

T.C.

ANKARA YILDIRIM BEYAZIT UNIVERSITY

SOCIAL SCIENCES INSTITUTE

EXAMINING THE RELATIONSHIPS AMONG PERCEIVED ORGANIZATIONAL SUPPORT, ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE, AND JOB PERFORMANCE: A STUDY IN AVIATION FIRMS

MASTER'S THESIS

Hatice YILMAZER

DEPARTMENT OF MANAGEMENT AND ORGANIZATION

ANKARA, 2023

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SUPERVISED BY

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ANKARA, 2023

APPROVAL PAGE

The thesis, titled as "Examining the Relationship Among Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Culture, and Job Performance: A Study in Aviation Firms" and prepared by Hatice YILMAZER, was accepted by the following committee members unanimously/ by majority as a thesis for the degree of Master of Science in Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University, Institute of Social Sciences, Department of Management and Organization.

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PLAGIARISM PAGE

I declare that this thesis is my own work, that I have not had any unethical behaviour violating patents and copyrights at all stages from the planning to writing of the thesis, that I have obtained all the information in this thesis within academic and ethical rules, and that I have cited all the information and comments used in this thesis.

Hatice YILMAZER

BU DÜNYADAKİ EN BÜYÜK SERVETİM GÜN IŞIĞIM BİRİCİK OĞLUM YAĞIZ VE RUHUMUN IŞIĞI, SEVGİLİ EŞİM SERDAR TUNA'YA

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Before everything, I thanks to my husband, Serdar Tuna, who has always been my supporter. His support has helped me come through all the hardship in my life, not just limited to this work. Thank you for the endless possibilities that brought us together.

The most important thanks to my son YAĞIZ...You are my biggest inspiration and the most beautiful thing I keep in my heart. Thank you for your termless love for me. Let happiness be your shadow...

ÖZET

Algılanan Örgütsel Destek, Örgüt Kültürü ve İş Performansı Arasındaki İlişkilerin İncelenmesi: Havacılık Firmalarında Bir Araştırma

Bu çalışmanın amacı örgüt kültürünün iş performansı üzerindeki etkisinde algılanan örgütsel desteğin düzenleyici rolünün incelenmesidir. Bu ilişkiler sosyal değişim teorisi çerçevesinde ele alınmıştır. Araştırmanın örneklemi havacılık firmalarında çalışan 347 katılımcıdan oluşmaktadır. Veriler katılımcılardan çevrimiçi anket yoluyla toplanmıştır. Kartopu örneklemi yöntemi kullanılmıştır. Çalışanların örgüt kültürü düzeyleri Cameron ve Quinn'in geliştirdiği Örgüt Kültürü Ölçeği, iş performansı düzeyleri Spreitzer tarafından kısaltılmış İş Performansı Ölçeği ve örgütsel destek algıları ise Eisenberger vd.'nin geliştirdiği Algılanan Örgütsel Destek Ölçeği kullanılarak belirlenmiştir. Veri analizinde SPSS v22 programı kullanılmıştır. Veriler aracılığıyla hipotezleri test etmek için açıklayıcı faktör analizi, çoklu regresyon analizi ve düzenleyici değişkenli hiyerarşik regresyon analizi kullanılmıştır. Araştırmada elde edilen bulgulara göre, algılanan örgütsel desteğin örgüt kültürü ve iş performansı arasındaki pozitif yönlü ilişkide düzenleyici etkisinin olduğu belirlenmiştir. Sonuçlar tartışma bölümünde yorumlanmıştır. Araştırmanın kısıtlarından söz edilmiş ve gelecek araştırmacılara faydalı olabileceği düşünülen önerilerde bulunulmuştur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Örgüt Kültürü, İş Performansı, Algılanan Örgütsel Destek

ABSTRACT

Examining the Relationships among Perceived Organizational Support, Organizational Culture, and Job Performance: A Study in Aviation Firms

The goal of this research is to investigate the moderating role of perceived organizational support (POS) on the relationships between organizational culture (OC) and job performance (JP). These relations are discussed within the framework of Social Exchange Theory (SET). The sample of the research consists of 347 participants working in aviation firms. Data were collected from the participants via an online questionnaire. Snowball sampling method was used. Organizational culture levels of the employees were measured by Cameron and Quinn Organizational Culture Scale (OCS), their assessment of job performance was measured by Job Performance Scale (JBS) abbreviated by Spreitzer, and their perceptions of organizational support were measured using Perceived Organizational Support Scale (SPOS) by Eisenberger et al. SPSS v22 program were used in data analysis. With the help of the data, explanatory factor analysis, multiple regression analysis and a moderated hierarchical regression analysis were used to test models and hypotheses. According to the findings, it was determined that perceived organizational support had a moderating effect on the positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. The results are interpreted in the discussion section. The limitations of the research were mentioned. Recommendations have been made that are thought to be useful to future researchers have been made.

Keywords: Organizational Culture, Job Performance, Perceived Organizational Support

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INDEX OF ABBREVIATIONS

OC: Organizational Culture

JP: Job Performance

SET: Social Exchange Theory

OCS: Organizational Culture Scale

JPS: Job Performance Scale

POS: Perceived Organizational Support

SPOS: Perceived Organizational Support Scale

OST: Organizational Support Theory

LME: Leader-Member Exchange

DF: Degrees of Freedom

N: Sample Size

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin

CI: Condition Index Value

ULCI: Upper-Level Confidence Interval

LLCI: Lower-Level Confidence Interval

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INTRODUCTION

1.1. Problem Statement

Human resources quality is of great importance in ensuring the competitive advantage of organizations in the service sector, which is a labour-intensive sector. It is important to develop employees, to see themselves as a part of the organization, and to adopt organizational goals in organizations that use human resources in order to increase competitive advantage and ensure the continuity of the organization. Accordingly, it is important that the organization assimilates its commonly shared value and norms to deliver performance. In this context, the concept of organizational culture comes to forefront.

Organizational culture is the values shared among the members of the organization (Güney, 2004). Organizational culture can also be seen as a compass for determining how the organization will follow a strategic path, set goals, reach its goals, maintain and measure this development, and create products and markets (Peters & Waterman, 1987).

In organizations with a strong culture, there are no conflicts between employees and managers, and everyone works in coherence to achieve the goals of organization (Eren, 2008). Most researchers (Akıncı, 1998; Eren, 1997; Eren, 2008; Şimşek et al., 2001) agree that strong culture plays an important role in increasing productivity of staff as well as increasing job satisfaction, facilitating communication among them, and focusing on success and excellent performance by them within the cultural framework that pushes individuals to achieve goals.

Organizational culture is the model of that affect the behavior, beliefs, attitudes, and activities of employees and the values and beliefs shared by them as well as expected behaviors (Reeves & Bednar, 1994). Organizational culture, which is a significant factor in employee motivation's creation plays a significant role in the variables' perception in organizational behavior, especially in job performance, and in the development of attitude and behavior (Egan et al., 2004). Accordingly, it can be said that organizational culture is one of the factors affecting the employees' job performance. Khosrow et al. (2017) stated that organizational culture, knowledge management and organizational climate positively affect job performance. Having a positive organizational culture compared to employees will ensure productivity (Şahin, 2010), quality of work, competitive power (Perçin, 2008), motivation of employees (Doğan, 2015), positive internal and external communication (Özyurt, 2022), and also increase the performance of work and social life. Therefore,

organizational culture is accepted as a significant control system to job performance in workplaces.

Social Exchange Theory (Blau, 1964), is a significant approach created to examine social relations that arise from the exchange of material and nonmaterial in the interactions between the worker and the employer. The most basic assumption of this theory developed by Blau (1964) is that if the benefit to be obtained as a result of an exchange between the parties is greater than the cost, individuals will be willing to participate in change. In this theory also focuses on the changing emotions, thoughts, and behaviors of employees. It is important to get feedback from the employees who are directly involved in all processes for the continuity, competitive advantage, and success of the organization. In this sense, the concept of POS comes to the fore. POS, which is the research's third variable, is defined as employees' perception of the degree to which they value contributions of the organization and care about their welfare (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Employees who have high organizational support perception have positive thoughts about organizations and perceptions towards organizations. For this reason, employees put more effort into their organizations in accordance with the Social Exchange Theory (Eder & Eisenberger, 2008). While innovation is of great importance for employees in a supportive organizational culture, since the status quo is at the forefront in organizations with a rigid culture, innovative behaviors may not receive sufficient support. Employees are the ones who will reveal and implement innovation in organizations. For this reason, De Jong and Kemp (2003) stated that supporting the ideas of the employees by the organization provides convenience in developing innovative behavior and increasing their performance. At this point, establishing a corporate culture that supports innovation can contribute to employee performance.

Daniel and Purwanti (2015), Denison and Mishra (1995) and Lin and Lin (2013) revealed the relationship between job performance and organizational culture. While relationship between job performance and organizational culture is revealing, variables such as motivation and job satisfaction were used. The contribution of this research is to investigate the moderating role of POS between organizational culture and job performance.

1.2. Research Purpose and Questions

The main purpose of this research is to investigate the moderating role of POS on the relationships between organizational culture and job performance. In addition, it has been

tried to determine whether the POS and performance variables show difference significantly by gender and work experience of the employees.

RQ1: Do demographics (gender and work experience) of employees make any significant difference in terms of POS, organizational culture, and job performance?

RQ2: Are there any significant relations between POS, organizational culture, and job performance?

RQ3: Does POS have a significant moderator effect on the relationship between organizational culture and job performance?

1.3. Importance of the Research

POS and organizational culture interact and both have impacts on employees' job performance. The main purpose of this research is to investigate the moderating role of POS on the relationships between organizational culture and job performance in the aviation sector.

The most important feature of this research is the limited number of studies examining the relationships between POS, organizational culture and job performance in the literature. The presented data and the model created can form the basis for future research on this issue. This research can be a guide for researchers who want to research and practice on POS, organizational culture, and job performance in Turkey. In accordance with this information, testing and explaining the direct and indirect relationships revealed in the research model will benefit the literature.

1.4. Organization of the Chapters

This thesis mainly consists of five chapters, references and appendix. Introduction part of research consists of following subheadings: Research problem, research objectives and questions and importance of research. The first part is the conceptual framework. It consists of five subheadings: Organizational culture, job performance, perceived organizational support, relationships between variables and hypotheses and research model. Definitions, importance, development processes, dimensions and elements of the concepts are explained. The second part of the research is the field study. In this section, the research method, analyses and findings are presented. Hypotheses have been tested and the results have been presented. In line with the findings obtained, the results and discussion section

were presented. In the discussion section, there are summaries about the purpose and results of the research. In the last part, there are limitations and recommendations.

