscales were also factor analysed. Results from analysis of both the composite data and nation-specific data appear in Table 6. Composite loadings support the integrity of the subscales. Factor scores (regression method) were computed to serve as surrogates for each subscale in the remainder of the analysis.

Table 6 Factor analysis results: single factor solutions

	<i>Factor loading</i>		
	<i>Composite</i>	<i>US only</i>	<i>Turkey only</i>
Organisation subscale			
ORG1	.671	.714	.701
ORG2	.751	.752	.746
ORG3	.709	.777	.585
ORG4	.703	.719	.660
ORG5	.786	.781	.783
ORG6	.717	.725	.760
ORG7	.661	.663	.649
<i>Alpha</i>	.838	.855	.807
<i>Variance explained</i>	51.1%	53.9%	47.2%
Power subscale			
PWR1	.888	.845	.896
PWR2	.784	.873	.654
PWR3	.800	.794	.820
<i>Alpha</i>	.759	.785	.703
<i>Variance explained</i>	68.0%	70.2%	63.4%
Culture subscale			
CUL1	.554	.568	.501
CUL2	.548	.552	.523
CUL3	.828	.858	.777
CUL4	.632	.683	.609
CUL5	.830	.686	.780
CUL6	.727	.744	.710
<i>Alpha</i>	.783	.812	.736
<i>Variance explained</i>	48.5%	52.3%	43.6%
Commitment subscale			
COM1	.761	.678	.777
COM2	.349	.540	.516
COM3	.794	.730	.834
COM4	.776	.695	.824
<i>Alpha</i>	.595	.565	.729
<i>Variance explained</i>	48.3%	44.2%	56.1%

To assess construct validity, a confirmatory factor analysis was employed utilising AMOS 17.0. Figure 1 illustrates the CFA model; Table 7 shows the results of three different models, each for the composite dataset (i.e., Turkey and the USA), the US sample, and the Turkey sample. The first CFA tested the 20-item scale. Goodness-of-fit measures were examined to assess the degree to which the data fit the model (Bentler, 1990). The chi-square statistics for all three samples were significant at the .000 level.

The CMIN/df was calculated to be 4.477, 3.337, and 2.568 for the composite, USA, and Turkey models, respectively, above the threshold of 2 commonly sought. Likewise, the GFI and AGFI statistics fell just below the desirable .90 threshold and the RMSEA statistic was just above the desirable .05 threshold for all three models. Given the previous validation of the scale and the cross-industry nature of the samples, these results are not surprising and do not necessarily question the validity of the scale (Carragher and Buckley, 1996; Sturman and Carragher, 2007). Nonetheless, it was appropriate to evaluate the modification indices (MI) to determine if alternative models should also be considered. Based on the MI, two additional models were tested.