SECTION 1: CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

2.1. Organizational Culture

Nowadays, organizations are always making changes in their organizational values in order to keep up with the competitive conditions and adapt to the changing conditions in the globalizing world. It is necessary to find new management methods by changing the traditional methods in order to ensure the sustainability of organizations (Babayeva, 2022). When the changing values are adopted by the employees and the values maintain their continuity, it creates the organizational culture. Employees who come together in the direction of the same aims and objectives for the organization's the development form a system with different beliefs (Yüceant et al., 2022).

Organizational culture provides the implementation of the necessary strategies to ensure the sustainability of the organization. Organizational culture is a system that gives information about the organization to employees. This system tells employees how they should behave and how they should think. Organizational culture is a phenomenon that directs the activities of the organization. Organizational culture is a phenomenon that is always changing and developing with the effect of constant external and internal environmental factors (Sezgin & Sönmez, 2018).

Organizational culture is a system of values that directs the behavior of stakeholders and employees. This system of values makes the organization different from other organizations (Robbins & Judge, 2015). What makes organizational culture valuable is that the system of beliefs and values is understood and accepted by the members of the organization. Organization members try to adapt to the organization and to communicate with others. Individuals who have common values, beliefs, goals and habits with the organization adapt better to the organization (Köksal, 2018). Organizational culture is significant for the organization and employees to work in harmony and for the formation of common values, behaviors and goals (Örücü & Ayhan, 2001).

Organizational culture affects the harmony, expression of thoughts and determination of employees in teamwork. In this sense, organizational culture helps that organizations gain competitive advantage and it is one of the important factors in competitors ahead of the pack (Yalçınsoy, 2019). In organizations with a strong culture, there are no conflicts between employees and managers, and everyone works in conformity to reach the organizations' the aims. In organizations with weak organizational culture, if communication is not established

correctly, internal conflicts are experienced. Employees cannot have been control over how to do the job (Eren, 2008).

In a rapidly changing and developing world, it is essential for all organizations to keep up with the change quickly and to catch and implement it on time. Organizations should be open for improvement and have a strong organizational culture in order for them adapt to these changes. Although organizational culture has a certain history and seems to require acting with traditional methods, organizations with a strong organizational culture can quickly adapt to the sociological, political and technological changes coming from the environment. And then, organizations can become the leading organization of the industry (Görmen, 2018). In addition to all these, organizational culture provides some convenience in the organization's routine working. Employees can do their day-to-day activity without the need for too many procedures. It facilitates formal or informal communication. It makes significant contributions to the motivation of the employees. It makes all employees think that they are a whole against the outside in all departments within the organization. It creates an esprits de corps in the organization and ensures easy achievement of goals (Tutar, 2017).

Organizational culture consists of the common values and beliefs of everyone working in an environment. In this respect, it is a very significant factor for the organization's the continuity. An organizational culture that is clearly understood and adopted by employees has an important impact on employee motivation. Organizational culture is also very important in terms of focusing different work groups on a common goal within the organization (Pulat, 2010).

Organizational culture does not only play a binding role among the employees in the organization. Also, it is a very significant structure that sees a function as a bridge between the organization and the environment. It has a great impact on ensuring organizational continuity. It is a structure that helps to ensure commitment and dedication to the organization (Bursalıoğlu, 2012).

Organizational culture also functions as a control mechanism. Organizational culture not only helps the organization to achieve its objectives but also contributes to the level of quality. It can be said that it provides an innovative structure to the organization as another benefit to the organization (Karaduman, 2014).

Organizational culture is important in that it allows the employees to realize themselves in the organization; determines their belief, thinking, behavior patterns, and encourages the members of the organization to work voluntarily (Karaduman, 2014).

According to the studies, there is a relationship between the weak or strong organizational culture and job performance. It is stated that organizations with high organizational culture show higher performance (Güçlü, 2004). There are various studies that organizational commitment is higher in organizations with a strong organizational culture in the literature. This commitment positively affects job performance (Çetin, Şeşen & Basım, 2012; Doğan, 2013). A strong organizational culture also makes a positive contribution to job performance by motivating employees (Bakan, Büyükbeşe & Bedestenci, 2004; Kozlu, 2014). Employees cannot adopt organizational values in organizations with weak organizational culture. It can negatively affect the job performance of employees due to their inadequacy in ensuring harmony between subcultures in the organization (Mert, 2018).

2.1.1. Functions of Organizational Culture

Culture has very important functions in an organization. A strong culture gives the organization and its employees a personality that makes them different from their environment. The feeling of being different from others increases the motivation of the employees and allows employees to dedicate themselves to their work. The first of the important functions of organizational culture, organizational culture is to give employees a corporate identity which enables employees to identify with the organization, to see their existence and future in the same organization (Barutçugil, 2004). Namely, employee integration with the organization gives them a special identity (Özkalp & Kırel, 2013). Also, it increases employees' sense of belonging to the organization along with the sense of identity gained. In this context, organizational commitment and loyalty of employees also develop (Tutar, 2017). The second, organizational culture facilitates ownership. Employees are self-dedicated to the aims of the organization as a whole and a significant sense of belonging develops (Barutçugil, 2004). An esprits de corps among employees harmonizes people's individual and organizational behavior. It strengthens the feeling of helping each other among employees and being a member of the organization by creating a sense of having a common past and future within the organization. This feeling also increases organizational trust (Tutar, 2017). Third, organizational profitability provided thanks to commitment of

employees to the organization at a level that can be called passion and focusing on their work and goals with a strong organizational identity. This profitability is sustainable in the long run (Barutçugil, 2004). Employees make more positive self-sacrifice for the organization thanks to this commitment (Özkalp & Kırel, 2013). A strong organizational culture is a motivation tool that supports increasing the efficiency and the organization's effectiveness. Organizational culture increases the motivation of the individual by creating a sense of social satisfaction through common values, norms and behaviors. It increases employees' sense of belonging and job satisfaction in organizations with strong organizational culture. This contributes to organizational efficiency and effectiveness (Tutar, 2017). And the fourth function, organization culture shapes attitudes and behaviors of employees by socially sensitive and harmonious (Barutçugil, 2004). Also, according to Schein (2010), organizational culture also plays a significant role in solving the problems of compliance with the organizations' the external environment. Namely, organizational culture creates a consensus in the direction of the target determined within the scope of the organization's goals. It provides support to the solution of problems in organizations. It increases the effectiveness of communication within the organization by creating a common language and consensus. It provides harmony between individual principles and organizational rules (Tutar, 2017). Another function is that culture has a role that distinguishes one organization from another. Because every organization has its own distinctive culture (Özkalp & Kırel, 2013). In this context, organizational culture has a function that differentiates the organization from other organizations by providing an identity to the organization. It is also provided that strengthens the sense of organizational belonging with the sense of identity it provides to members of the organization. Organizational culture is also a function of internal control system as a set of values that shape and direct the attitudes and behaviors of employees (Tutar, 2017). Finally, organizational culture can provide a competitive advantage for organizations. Organizational culture, which can create synergy culture of an organization, is the most important organizations' core capability. Therefore, organizational culture is a significant competitive advantage tool for any organization. An organizational culture that supports innovation, individuality and risk taking will be a tool to provide competitive advantage for the organization (Tutar, 2017). In addition to the positive functions of the organizational culture, it also has a negative function such as the harmful effect of the culture on the organizations' effectiveness. Namely, the organizations' effectiveness may suffer if the organization's environment is volatile and the members of the organization do not adopt the values of their organization about the future. When

organizations with a strong culture cannot adapt to the changes in their environment, culture begins to perform a negative function. For this reason, the conflict between the organizations' cultural structure and the environment can negatively affect the success of the organization. For example, if an enterprise that has been producing telephones for a long time has to produce computers as a result of environmental changes, the previous cultural patterns begin to contradict the new production. The fact that the new values are more difficult to accept by the employees compared to the dominant cultural values shows that the organizational culture has difficulty in adapting to this change (Özkalp & Kırel, 2013).

2.1.2. Elements of Organizational Culture

The elements of organizational culture are material and spiritual elements that provide the formation. Looking at the literature, there are different approaches to the basic elements of organizational culture.

The elements of organizational culture can be explained in two different stages as elements that make up organizational culture and elements that convey organizational culture. Elements in phase one: Values, beliefs, assumptions, and leaders (Yücel & Koçak, 2014).

Values are the understandings that base the behavior of employees. Values are the criteria by which employees' actions are evaluated and determine what is acceptable and unacceptable in the organization (Erdem, 2003).

Belief is the state of continuity of an individual's perceptions of the subject or object. If the employees' beliefs in the organization are similar, that organizations' beliefs are just as strong and widespread. Beliefs maintain organizational culture (Erkmen, 2010).

Assumptions are accepted judgments. Assumptions are individual-based thoughts that exist in the subconscious of employees about the order in the organization. Assumptions are formed on the basis of a basic perception in the members of the group. Assumptions explain why the organization should continue to exist. Assumptions constitute the identifiable reasons for their perceptions of problems and their solutions within the organization (Gizir, 2008).

The formation of organizational culture is determined by founders or leader as a manager. Employees are accepted for a job within the scope of the values that leaders create based on their own personalities. Integration of employees with the organization is provided

by leaders. Leaders' own visions and missions can shape organizational culture (Tütüncü & Akgündüz, 2012).

Elements that are carriers of organizational culture: Stories, myths, language, symbols, ceremonies and norms (Güleç, 2020).

Stories act as a bridge between the past and present of organizations. Stories allow the history of the organization to be depicted and permanent in the minds of employees. Another benefit of stories is that they help employees understand how their organization came to be today (İşcan & Timuroğlu, 2007).

Myths are a communication tool that conveys the values of organizations. When an organization's values, beliefs, and related events become messages, they become mythical. Myths can have positive or negative meanings. Myths that impose on a sense of belonging is positive. When myths cause malicious groupings, they are negative (İşcan & Timuroğlu, 2007).

Language is one of the carriers of culture in organizations. Only that organizations' the employees know the language of the organization. Each organization has its own slogans, idioms, slang expressions, stereotypes, etc. Employees become a part of the organization by using this language (Güçlü, 2003). Language ensures that the culture is transmitted to the new employees. It facilitates communication within the organization. It helps to learn the culture (Köse, Tetik, & Ercan, 2001).