Figure 1 Confirmatory factor analysis

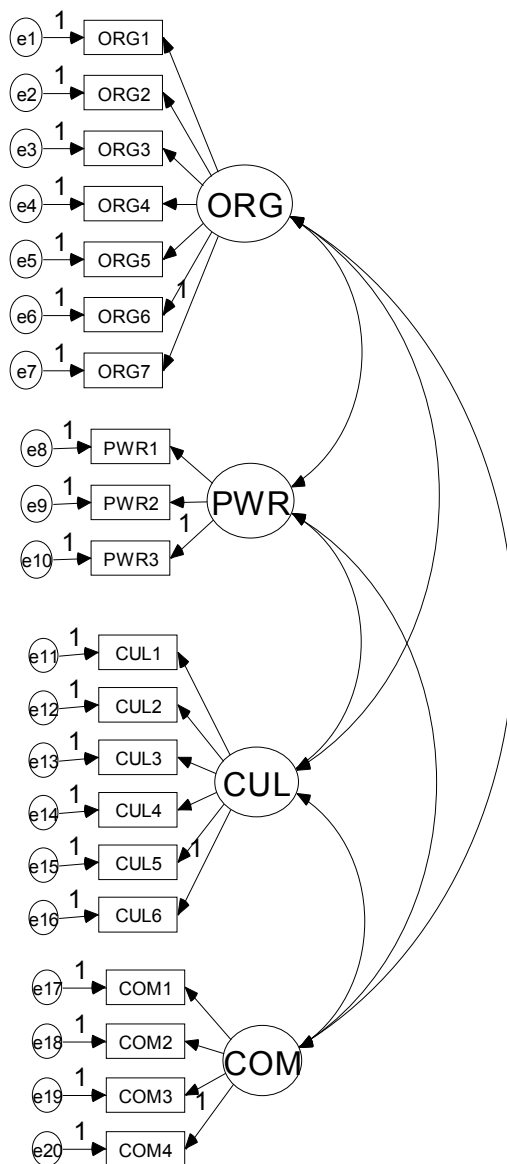


Table 7 CFA model comparisons

	<i>Composite</i>	<i>US only</i>	<i>Turkey only</i>
Original 20-item, four-factor scale			
CMIN	734.194	547.055	421.140
p-value	.000	.000	.000
df	164	164	164
CMIN/df	4.477	3.336	2.568
GFI	.887	.860	.860
AGFI	.885	.821	.821
RMSEA	.077	.084	.078
17-item, four-factor scale (CUL1, CUL2 and COM2 removed)			
CMIN	457.331	347.700	284.353
p-value	.000	.000	.000
df	113	113	113
CMIN/df	4.056	3.316	2.516
GFI	.917	.888	.888
AGFI	.888	.848	.848
RMSEA	.072	.083	.076
14-item, three-factor scale (COM factor removed; CUL1 and CUL2 removed)			
CMIN	344.853	257.297	204.250
p-value	.000	.000	.000
df	74	74	74
CMIN/df	4.660	3.477	2.760
GFI	.923	.902	.900
AGFI	.891	.861	.858
RMSEA	.078	.086	.082

The first model eliminated three problematic items: CUL1, CUL2, and COM2. The GFI and AGFI improved for both samples, while the RMSEA did not. The second model eliminated CUL1, CUL2, and the entire COM factor, reducing the PPDM scale to a three-factor model as it was originally proposed (Parnell and Bell, 1994). The reduction of these items resulted in improvements in the GFI, AGFI, and RMSEA statistics, but also in slight increases of the CMIN/df statistic. Although there was no compelling reason to reject the original 20-item model for one of the alternatives, the lack of strong support for the model should be considered in light of the findings presented herein.

7.2 Hypothesis 2

The second proposition was not supported. Turkish and US respondents were compared along each of the four PPDM factors (see Table 8). The Turkish sample scored higher than the US sample along the first three PPDM dimensions – organisational

effectiveness, power, and culture – with no significant differences along the commitment dimension.

Table 8 US vs. Turkey comparisons

<i>Variable</i>	<i>US</i>	<i>Turkey</i>	<i>F-value</i>	<i>Significance</i>
PPDM-org. effectiveness	-.130	.163	12.826	.000
PPDM-power	-.373	.473	126.698	.000
PPDM-culture	-.094	.119	6.693	.010
PPDM-commitment	-.041	.052	1.247	.265

Partial correlations were also computed to test for associations among the PPDM dimensions. The effects of age, gender, management level, management experience, organisational experience, and functional background were controlled. The results appear in Tables 9 and 10 and suggest a number of differences between the two samples, discussed below.

Table 9 Partial correlations: US sample**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>PPDM-org</i>	<i>PPDM-pwr</i>	<i>PPDM-cul</i>	<i>PPDM-com</i>
PPDM-org. effectiveness	1.00			
PPDM-power	.042	1.00		
PPDM-culture	.417*	.274*	1.00	
PPDM-commitment	.146*	.388*	.120	1.00

Notes: *Significant at the .05 level and **controlling for the effects of age, gender, management level, management experience, organisational experience, and functional background

Table 10 Correlations: Turkey sample**

<i>Variable</i>	<i>PPDM-org</i>	<i>PPDM-pwr</i>	<i>PPDM-cul</i>	<i>PPDM-com</i>
PPDM-org. effectiveness	1.00			
PPDM-power	.072	1.00		
PPDM-culture	.053	.152*	1.00	
PPDM-commitment	.051	.044	.033	1.00

Notes: *Significant at the .05 level and **controlling for the effects of age, gender, management level, management experience, organisational experience, and functional background

8 Discussion

This study compared and contrasted dimensions of PPDM between Turkish and US managers. Although the two nations possess some similarities, marked differences were found. The first hypothesis of the study was generally supported by the findings. Factor loadings of the dimensions in the US sample are at acceptable levels. In the Turkish sample, however, they are under the acceptable level for CUL1 (“My subordinates tend to possess the same organizational goals that I have”) and COM2 (“It’s better for a manager not to solicit subordinate participation than to do so and ignore the

suggestions”). This may result from a preference in Turkish culture for cooperative rather than individual action. This preference is not under the hegemony of traditional male values, where the tendency to avoid ambiguity is high, external locus of control is dominant, and distance between the organisational powers is high, and conflict avoidance and competition are suppressed (Sargut, 1994).

Seven items loaded higher in the Turkish group than they did in the US group. The high factor loadings for ORG6, CUL5, COM1 and COM4 may be linked to the shifts among Turkish organisations in favour of implementing western-style management techniques (Mengüç, 2000). The high loadings for PWR1, PWR3 and COM3 may be associated with the high power distance in Turkey resulting in the lack of communication between the workers and managers (Suğur et al., 2004).

The lack of support for the second proposition was surprising. Moreover, comparative analyses performed among PPDM factors showed that the scores obtained for organisational efficiency, power and culture dimensions are higher for Turks than they are for Americans. For commitment, however, no significant difference was observed between two groups. This may be due to the fact that rapid changes taking place during globalisation may influence the sector, structure, ownership and technology-related elements of the organisations in developing countries (Tak et al., 2007; Kutay and Çavuş, 2006; Efil and Eryılmaz, 2006; Temel and Bulut, 2008; Ak, 2008; Baraz, 2006; Gümüştekin and Adsan, 2006; Culpan et al., 2007; Bilgin, 2007). In addition, many Turkish firms are actively changing their management approaches to meet challenges associated with the global economy.

The PPDM dimensions were analysed for possible effects of age, gender, management level, management experience, organisational experience, and functional background. These demographic variables appear to affect the relationships among some but not all dimensions of PPDM. For example, all of the correlations among age, experience in the present position, experience with the organisation, and managerial experience are significant and positive. Managerial experience is significantly correlated at the .05 level with the composite measure for the PPDM-organisational effectiveness factor, the US measure for the PPDM-power factor, and the Turkey measure for the PPDM-culture factor. Hence, although PPDM may differ depending on cultural differences, demographics of the managers are also influential. As with many countries, Turkish society consists of many sub-cultures (Kozan, 2002), which can indirectly result in significant relationships between PPDM and the demographic variables (Özen, 2002). Data obtained as a result of these analyses do not concur with those of Kozan's (1993) findings that managers in developed countries score more highly along PDM measures than those in developing nations.

Considering the PPDM factor loadings in the Turkish sample, the culture variable belonging to organisational dimension and power variable belonging to individual dimension are lower when compared to other dimensions. This may be due to Turkey-specific factors, such as an autocratic managerial structure.

Although one of the samples of the present study consists of the US organisations determining the world trends, the other one consists of organisations trying to integrate into the world markets and to thrive in a developing country. The survey analysed in this study suggests that PPDM differences in Turkey are not extreme. This may be due to recent developmental changes in Turkey.

Perhaps, the key contribution of the present study is the unexpected fact that Turkish managers seemed to embrace participative decision making more than their US

counterparts. One key explanation for this anomaly may be found in the influence of national culture on the decision-making process (Adler, 1991). Both the western influence on Turkey and the development of the nation's economy and infrastructure have been notable in recent years. Western lifestyles have become common (Sisman, 2002). The western influence notwithstanding, Turkish culture remains distinctively Turkish, however. Nonetheless, outside influences on management styles are apparent and lend credence to Sargut's (1994) argument that, contrary to widespread belief, Turkish society does not have strong masculine characteristics (see Hofstede, 1993).

Another explanation may be the rapid economic changes Turkey has experienced in recent years. Turkey has attracted substantial foreign investment and joint ventures from numerous multinational companies (MNCs), including many firms from the USA and the European Union. This foreign influence has influenced contemporary Turkish managerial styles, thereby encouraging participation in the decision-making process. In addition, as the heightened competitive environment emerging in the country forced the managers to integrate with foreign markets, many Turkish firms adopted western norms in their managerial styles. Given the higher achievement orientation pervasive among many Turkish managers relative to their western counterparts (Arslan, 2001), many Turkish managers have sought to integrate participative decision making approaches.