A symbol is a way of meeting material and spiritual phenomena, embodying the meanings and expressions in the mind. Symbols are used to express both intangible and tangible elements of culture. The aim is to make the same meanings for everyone from the same concepts. While symbols provide integrity and cohesion within the organization, it differentiates itself from other organizations (Koca, 2010).

Ceremonies include organizations such as commemorations, celebrations, company dinners, picnics. Emotions such as celebration, mourning, farewell shared by the members of the organization takes place through rituals. Through these ceremonies, employees understand better values and beliefs of the organization and feel esprits de corps (Yücel & Koçak, 2014).

Behavioural expectations that qualify as right and wrong are called norms. Rules that enable to distinguish which behavior is right and wrong behavior in the organization are the

norms. Organizational norms are rules that guide employees based on the values of the organization (Öztürk, Şaklak, & Yılmazer, 2010).

2.1.3. The Cameron and Quinn Competing Values Culture Model

Cameron and Quinn, in their book "Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework", explained organizational culture with the model they call competing values (Tutar, 2017). According to the competing values model, it is necessary to examine and analyse the organizations' the basic values of the members in order to ensure institutional success, efficiency and effectiveness within the organization. In this context, Cameron and Quinn examined the relationship between organizational success and organizational culture on basis of competing values model. They carried out an empirical analysis of the value judgments of the employees for organizational effectiveness (Adıgüzel & Kaya, 2010). Questions were asked about the basic criteria that determine organizational effectiveness and what the key factors explaining organizational effectiveness. Questions were asked about the indicators according to which employees are positioned, when employees make decisions about the effectiveness of an organization. As a result of these questions, Campbell, Brownas, Peterson, and Dunnette (1974) developed a list of 39 indicators that can be used to measure organizational effectiveness. As a result of the statistical analysis of these 39 efficiency indicators, two main dimensions have emerged that collect indicators in four clusters (Cameron &, Quinn, 2017). The schema, in which the culture types are defined, consists of two axes. The vertical one of the axes shows the spread from organic processes to mechanical processes. While organic processes emphasize flexibility and initiative in the organization, mechanical processes place more emphasis on control, balance and order. These two dimensions are opposite to each other. The horizontal axis is based on the opposite internal maintenance and external positioning dimensions. While internal maintenance refers to integration and regulation efforts, it emphasizes external positioning (Eren, 2015). In this model, it is emphasized that the wage and human-centered management understanding as a motivation tool is important in the management of the employees (Tutar, 2017). These two dimensions come together to form a quartet, each representing a different set of organizational effectiveness. Figure 1 shows the relationships between these two dimensions (Cameron & Quinn, 2017). In the competing values model, culture's four types have been identified: Clan, adhocracy, hierarchy, and market.

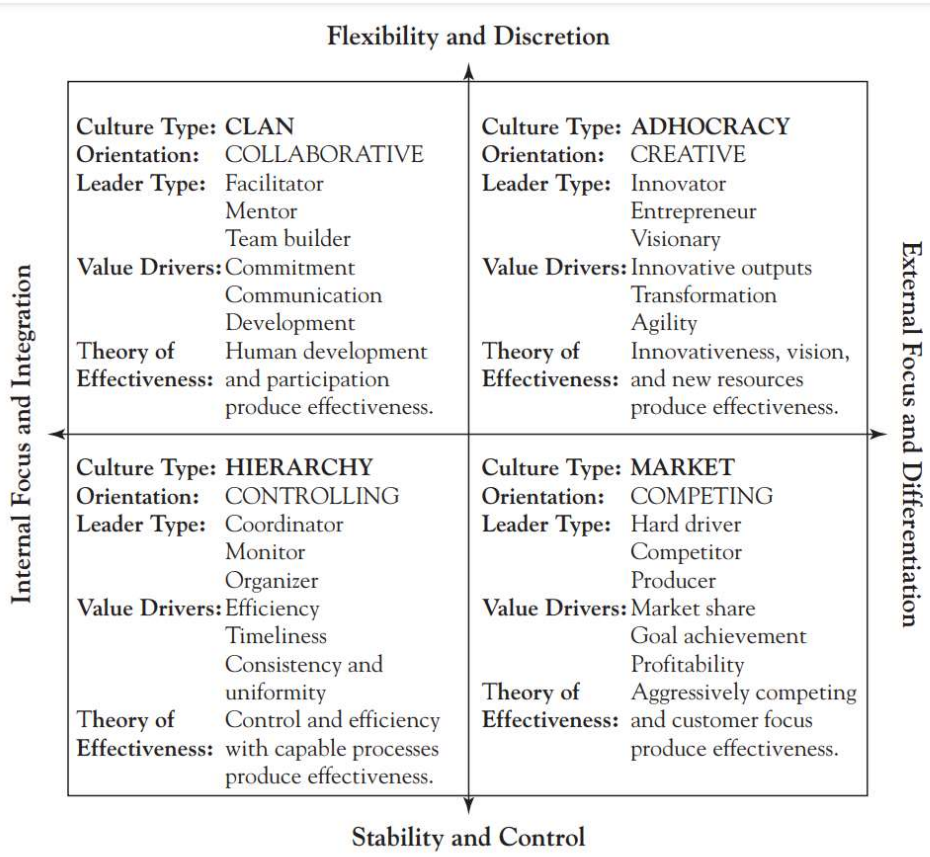


Figure 1. Competitive Values Model

Source: Diagnosing and Changing Organizational Culture: Based on the Competing Values Framework (Cameron & Quinn, 2011).

2.1.3.1. Hierarchy (Bureaucracy) Culture

Hierarchy culture is based on the work of Max Weber (1947). Hierarchical organizations had an important position in the management literature until the 1960s. It comes to the forefront that both helped to produce stable, efficient and consistent products and services and achieved successful coordination and control. Formalization and structuring are seen as the key to the success in the hierarchy culture. It is a culture in which there are standard rules and processes, intensely use of audit and accountability mechanisms, and drawn of decision-making authority (Cameron & Quinn, 2017).

Hierarchy culture is known for its tendency to control and its stress on the organizations' internal balance. In other words, it brings order to the organization. The goals of this culture are control, knowledge management, continuity, documentation, centralization, programming, and stability. It is stated to the organizations' members what to

do. The organizations' members are expected to abide by the rules. In addition, members are appointed clearly described roles. This type of culture is internally oriented and values predictability. In the hierarchy culture, the greatest reward of the members' work is safeguarding of job (Öztop, 2008).

Leaders are organizers rather than guides. In the hierarchy culture, the labour force is evaluated according to their job descriptions and positions. Employees are asked to obey rather than question their work and take initiative. Therefore, these types of organizations do not have a suitable environment for creative workers (Tutar, 2017).

In organizations with a hierarchy culture, the executive expects the employees to do what they want. This type of culture is organizations that have predetermined rules and prioritize them, such as banks and pharmaceutical companies (Gürsel, 2016).

2.1.3.2. Market (Rational) Culture

In the 1960s, all organizations faced a competitive structure. In these years, the market culture, which is becoming popular, differs greatly from the hierarchical culture. Market culture is based on the work of Oliver Williamson (1975) and Bill Ouchi (1981). It is not synonymous with the marketing function in the organization and the consumers in the market. Market culture expresses an organizational culture that functions like a market. It is directed towards the external environment of the organization rather than its internal environment. Market culture focuses more on consumers, suppliers, and all businesses with which the organization does business. Organizations adopting market culture are provided with internal control, economic market mechanisms and competitive dynamics. Among the main objectives of the organization are profitability, result oriented and marketshare dominance. As a result of these objectives, competitiveness and productivity are dominant values in market-type organizations (Cameron & Quinn, 2017; Doğan, 2012).

The purpose of the organization is an understanding that has external interests such as making profit, maintaining its power in the market, setting challenging goals, gaining loyal customers and expanding market areas (Sığrı & Gürbüz, 2016). The success of the organization is evaluated by increasing in the market share, the profits earned and the tangible outputs. Employees are success oriented. They focus on planning, performance and effectiveness. The core values are productivity and effectiveness. In this culture, market share and market penetration are taken as the basis for success criteria (Tutar, 2017).

In a market culture, employees are encouraged to take individual initiatives and entrepreneurship. In addition, market culture focuses on external problems rather than internal problems of the organization. Employees are evaluated according to what they produce. They are motivated to achieve success. Leaders are strict and demanding in the conduct of business. Leaders are seen as strong, determined, uncompromising and demanding, productive and competitive (Cameron & Quinn, 1992).

2.1.3.3. Clan (Group) Culture

It took the clan name because of its similarity to the family type organizational structure. In the 1970s, the clan culture has emerged in some researchers who have studied Japanese organizations. It emerged as a result of identifying the differences between hierarchy and market culture in the USA (Yıldırım, 2019).

Clan culture focuses on a flexible structure and internal processes in management processes. Shared values and goals are seen as participation and we-feeling. Teamwork comes to the fore in this culture. At the same time, teamwork argues that the organization can be managed with the participation of employees and that consumers should be a part of the management. One of the main features of clan culture is the existence of work teams. Although the existence of work teams is a proof that team success will be rewarded, organizational members can make suggestions to increase individual and organizational performance in the clan environment. Quality circles and an environment in which subsidiarity can be delegated are created in the clan culture in order to encourage this situation. Clan culture assumes that the organization can best be managed via teamwork. It assumes that consumers are a stakeholder in the organization and that the organization should run its business by creating a human-friendly environment. In this respect, clan culture aims to increase the commitment and loyalty of the organizations' members (Cameron & Quinn, 2017).

2.1.3.4. Adhocracy (Development) Culture

It is also referred to as entrepreneurial culture in the literature. In today's information age, it has been understood that it will not be possible to achieve success with an organizational structure strictly adhered to the rules. Adhocracy culture has emerged as a solution (Sığrı & Gürbüz, 2016).

Adhocracy culture reflects the organizational profile of the twenty-first century in the transition from the industrial age to the information age. Adhocracy culture is the organizational structure that best adapts to changing conditions (Cameron & Quinn, 2017). Adhocracy culture encourages adaptability, flexibility and creativity in information overload, unpredictable and indecisive situations. Adhocracy culture is a type of culture in which organizational structure and guidance are low. It is the type of culture in which creative thoughts and innovation are supported. Leaders are creative, adaptable to innovation, entrepreneurial and risk taker. Therefore, they support employees with these qualifications. Adhocracy culture, which expresses an active, innovative, entrepreneurial, and creative business atmosphere, is the most important values of entrepreneurship and innovation. In addition, it is very important to be flexible to adapt to the external environment in the face of new conditions (Tutar, 2017).

In this culture, employees are expected to do what is most original and new. Those who achieve this are rewarded. Leaders implement practices that will support new ideas and processes (Şişman, 2007).

2.2. Job Performance

Job performance is important in organizational behavior and human resources (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Researchers have examined the performance of individuals and teams for many years. Employees' performance evaluations influence optimal selection and placement decisions. It provides data for designing work and training programs and the feedback (Guion, 2011). For this reason, it is very significant to know nature of job performance and know what it takes (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). In order to understand individual employee or team performance, employee performance has been associated with different concepts and many studies have been conducted on the subject. Some examples of studies examining their relationship with job performance can be given as follows: Entrepreneurial orientation (Wiklund & Shepherd, 2003), leadership, put up resistance, authorisation and job satisfaction (Vecchio et al., 2010), organizational commitment and organizational citizenship behavior (Asiedu et al., 2014), fatigue (Demerouti et al., 2014), labor turnover (Wong et al., 2015), the meaningfulness of the work (Sanders, 2017), organizational cynicism and employee commitment (Arslan & Roudaki, 2019), emotional intelligence and conflict management styles (Aqqad et al., 2019), job characteristics and

employee well-being (Johari et al., 2019), job stress, and work-family conflict (Sayıldı, 2020).

When the literature is examined, many definitions are encountered regarding performance and job performance. Job performance has been traditionally expressed as the level of helping the employee achieve the aims of the organization to which they are affiliated (Campbell et al., 1993). Williams and Anderson (1991) defined job performance as the set of behaviors exhibited at work that are compatible with the aims and objectives of organization. Individual performance is defined as behaviors that can be measured and observed in the context of an individual's abilities and skills, with less reference to organizational results (Campbell et al., 1993). Especially in the post-1970 studies, job performance is handled in the focus of actions and behaviors rather than actions' results (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002).

Studies on job performance have adopted the idea that performance is a multidimensional structure consisting of sub-factors (Hosie & Nankervis, 2016). With this point of view, Borman and Motowidlo (1993) stated that job performance has a behavioural, periodic, evaluative and multidimensional structure. They defined job performance as the total value of behaviors performed by individuals over time which can be evaluated positively or negatively in terms of individual or organizational effectiveness (Motowildo et al., 1997). Job performance includes measurable employee behaviors and outcomes that contribute to organizational goals (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000). Similarly, Rotundo and Sackett (2002) defined job performance as actions and behaviors that are controlled by individuals and that help to achieve organizational goals. According to Trudel (2009), job performance is the value created by the behavior of employees in time. When the definitions of job performance are examined, it is seen that the focus is on actual behaviors that can be observed rather than results.

When conceptualization and dimensioning studies are investigated, it is seen that job performance reviews focus on contextual performance and task performance dimensions. In the literature, it is seen that this usage is mostly adopted. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) are among the first researchers to examine job performance in two dimensions: Contextual performance and task performance (Motowildo et al., 1997). Task performance consists of job behaviors that cover the specified basis work responsibility (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). Contextual performance includes behaviors that are not related to the basic technical

processes of organizations but are necessary for the operation of these processes and to create the social context that facilitates the effectiveness (Motowildo et al., 1997). More information on contextual performance and task performance dimensions is provided in the following sections.

Campbell (1990) modelled performance with an eight-factor method. Compared with the Borman and Motowidlo (1993) model, five factors have been identified that reflect its task performance: (1) leadership, (2) management/administration, (3) written and verbal communication, (4) non-job-specific task competence, (5) job-specific task competence. Three factors have been identified that reflect its contextual performance: (1) facilitating peer and team performance, (2) maintaining self-discipline, (3) making effort. In addition, each of the factors contains important sub-factors for a variety of jobs. For example, control factor contains directing employees, controlling employees and other resources to get work done, giving feedback, motivating (Viswesvaran & Ones, 2000).

Murphy (1989; 1990) examined the structure of job performance in four dimensions: Interpersonal behaviors, task performance, withdrawal behaviors, and destructive behaviors. Task performance has been associated with performing role-based activities; performing activities such as interpersonal behavior, pro-social behavior, helping teammates; displaying unwelcome and destructive behavior at work.

Allworth and Hesketh (1999) and Pulakos et al. (2000) evaluated job performance in three dimensions by adding the adaptive performance dimension to the contextual performance and task performance. Griffin et al. (2007) stated that job-related competence can help task performance in order to demonstrate a healthy job performance. However, they stated that it is also important for the employee to be proactive and compatible with the job role, especially for the uncertain organizational environment. In this context, adaptive performance has been defined as the capability of the individual to get used to job processing and to provide the necessary support in the working situation. As employees complete their assignments, they achieve a certain level of excellence (Pulakos et al., 2000). Adaptive performance relates to the employee's ability to transfer what they have learned from one task to another; to demonstrate cultural adaptability; to adapt to changes in working conditions; to change in key job assignments, restructuring of the job or organization, and technological advances (Motowidlo & Kell, 2012).

2.2.1. Dimensions of Job Performance

2.2.1.1. Task Performance

In some studies, on task performance, concepts are also used such as in-role performance (Maxham et al., 2008), technical competence (Lance et al., 1992), and job-specific task competence (Griffin et al., 2007) rather than the concept of task performance. Task performance refers to activities that contribute to employee skills and behaviors or basic techniques that directly affect the organization's production of goods and services (Motowildo et al., 1997). Examples are teaching in a school, selling products in a market, operating a production machine in a factory. Examples of activities that involve indirectly contributing to basic techniques are the distribution of final products and the execution of activities such as planning and supervision for the effective and efficient operation of the process (Motowildo et al., 1997).

Task performance includes job information, job quantity and job quality (Campbell, 1990). Katz and Kahn (1978) defined task performance as fulfilling qualitative and quantitative performance standards. Murphy (1990) defined task performance as the fulfilment of a job's duties and responsibilities. Task performance is a behavior that coincides with the role of the employee and is based on fulfilling the job requirements (LePine et al., 2002). According to Rotundo and Sackett (2002), task performance is the behavior that is shaped under the employees' control and is one of the most important supporters in achieving the organization's goals.

All these definitions tried to explain task performance by emphasizing two central features in general. The first of these is to contribute to basic technical activities. The second is that the job is fulfilling the defined official duties (Rotundo & Sackett, 2002). Borman and Brush (1993) evaluated task performance in two contexts: Leadership and technical-administrative task performance. Technical-administrative task performance contains organization and management of daily work in line with the employee's business judgment and technical knowledge and abilities. Leadership task performance includes activities such as setting strategic performance goals and standards, directing and motivating subordinates. For this reason, task performance represents an important activity in terms of maintaining the basic technical activities of organizations and meeting the requirements (Pradhan & Jena, 2017).

McCloy, Campbell and Cudeck (1994) evaluate task performance in two groups. This grouping is based on the requirement that the employee knows what to do and how to do it in order to fulfil the tasks assigned to them. The first is the declarative information that the employee must have about what needs to be done in order to fulfil the specified tasks. The second is knowledge and skill related to the ability to perform tasks.

2.2.1.1. Contextual Performance

Many researchers have stated that job performance cannot have only task performance characteristics (Smith et al., 1983). It is believed that employees work not only with task performance, but also with extra-role behaviors (Kahn, 1990). Contextual performance concept was introduced that refers to the voluntary employees' actions (Bateman & Organ, 1983) as a result of the examination of non-role activities that benefit the organization, the concept of contextual performance. In some studies, concepts are also used such as extra-role performance (Bakker et al., 2004), non-job-specific task competence (Wisecarver et al., 2007), and interpersonal relationships (Michel, 2000) instead of the contextual concept of performance.

Contextual performance includes activities that enhance and maintain the institutional, social, and psychological environment. These consist of behaviors such as supporting the goals of the organization, obeying its rules and procedures, helping others with their difficult tasks, cooperating and sharing necessary information, and making an effort (Borman et al., 2003). This behavior is expected of an employee but is not clearly stated in the employee's job description (Pradhan & Jena, 2017).

Contextual performance has been related to some important job-related consequences. It has been shown to be associated with: Increasing the colleagues' effectiveness (Podsakoff et al., 1997), operating efficiency, customer satisfaction, improves performance, reduces the intention to leave (Van Scotter, 2000), overall job performance, and provides cost efficiency and reduction of food waste and customer complaints (Walz and Niehoff, 1996), and organizational commitment (Van Scotter, 2000). It is evaluated on the basis of the emotional perspective that the employee adopts about colleagues and is called team spirit (Pradhan & Jena, 2017). Especially, it has been seen that helpful and collaborative behaviors reduce friction between members, increase workgroup effectiveness and improve organizational coordination (Borman & Motowidlo, 1993), and help to share problems more easily within the organization and search for solutions (Jaworski & Kohli,

1993). Contextual performance has a very important role in managing conflict among employees and ensuring interpersonal cooperation and trust (Çetin & Aşkun, 2018). When unexpected situations arise, collaborative behavior of employees facilitates employers' work and it contributes to organizational effectiveness by providing general assistance to the organization (Bateman & Organ, 1983). Because of all these effects, contextual performance is seen as a very important effort to achieve both individual productivity and organizational success (Reisel et al., 2005).