A third possible explanation is associated with changes in the organisational cultures in Turkey, and specifically, the influence of changes in organisational thinking on leadership practice (House et al., 1997). Indeed, organisational culture affects leadership as much as leadership affects organisational culture (Bass, 1996). Organisational values in Turkish organisations also affect preferred leadership approaches (Pasa et al., 2001). The findings of the present study concur with this line of reasoning. Studies several decades (e.g., Dilber, 1967) ago cast Turkish managers as authoritative and benevolent paternalists. Recent studies, however, depict a greater appreciation for participation. For example, in one study conducted among US and Turkish hotel managers, US leaders were found to prefer mostly individualistic leadership styles, with relatively few of them adopting participatory and administrative leadership styles. Turkish managers embraced more eclectic approaches and were not as easy to categorise. The most popular type among them was also individualistic, followed closely by administrative, participatory, bargainer, and consultant leadership styles (Aktaş, 2006). Recent studies by Barca et al. (2008) and Köseoğlu and Ocak (2008) revealed that managers have a greater tendency to adopt a bottom-up approach while developing strategies. Although an authoritative orientation can still be seen among Turkish managers, such an approach is common to US managers as well (Kahveci et al., 1996). Hence, it is possible that leadership characteristics influence PPDM in Turkey, a nation whose managers are gradually adopting the leadership philosophy and techniques of the western world (Kozan and Ilter, 1994).

9 Conclusions and future research directions

The PPDM scale appears to provide a valid measure of the propensity for participative decision making in Turkey. In addition and quite surprisingly, the PPDM attitudes of the Turkish managers were found to be higher than those of their US counterparts. Turkish managers – with a high achievement orientation – seem to have incorporated participative decision making approaches as a means of improving their effectiveness. Foreign

investment of western nations, economic development with Turkey, and both national and organisational cultural influences have facilitated this shift toward PDM and related approaches (Özcan, 2007). The previous explanations notwithstanding, the unexpected difference between Turkish and US managers found in the present study is intriguing and worthy of further investigation.

Several realistic avenues for future research have been identified. First, replications of the present study in Turkey – and in other emerging nations as well – may identify factors that are common to developing nations (Chen and Tjosvold, 2006). Without such research, the generalisability of these findings to other emerging economies is tenuous.

Second, some relevant factors such as the sectors in which the managers' organisations operate, ownership structure, size, equity capital and annual gross income were not considered in the present study. Accordingly, the studies that will consider these variables within intra- or international contexts may shed further light on the dimensions that influence PPDM.

Third, PDM can play a role in the process of strategy development (Daniels and Bailey, 1999; Latham et al., 1994) and dissemination (Parnell et al., 2002). Accordingly, future studies that evaluate the relationship between strategic philosophy (Parnell and Menefee, 2007; Parnell, 2005a, 2005b) and PPDM will link the construct to the field of strategy development.

Fourth, a refinement of the PPDM scale may be warranted. Although the concept of participative decision making appears to be generally understood across borders, a further modification of the PPDM scale may be necessary to account for cultural differences. The present study provided general support for the refined scale (Parnell and Crandall, 2001), but further modifications may be appropriate if the scale is to be employed in additional cross-cultural studies.

Fifth, much of the recent literature has shifted from analyses of various forms of participation to the assessments of organisational and behavioural reasons why participation sometimes fails (Beaumont and Hunter, 2007). Most researchers seem to agree that participative decision making is inherently desirable, although some argue that its association with performance may be positive but infinitesimal, non-existent, or even negative under certain conditions (Lawler et al., 2001). Stanton (1993), for example, claimed that PDM fails because of unclear roles and processes for PDM, and because individuals lack the experience and competence. Halal and Brown (1981) noted that PDM creates unrealistic expectations and promises, is time consuming, generates mediocre decisions, confuses accountability and can generate disruptive conflicts and a loss of managerial authority. In a similar vein, PPDM research that distinguishes between the propensity for effective participation – PDM that works – and the propensity for ineffective participation will be useful.

Finally, sound research encourages one to maintain methodological consistency, but problems invariably exist when constructs and surveys are modified or translated for samples in other cultures. Such changes invariably present judgmental decisions that must be made by the researcher. For example, Punnett and Shenkar (1994) warned against interviews, experiments and observational approaches where great religious differences exist between the researcher's home culture and that being studied. In addition, survey research is feasible when any language barriers are overcome, but less reliable when educational differences are also highly pronounced. Further, one's values can influence item interpretation and create response bias. Following this logic, many management constructs developed in advanced western nations may be inappropriate in

emerging economies. New constructs may more accurately explain management behaviour.

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