2.3. Perceived Organizational Support

The theory of organizational support and the structure of POS were developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986). This theory considers the development, nature and consequences of POS (Eisenberger et al., 2001). Accordingly, employees make an assessment whether their contributions to their organizations and their own well-being are considered important by their organizations. This evaluation reflects employees' organizational support perceptions (Kurtessis et al., 2017). POS is seen as valuable in that employees can overcome stressful situations; employees can perform their jobs effectively; and employees feel the assurance that they can get help from their organizations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

POS is based on Social Exchange Theory (SET) (Blau, 1964), where employees expect tangible benefits and social resources in return for their organizations' desired outputs such as effort and loyalty (Cropanzano & Mitchell, 2005). With this point of view, when both the employer and the employee act in accordance with the reciprocity norm in their relations, the positive behavior of one of the parties is mutually applied and this creates positive results for both parties (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) revealed that employees' perceptions of organizational support are directly interested in various situations such as rewards offered by their organizations, beneficial working conditions and fair treatment. As a result of the effort-result expectation, the employee will make more efforts to meet the organizational aims with POS. In return for this effort, they will increase their expectations that they will be rewarded. As a result, when employees with a high POS their expected praise and approval needs are met, they integrate their own identity with their presence in the organization and establish a positive emotional bond with organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Thus, employee puts more effort into his work. This results in many behaviors that are beneficial to the organization, such as improved contextual and task performance (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

Organizational Support Theory (OST) has attracted a great deal of attention since it was first introduced. The reasons for the theory to be of interest are as follows: It reveals the potential value of looking at the relationship between organization and employee from perspective of employee; it explains structure of POS and strongly correlates POS with organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

There is a relationship between POS of employees and their trust in the organization (Wu et al., 2008; Öztürk, 2022). It is observed that as POS of the employees' increases, their trust in the organization increases. If the employee trusts the organization, the employee feels psychologically and physically stronger in the organization. In this way, it is possible to act for the benefit of the organization without fear of taking risks. The employee's trust in the organization also makes it possible to take initiative without fear of making mistakes (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

There is a relationship between employees' POS and absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The results of the study reveal that there is a negative and significant relationship between POS and absenteeism (Eisenberger et al., 1986). As the employee's perception of organizational support increases, so does the desire to come to work (Eisenberger et al., 1986).

POS also has a negative and significant effect on employees' tendency cease of employment. When POS of the employee decreases, it is observed that there is an increase in the intention to leave the job. Employee retention rates are important for organizations to be successful and maintain their competitive advantage. It ensures that reducing cease of employment is among the priorities of the organization (Riggle et al., 2009).

When the commitment of the employees to the organization increases, it enables employees to put in more effort for the organization and to adopt their organization. This situation brings the commitment of the employee to the position that is desired by the organization. There is a strong relationship between employees' commitment to the organization and their perceptions of the support the organization gives them. It has been observed that employees' commitment to organization has increased as POS increases (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

The relationship between employee and organization consists of some benefit exchanges. The perspectives and expectations of employees with high POS in their relations with the organization are not only based on economic interests. It is seen that it causes an

increase in social expectations and a decrease in economic expectations. Moreover, it is also indicated that emloyees' perceived organizational support was increased (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

2.3.1. Theories Forming the Foundation of POS

POS is a concept that is shaped within the framework of Social Exchange Theory, Reciprocity Norm, Organizational Support Theory, and Leader-Member Exchange Theory.

Blau (1964) defines SET as "the positive respond to a person or persons whom people believe will benefit them under certain circumstances". According to this theory, there is a mutual relationship between the employee and the organization. It is stated that organizational support is important for employees. SET is explained with three theoretical ideas. The first proposition is explained as "people rationally choose the most suitable among various alternatives and rewarding one and choose the least harmful alternative". The second proposition is the "law of diminishing marginal utility". This principle is explained as "the value of the rewards one receives will lose their meaning over time and will no longer make sense to the person at a certain point". The last proposition is the "social exchange hypothesis" (Blau, 1964). As a result, POS is also expressed as "belief that social exchange agreement will be fulfilled by the organization" (Guzzo et al., 1994).

Gouldner (1966) claimed that the reciprocity norm is global. The emergence of the universal form of this norm is based on the fact that people help those who help them and do not harm them. From this point of view, the reciprocity norm is similar to the social exchange approach of SET. In this case, factors affecting the reciprocity norm are as follows: To what extent the employee's expectations are met; employee's level of willingness to expect; and organization's ability to meet expectations (Gouldner, 1966). According to this theory, it is thought that the exchanged resources may be needs such as money and service, as well as social-emotional needs such as being accepted and respected within the group. The reciprocity norm can occur between individuals as well as between the employee and the organization. It is thought that the fulfilment of mutual obligations will give the employee a positive impression towards the organization and to motivate them to fulfil their obligations (Eisenberger et al., 2001).

Michael et al., (2005) define OST as "Modern exchange theory is which states that employees show positive work-related results in exchange for resources such as pay, education, and socio-emotional support from their organizations". According to OST,

employees personalize organization by attaching personal meanings to it (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Leader-Member Exchange (LMX) Theory reveals that the relations developed by the leader with all group members will not be similar. The theory focuses on the interaction between the leader and their members, presenting a different perspective. The theory is based on the assumption that the leader makes differentiation among their subordinates in the work group (Gürel, 2016). Leader-Member Exchange Theory has developed in four stages. In the first stage, vertical bilateral relations, which focus on revealing the changing dichotomies in the form of inside and outside the organization, are at the forefront. In the second stage, the quality and results of the leader-member relations are at the forefront. In the third stage, more functional leader-member relations have developed. In the fourth stage, leader-member exchange theory has progressed from vertical dichotomy to organizational levels (Kaplan, 2010).

2.3.2. Antecedents of Perceived Organizational Support

Research shows that there are several ways to show employees that their organization cares about their welfare and values their contributions (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Leadership, justice, organization-employee fit, human resources practices and supportive aspects of working conditions are directly related to POS of employees (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) revealed that the factors that most affect employees' organizational support perceptions are respectively organizational justice and executive support. Distributive justice refers to the fair distribution of outcomes; procedural fairness refers to the fairness of the processes used to determine the outcome distribution. Interactional justice refers to how people are treated during the implementation of organizational decisions (Kurtessis et al., 2017). When employees think that their organizations are unfair in general, they cannot develop a sense of belonging even if they receive high organizational support. However, if employees perceive their organization as fair, even if the support is small, this support helps employees feel valued and encouraged (Chen et al., 2020).

The other one is managers' and colleagues' support (Kurtessis et al., 2017). Perceived managerial support refers to views of employees that their managers value their contributions and care about their welfare (Eisenberger et al., 2002). Managers, which acting as representatives of organizations, have the responsibility to evaluate and manage the

performance of their subordinates. Employees see managers' attitudes towards them as an indicator of the support of their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). The relationship between employees' perceived support and managerial support becomes more interactive for employees know that their managers' evaluations of them are communicated to senior management (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). On the other hand, Kurtessis et al. (2017) revealed that managerial support affects POS more than co-worker support. Employees in managerial and leadership roles are seen as a higher source of organizational support than their colleagues, as they play a key role in the distribution of organizational rewards and resources (Wayne et al., 1997).

Shore and Shore (1995) stated that human resources practices, which show that employees' contributions to the organization are appreciated, have a positive effect on perceived support. Providing appropriate reward opportunities to employees reflects a positive evaluation of employee contributions and contributes to POS. The fact that organizations provide job security to their employees increases the perception of organizational support of employees (Allen et al., 1999). Employees' sense of autonomy is also one of the factors that increase the perception of organizational support (Eisenberger et al., 1999).

Another antecedent of POS is characteristics of employees (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). Individual differences have an important role in affecting individuals' perceptions of organizational support and how they behave (Xiong & King, 2018). Previous research shows that personal characteristics can play a major role in influencing how individuals perceive organizational support and their behavior (Akgündüz et al., 2018; Xiong & King, 2018). It has been revealed that proactive employees respond positively to organizational support because they are skilled in creating and managing positive relationships in organizations (Xiong & King, 2018). Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) revealed that the liability personality trait showed a low but positive relationship with POS. The reason for this will cause an increase in the job performance of responsibility personality trait. It was stated that this could lead to a better response by the organization. Sears and Han (2021) examined the moderating role of responsibility and neuroticism from five factor personality traits. It has been revealed that POS has a stronger effect on both employee commitment and performance when employees have both responsibility and low neuroticism.

2.4. Relationships between Variables and Hypotheses

2.4.1. Relationship between Organizational Culture and Job Performance

It is stated that organizational culture is an important factor in the regulation of business life (Liden, Wayne, Liao, & Meuser 2014). As a part of society, enterprises are directly affected by the socio-cultural situation of the society. The power sources or uncertainty situation perceived from the leaders of the organization can affect employees' attitudes towards organization in a positive or negative way. Employees' perceived power sources, uncertainty or distribution of roles within the organization are shaped within the framework of their cultural values. Since employees living in different countries have different cultural values, they react differently to similar phenomena in organizations. This situation can affect the performance of employees positively or negatively. As a result of the literature review, it has been determined that leadership is an important factor on employee performance (Caz, 2018; Düzgün 2018; Meydan vd. 2018).

Kesen (2014) examined the effects of HRM practices and organizational culture on employee performance of 425 employees. He found that HRM practices and organizational culture positively affect employee performance.

Lin and Lin (2013) stated that positive organizational culture increases organizational performance by increasing coordination and control within the organization. They stated that a positive organizational culture provides the unity of goals between the organization and its members; and it increases employee motivation.

Denison and Mishra (1995) have pointed out that organizational culture can affect service quality, job performance and therefore productivity in the relationship between organizational culture and job performance.

Güngören (2017) examined the effect of organizational culture on job performance in the aviation industry. He has been confirmed that participation's organizational culture dimensions, consistency and adaptability affect job satisfaction positively. However, he found that job performance only affects the participation dimension.

Yeşil, Doğan and Doğan (2016) conducted a study in which they examined the effect of organizational culture on organizational performance on 102 participants in the textile sector of Kahramanmaraş. They found that the consistency dimension of organizational culture has a positive effect on performance. They found that innovation dimension did not

have a significant effect. They revealed that the collaborative and effectiveness dimensions of organizational culture are not sufficient to explain performance.

In line with all these theoretical frameworks and previous studies, the following hypotheses has been established.

H_1: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance.

H_{1a}: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between hierarchy culture and job performance.

H_{1b}: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between market culture and job performance.

H_{1c}: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between clan culture and job performance.

H_{1d}: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between adhocracy culture and job performance.

2.4.2. The Relationship between Organizational Culture and Perceived Organizational Support

When employees perceive organizational support, they adapt to the organizational culture easily and in a short time and they tend to take actions that bring more benefits. Studies examining the relationship between organizational support and organizational culture in the literature have also obtained results in this direction.

Demirer (2018) found that organizational support increases team culture as a result of the data obtained from 395 female employees in tourism enterprises in Istanbul. In addition, marital status, age, having a child, seniority and income level have positive effects on the relationship between POS and glass ceiling perception.

Organizational culture and POS are interested in each other. Both concepts have implications for intrapreneurship behaviors, which is a system that supports the idea of working as an entrepreneur within the organization. Thus, employees do their jobs as open-minded, motivating and problem solvers. Employee's commitment to work increases and leadership skills develop. In addition, organizational culture and POS form an integrity in the employer's effect on the employees (Santos & Gonçalves, 2018).

Ballaro and Washington (2016) investigated the relationship between organizational culture and POS in a sample of physicians and nurses. It has been found that employees who perceive their organizations as clan culture perceive more organizational support. It has been found that employees who perceive their organizations as hierarchy and market culture perceive less organizational support.

Çakar and Yıldız (2009) conducted a study with 256 participants in the textile sector. They investigated the mediating effect of POS on the relationship between organizational culture and tendency cease of employment. As a result of analyses made, it has been seen that the dimensions of organizational culture, such as power distance, individualism-collectivism, internal uncertainty-external uncertainty avoidance, have a significant effect on POS. It has been revealed that tendency cease of employment is only related to the dimension of internal uncertainty avoidance. In this relationship, POS has a mediating effect.

Emerson (2013) put forward a study on accountants. Emerson investigated the relationships between organizational culture, cease of employment and also examined the mediating effect of POS between organizational culture and both cease of employment and job satisfaction. It has been exhibited that POS has a mediating effect on the effects of organizational culture on cease of employment and job satisfaction.

In line with all these theoretical frameworks and previous studies, the following hypothesis has been established.

H_2: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between perceived organizational support and organizational culture.

2.4.3. The Relationship between Perceived Organizational Support and Job Performance

POS is the belief that employees will be rewarded for their efforts in their jobs and that their contributions will be valued by the organization. The emergence of this belief significantly affects the employee's job performance. Job performance is all actions and activities performed by employees for the purposes of the organization (Beğinirbaş & Çalışkan, 2014). These actions and activities differ according to the POS. It can be predicted that job performance will also increase as POS increases. Studies examining the relationship between organizational support and job performance in the literature have also obtained results in this direction.

Turunç and Çelik (2010) carried out a study on 172 employees in small businesses operating in the defence field. They concluded that POS affects job performance positively and significantly. Şentürk and Tekin (2015) conducted research with 333 employees in a shopping center. They reported a positive and significant relationship between POS and job performance.

Işık and Kama (2018) conducted a study on participants consisting of 378 teachers. They concluded that POS has a positive effect on performance. Mioa and Kim (2010) carried out a study with 130 participants. They concluded that POS and job performance were positively related.

Arshadi and Hayavi (2013) conducted a study on POS and job performance on 318 employees in an industrial enterprise. According to the results of the research, POS was found to be positively related to job performance.

Conway and Coyle-Shapiro (2012) conducted a study with repeated measurements over a one-year period on 146 employees in the banking sector in England. It has been reported that POS strongly mediating the effect of psychological contract on employee performance.

Riggle et al. (2009) conducted a meta-analysis study covering a 20-year period on the relationships between POS and organizational outputs. They revealed that POS affects employee performance moderately and positively. In addition, researchers explained that POS explains task performance by 3% and contextual performance by 7%. They have emphasized the importance to identify other antecedents that affect performance.

Chow et al. (2006) found that there is a positive relationship between POS and employee performance in their research with food sector employees. They claimed that employees with a high POS cause an increase in performance and non-role performance behavior as a consequence of feeling positive towards their organization.

In line with all these theoretical frameworks and previous studies, the following hypothesis has been established.

H_3: There is a statistically significant and positive relationship between perceived organizational support and job performance.

2.4.4. The Moderating Role of Perceived Organizational Support in the Relationship between Organizational Culture and Job Performance

Organizational support offers a potential explanation for employees' decision to increase their effort and perform better (Eisenberger et al., 1986). Accordingly, employees have a universal belief that their organization has a positive or negative orientation towards them. This belief reflects the perceived support by employees from their organizations (Eisenberger et al., 1986). POS address to the SET (Blau, 1964) and norm of reciprocity (Gouldner, 1960). It is based on processes of positive change between employee and employer where the needs of both parties are met. While employers are concerned with the commitment and loyalty of employees, employees are concerned with the value their organization places on them and whether their well-being is cared for by their organization (Eisenberger et al., 1986; Eisenberger, et al., 2004). Employees show their business contributions when they think their organization is conscious about their own well-being (Rhoades & Eisenberger 2002).

When employees feel appreciated and supported by their organization, they feel an obligation to strive and to help for the organization to reach its objectives. They tend to perform better, produce useful solutions, and display supportive behaviors (Kurtessis et al., 2017). When they do not feel supported by their organization, they may reduce their efforts and show lower performance levels (Cullen et al., 2014). With this theoretical foundation, the relationship between POS and task performance was investigated with the help of direct, mediator and regulatory variables and positive relationships have been revealed (Kurtessis et al., 2017).

Erdoğan and Ender (2007) examined the moderator role of POS in the relationship between leader-member interaction and job performance. When superiors POS, the positive relationship between LME and job satisfaction was found to be stronger.

Bıyık (2021) examined the moderator role of person-organization fit and POS in the effect of organizational culture innovation. In the study, it has been revealed that individual creativity and innovativeness are very important factors due to job characteristics. The goal of this study is to determine the effect of organizational culture dimensions on creativity and innovation, and whether person-organization fit and POS have regulatory role in this effect. According to the research results, it was determined that supportive culture and innovative culture sub-dimensions' of organizational culture significantly affect individual creativity,

individual innovativeness, person-organization fit and organizational support variables. It was determined that the bureaucratic culture sub-dimension did not affect these variables significantly. According to the mediation analysis findings, it has been stated that person-organization harmony has mediating effect on organizational culture on individual creativity and innovation; it has been stated that POS does not have mediating effect on organizational culture on individual creativity and innovation.

While employees give their performance, according to the SET, it directs them to make more effort at work, to take a high degree of responsibility, to be more active and innovative in their duties and to spend energy. When employees think they perceive support from their organizations, according to the SET, it is thought that they will show more job performance. Also, it is expected that a strong organizational culture will increase the employees' job performance.

In line with all this theoretical framework and previous studies, the final hypothesis of the research is below.

H_4: Perceived organizational support will moderate the relationship between organizational culture and job performance. It is expected to strengthen the positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance.

2.5. Research Model

The goal of the research is to examine moderator role of POS in the relationship between organizational culture and job performance. The research model is visualized as shown below.

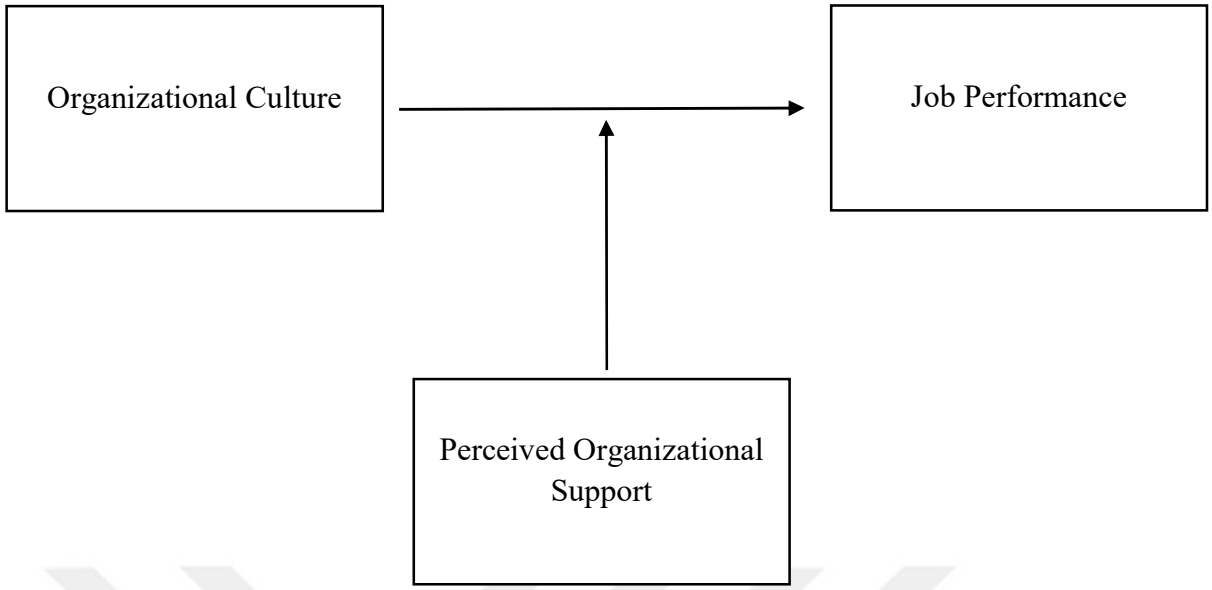


Figure 2. Research Model

SECTION 2: FIELD STUDY

3.1. Method

In this part of the research, the sample of the research, characteristics of participants, data collection tools, and the data analysis techniques are given in detail. In this research, it is aimed to test the effect of POS and organizational culture on job performance. Moreover, the moderator effect of POS on the relationship between organizational culture and job performance is tested.

3.1.1. Sample of the Research

The target audience of the research consists of the employees of Turkish Aviation Sector. Data has been collected online in order to reach target audience. Snowball sampling method has been used. First, the participants who were compatible with the research sample were reached. Afterwards, the participants were asked to convey to the participants with similar characteristics. A total of 360 participants filled the questionnaire. Inconsistent data were removed from the research sample during the preliminary data analysis. Finally, the research hypotheses were tested with the data of 347 participants.

In line with Tabachnick & Fidell (2019) suggestion, the criterion $n > 8m + 50$ (n: number of samples, m: number of variables) has been applied in order to test whether a sufficient number of samples has been reached. Perceived organizational support consists of one dimension, organizational culture consists of four dimensions, and job performance consists of one dimension, and the research consists of a total of three variables. In this situation, it is necessary to reach 74 samples according to the critical value of at least $(8\times3) + 50$. Besides, a minimum of 200 samples must be reached in order to perform AMOS and SEM analyses (Kline, 2011). Also, a sample of at least 10 times the number of variables is needed for the statistical results to be reliable (Kline, 2011).

3.1.2. Characteristics of Participants

The data were obtained from 347 employees working in Turkish aviation industry. Table 1 shows the demographics of participants. As it is seen from the table below, 138 of the participants (39.8%) were male and 209 (60.2%) were female. Marital status was divided into two categories: Married and single. 166 of them (47.8%) were single and 181 (52.1%) were married. As shown in the Table 1, age distribution of age levels was classified into six categories: 49 (14.1%) were ages of between 18 and 25 years old; 140 (40.3%) were ages of

between 26 and 35 years old; 77 (22.2%) were ages of between 36 and 45 years old; 44 (12.7%) were ages of between 46 and 55 years old; 22 (6.3%) were ages of between 56 and 65 years old; and 15 (4.3%) were ages of over 65 years old. As shown in the Table 1, education levels of the participants were divided into four categories: 10 of them (2.9%) were high school; 33 of them (9.5%) were associate degree; 208 of them (59.9%) were bachelor's degree; and 96 of them (27.7%) were master & doctorate. As shown in the Table 1, working years of the participants were divided into three categories: 187 (53.8%) were working year of between 1 and 5; 67 (19.3%) were working year of between 6 and 10; and 93 (26.8%) were working year 11 years or more.

Table 1. Demographic Characteristics of Sample

Demographic	Characteristics	Frequency	Percentage (%)
Gender	Male	138	39.8
	Female	209	60.2
Marital Status	Single	166	47.8
	Married	181	52.1
Education Level	High school	10	2.9
	Associate Degree	33	9.5
	Bachelor's Degree	208	59.9
	Master & Doctorate	96	27.7
Age Groups	18 – 25	49	14.1
	26 – 35	140	40.3
	36 – 45	77	22.2
	46 – 55	44	12.7
	56 –65	22	6.3
	65 and above	15	4.3
Working Year	1. (1 to 5)	187	53.8
	2. (6 to 10)	67	19.3
	3. (11 and above)	93	26.8

3.1.3. Data Collection Tools

In this part of the study, information about the scales used in the data collection process is given. The questionnaire form of the research consists of four parts. In the first

part, there is an information form about some demographic variables. No identifying information was requested from the participants. They were asked to fill in some demographic information such as age, gender, marital status. Perceived Organizational Support Scale, Organizational Culture Scale and Job Performance Scale were used which were validated in Turkish. Voluntary participation form is included at the beginning of the questionnaire. Participants were informed about the study. Participants' permission to participate in the study was obtained. Also, before collecting data from the participants, permission was obtained from Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt University Ethics Commission. Ethics Commission Approval Forum is included in the appendix (Annex).

3.1.3.1. Perceived Organizational Support Scale

The Perceived Organizational Support Scale (SPOS) developed by Eisenberger et al. (1986) was used in order to measure perceived support of employees from their organizations. The original scale consists of 36 items. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated as 0.97.

Turkish adaptation of the scale was made by Giray and Şahin (2012). The original scale has been shortened and reduced to 9 items. It has an equal number of positively and negatively worded items as in the original scale. Items 5 and 7 are reverse coded items. A 7-point Likert scale was used in the original (1: Strongly disagree and 7: Strongly agree). As a result of the reliability analysis, the reliability coefficient of the scale was found as 0.918 in this study.

3.1.3.2. Organizational Culture Scale

The Organizational Culture Scale developed by Cameron and Quinn (1999) was used in order to measure the organizational culture of employees from their organizations. The original scale consists of 24 items. According to the study of Yeung, Brockbank and Ulrich (1991), Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated as 0.79 for clan culture, 0.80 for adhocracy culture, 0.76 for hierarchy culture, and 0.77 for market culture.

The Turkish adaptation of the scale was made by Çalışır (2008). The scale consists of 24 items developed in accordance with the original scale. A 5-point Likert scale was used in the original (1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree). As a result of the reliability analysis, the reliability coefficient of the scale was 0.894 for clan culture, 0.698 for adhocracy culture, 0.895 for hierarchy culture, and 0.930 for market culture.

3.1.3.3. Job Performance Scale

The Job Performance Scale developed by Spreitzer (1995) was used in order to measure the job performance of employees from their organizations. The original scale consists of 12 items. Sigler and Pearson (2000) were measured with 4 statements quoted from Kirkman and Rosen (1999). Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated as 0.70.

The Turkish adaptation of the scale was made by Çöl (2008). The scale consists of 4 items developed in accordance with the original scale. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient was calculated as 0.828. A 5-point Likert scale was used in the original (1: Strongly disagree and 5: Strongly agree). As a result of the reliability analysis, the reliability coefficient of the scale was found as 0.947.

3.2. Analysis and Findings

This section contains the following information: Data set control and preparation for analysis, exploratory factor analysis, and the reliability analysis, t-test results for independent groups, One-Way ANOVA results, correlation analysis, and regression analysis. The data set was analysed with IBM SPSS v22.

3.2.1. Data Set Control and Preparation for Analysis

Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) stated that the data should be carefully examined before starting the analysis of the data. They stated that it should be made ready for analysis. This eight-stage process is as follows: To determine the accuracy of the data set; consideration of factors that can produce skewed correlations and logical correlations; to detect missing data and to correct; to detect outliers; the normality; multi connection; to determine the linear distribution and the heteroscedastic distribution; to examine the uniqueness test.

In this study, Tabachnick and Fidell's (2019) suggestions were taken into consideration before moving on to statistical analyses on organizational culture, job performance and POS variables. In line with the data set obtained by the survey, the data were analysed with IBM SPSS v22 program. Necessary coding has been done for items with reverse code in the SPOS. Participants who were not compatible with the sample were excluded from the data set. Afterwards, the preliminary analysis was started.

In the first stage, the accuracy of the data set was examined. The univariate descriptive statistics of variables and scale items were examined in order to detect whether

there is an outlier in the data set. Value ranges have been checked. It was checked whether there were any values other than the maximum and minimum values. No errors were detected since the data is collected on the internet and transferred directly to the SPSS program. Then, the compatibility of the means and standard deviations of each scale item was checked. No value emerged that violated the rule that the mean should be greater than the standard deviation. This rule is provided for the data set.

Another step in the checklist for data cleaning is examining univariate outliers. The detection of univariate outliers was made by examining the "Z-Value", histogram and box plot for the answers given by the participants. Z Values were checked for each expression. |3.29| (from +3.29 to -3.29) and it has been checked whether there are values outside of the critical values (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

The third step is to check whether there is missing data in the data set. If there is missing data, analyses should be made to determine whether the deficiency is accidental or intentional. In this direction, missing data analysis was performed. No missing data were found.

In the fourth stage, outliers were detected. An outlier is defined as a univariate outlier or multivariate outlier where the abnormal value combination has the case of extreme values to deteriorate (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). Univariate outliers have been detected at the stage of accuracy of the dataset. It has been removed from dataset. Regression analysis was performed to detect multivariate outliers. Mahalanobis distance statistic was calculated. Values were checked according to the degrees of freedom (df) from the chi-square Table 2. It was checked whether it was greater than the critical value which corresponds to the 95 percent confidence rate, that is, the significance level of 0.05. In addition, the probabilities of the Mahalanobis values in the chi-square distribution were investigated. The outlier $p <$ 0.001 for the chi-square value is consistent with the Mahalanobis value (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). In conclusion, there is no value below the critical p value. No value greater than the appropriate critical value was found in the chi-square Table 2. It is concluded that there are no multiple outliers. No intervention was made.

In the fifth stage, the linearity relationship between independent and dependent variable was examined. Variables were analysed. It was checked whether they met the linearity condition or not.

In the sixth stage, normality tests were carried out to determine whether the scale items showed a normal distribution. In order to test the normality, firstly, kurtosis and skewness values of the variables and scale items were examined. When distribution is normal, skewness and kurtosis values are zero. However, if there is positive skewness, the data is stacked on the left and the right tail is long; if there is negative skew, the data is heaped on the right and the left tail is long (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019). According to Tabachnick and Fidell (2019), kurtosis and skewness values of the variables and scale items should be between +1,5 and -1,5 values. They stated that when it is not within the specified critical range, it will be concluded that the data do not show normal distribution. In addition to this method, it was examined whether the scale items had a normal distribution by using the histogram chart. Information on descriptive statistics is given in Table 2.

Table 2. Descriptive Statistics of Research Variables

Variables	N	Mean	SD	Skewness	Kurtosis
Organizational Culture	347	3.98	0.86	0.971	0.874
Hierarchy Culture	347	3.88	0.74	-0.509	-0.285
Market Culture	347	4.14	0.85	-0.939	0.946
Clan Culture	347	3.89	0.79	-1.066	0.902
Adhocracy Culture	347	3.95	0.78	-0.868	-0.849
Job Performance	347	4.11	0.77	-1.087	1.181
POS	347	3.81	0.56	-0.165	0.199

Table 2 shows the statistics of the scales. It shows descriptive statistics for organizational culture, job performance, and POS. The Table 2 includes sample size (N), mean, standard deviation, skewness, and kurtosis values. Market Culture has the highest average (4.14); POS has the lowest average (3.81). Organizational Culture is the highest value regarding standard deviations. This number is observed at 0.86. POS has the lowest standard deviation and its value is 056. The rest of these results are shown in the Table 2.

Tabachnick and Fidell (2019) suggested that the control and cleaning of the data set was tested step by step. After the relevant corrections were made, each of the scales was subjected to confirmatory factor analysis.

3.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

Confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was performed before testing the research hypotheses. It has been examined to factor structures of "Organizational Culture Scale", "Job Performance Scale" and "Perceived Organizational Support Scale".

The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) test and the Bartlett Sphericity test were used to explain suitability of the data for factor analysis. The KMO test shows the adequacy of the data format of the variables for factor analysis. Bartlett test of sphericity shows whether the relationship between variables is sufficient for factor analysis (Doğru, 2016).

3.2.2.1. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for SPOS

The construct validity of the SPOS will be examined by applying exploratory and CFA. Before factor analysis conducted, data should be checked if factor analysis is suitable method. If the KMO (Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin) value is higher than 0.5, it shows that there is homogeneity to this analysis. In other words, the variables are suitable for factor analysis (Saruhan & Özdemirci, 2005).

Table 3. SPOS Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measurement and Bartlett Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.873
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	5198.587
	df	491
	Sig.	0.000

It is accepted that there is a relationship between variables since Bartlett test result of the scale was calculated as $p = 0.000 < 0.05$. As seen in the Table 3 the KMO value was found to be 0.000 as a result of KMO and Bartlett test. Since KMO value 0.000 > 0.50 which it was concluded that the size of the sample was suitable to factor analysis.

Original structure of SPOS is one-dimensional. Items with factor loadings of 0.000 and higher has a significant contribution to the variance (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2007). As a result of factor analysis, there was no expression with a factor load of less than 0.50. The factor load of the SPOS is shown in the Table 4.

Table 4. SPOS Factor Analysis Results

	Component
Help is available from the organization when I have a problem.	0.832
The organization strongly considers my goals and values.	0.820
The organization cares about my opinions.	0.815
The organization really cares about my well-being.	0.807
The organization takes pride in my accomplishments at work.	0.698
The organization cares about my general satisfaction at work.	0.696
The organization is willing to extend itself in order to help me perform my job to the best of my ability.	0.689
The organization shows very little concern for me.	0.498
Even if I did the best job possible, the organization would fail to notice.	0.404

As a result of factor analysis of the SPOS it was determined one-dimensional as in the original form of the scale. The factor weights of the expressions ranged from 0.832 to 0.404. The one-dimensional of the scale explains approximately 36.39% of the total variance.

In factor analysis application, factor loads and scale items are written in the Table 4 by examining the "Component Matrix" Table 4. Since the scale is one-dimensional, no rotation process was applied. No comorbid items were found among items.

Cronbach's Alpha Coefficients were calculated to test validity and reliability of SPOS. Cronbach's Alpha Coefficient is calculated by dividing the sum of variances of questions in the scale by the general variance. It takes a value between 0 and 1. If this value is negative, it means that the reliability of the scale has failed. The reliability level of the scale can be interpreted as follows (Karagöz, 2016):

Table 5. Range of Reliability and its Coefficient of Cronbach's Alpha

Coefficient of Cronbach's Alpha	Reliability Level
$\alpha \geq 0.90$	Excellent
$0.80 \leq \alpha \leq 0.90$	Good
$0.70 \leq \alpha \leq 0.80$	Acceptable
$0.60 \leq \alpha \leq 0.70$	Questionable
$0.50 \leq \alpha \leq 0.60$	Poor
$\alpha \leq 0.50$	Unacceptable

Source: Karagöz, (2016)

According to the result of reliability analysis, coefficient of Cronbach's alpha of SPOS was calculated as 0.873. According to this result, reliability level of scale is good (Karagöz, 2016).

Table 6. Total Variance Explained for POS

Total Variance Explained									
Factor	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	11.574	36.392	36.392	11.111	34.946	34.946	4.065	12.925	12.925
2	1.983	6.419	42.915	1.553	5.077	40.128	3.459	11.031	24.061
3	1.718	5.593	48.613	1.181	3.915	44.149	2.883	9.232	33.398
4	1.502	4.918	53.636	1.105	3.677	47.930	2.483	7.982	41.485
5	1.459	4.781	58.522	0.985	3.301	51.337	1.954	6.329	47.919
6	1.086	3.616	62.244	0.685	2.365	53.807	1.779	5.783	53.807

The Table 6 includes the total variance, % of variance, initial eigenvalues and cumulative % of the factors of the SPOS. According to this Table 6, the data set has six (6) factors with eigenvalues (values equal to 1 and above). It is seen that contribution of 6 factors to variance is 53.807%. The contribution of each factor to total variance is important when deciding how much the number of factors will be. While the first factor accounts for 36.392% of variance, the second factor accounts for 6.419% of the variance, the third factor accounts for 5.593% of variance, the fourth factor accounts for 4.918% of variance, the fifth factor accounts for 4.781% of variance, and the sixth factor accounts for 3.616% of variance.

It is an important criterion of factor analysis fact that the total variance of the explained variance exceeds 50%. If factor structure explains more than half of total variable variance, it can be said to be representative (Yaşlıoğlu, 2017). Therefore, 53.636% of the total variance explained is an acceptable value. When the eigenvalues of the factors are examined, the eigenvalue of the first factor is 11,574 and the eigenvalue of the second factor is 1.983. Other factors are shown in the Table 6. If the absolute value of the load is high, it can be said that it contributes to the variable.

3.2.2.2. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Organizational Culture Scale

Table 7. Organizational Culture Scale Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measurement and Bartlett Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.941
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	4686.915
	df	131
	Sig.	0.000

As seen in Table 7, the KMO value to Organizational Culture is 0.000. According to the Bartlett Test of Sphericity, variables differ significantly from each other ($p < 0.05$). The data is perfectly covered. Factor analysis appears to be applicable. The expressions obtained as a result of factor analysis show distribution as in the original. The total explained variance of organizational culture was found to be 64.68%.

Table 8. Organizational Culture Scale Factor Analysis Results

	Component
Market Culture	0.864
20. For my institution, success is having a large market share. Being the best in the competition is the main goal.	0.861
16. My institution is competitive and success oriented. It is important to win in the competition.	0.854
4. My institution is competitive. Its employees also work with a focus on high-level production and success.	0.842
8. My institution's senior manager is perceived as a production-oriented, competitive, or compelling person.	0.795

12. It is the importance given to the achievement of production and goals that hold my institution together. Aggressive targets are set to increase market share.	0.728
24. My institution's management style is focused on challenging competition and meeting high expectations.	0.706
Adhocracy Culture	
22. My institution's management style is focused on initiative, innovation, freedom and uniqueness.	0.811
10. Innovation and development are what hold my institution together. The goal is to be the first in the job.	0.839
18. My institution attributes success to having unique and new products. My institution is product leader and innovative oriented.	0.824
6. The senior manager of my institution is perceived as an entrepreneur, innovator or a risk taker.	0.783
14. Being prepared for challenges and dynamism are important in my institution. New things are learned by trial and error.	0.775
2. My institution is dynamic and entrepreneurial. Employees take risks.	0.704
Clan Culture	
9. Loyalty and commitment are what hold my institution together. Harmony and teamwork are the most important features of the institution.	0.745
17. According to my institution, success is human resource development, teamwork and employee-oriented.	0.739
21. Management style of my institution is focused on teamwork, harmony and participation.	0.730
1. My institution is like a big family. Employees share a lot.	0.691
13. The institution has a participatory and comfortable working environment, trust, openness and sincerity.	0. 688
5. My institution's senior executive is perceived as an advisor or parent.	0.668
Hierarchy Culture	
7. The senior manager of my institution is perceived as a coordinator, organizer or event-oriented person.	0.647

23. My institution's management style is focused on employee safety, tradition, rules, and behavior in accordance with procedures, predictability and stability in relationships.	0.621
15. Continuity and stability are important in my institution. The expectations in the procedures are clear and compelling.	0.592
19. My institution attributes success to efficiency. Most reliable delivery, perfect timing and low cost are important to my institution.	0.589
3. My institution is a formal workplace where rules and procedures prevail. Rules and procedures determine the behavior of employees.	0.554
11. It is the procedures, rules and policies that hold my institution together. It is aimed to continue the activities of my institution flawlessly.	0.517

According to the result of factor analysis of the Organizational Culture Scale, four factors were determined. The factor weights of the expressions ranged from 0.864 to 0.517. Total explained variance of these factors was found to be 64.68%.

In the factor analysis application, factor loads and scale items are written in the Table 8 by examining the "Component Matrix" Table 8. Since the scale has 4 dimensions, the rotation process has been applied. No comorbid items were found among the items.

According to the result of reliability analysis, coefficient of Cronbach's alpha of organizational culture scale was calculated as 0.941. According to this result, reliability level of scale is excellent (Karagöz, 2016).

Table 9. Total Variance Explained for Organizational Culture

Total Variance Explained									
Factor	**Initial Eigenvalues**			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**			**Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings**		
	Total	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	10.910	64.688	64.688	10.354	61.416	61.416	5.693	34.001	34.001
2	1.159	7.328	72.120	0.716	4.727	66.248	3.864	23.244	57.349
3	0.652	4.347	76.572	0.743	4.881	71.235	2.256	13.780	71.235

The Table 9 includes the total variance, % of variance, initial eigenvalues and cumulative % of the factors of the Organizational Culture. According to this Table 9, the

data set has three (3) factors with eigenvalues (values equal to 1 and above). It is seen that contribution of 3 factors to variance is 71.235 %. Contribution of each factor to total variance is important when deciding how much the number of factors will be. While the first factor accounts for 64.688% of variance, the second factor accounts for 7.328% of the variance, and the third factor accounts for 4.347% of variance.

It is a significant criterion of factor analysis the fact that total variance of explained variance exceeds 50%. 71.235% of the total variance explained is an acceptable value. When the eigenvalues of the factors are examined, the eigenvalue of the first factor is 10.910 and the eigenvalue of the second factor is 1.159. Other factors are shown in the Table 9. If the absolute value of the load is high, it can be said that it contributes to the variable.

3.2.2.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis for Job Performance Scale

Table 10. Job Performance Scale Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measurement and Bartlett Test

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy		0.935
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	3498.823
	df	86
	Sig.	0.000

As seen in Table 10, the KMO value for Job Performance is 0.000. According to Bartlett Test of Sphericity, variables differ significantly from each other ($p < 0.05$). The data is perfectly covered. Factor analysis appears to be applicable. The expressions obtained as a result of factor analysis show distribution as in the original. The total explained variance of organizational culture was found to be 63.92%.

Table 11. Job Performance Scale Factor Analysis Results

	Component
3. The quality of service I offer is above the standards.	0.868
1. I complete my tasks on time.	0.841
4. When a problem arises, I can produce a solution as quickly as possible.	0.784
2. I fulfil my work-related goals exceedingly.	0.742

According to result of factor analysis, one-dimensional was determined. Factor weights of expressions ranged from 0.868 to 0.742. Total explained variance of these factors was found to be 63.92%.

In factor analysis application, factor loads and scale items are written in Table 11 by examining “Component Matrix" Table 11. Since scale is one-dimensional, no rotation process was applied. No comorbid items were found among items.

According to result of reliability analysis, coefficient of Cronbach’s alpha of job performance scale was calculated as 0.935. According to this result, reliability level of scale is excellent (Karagöz, 2016).

Table 12. Total Variance Explained for Job Performance

Component	**Initial Eigenvalues**			**Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings**		
	Total	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**	**Total**	**% of Variance**	**Cumulative %**
1	8.859	63.920	63.920	8.477	61.195	61.195

The Table 12 includes total variance, % of variance, initial eigenvalues and cumulative % of factors of Job Performance. According to this Table 12, data set has one (1) factor with eigenvalues (values equal to 1 and above). It is seen that contribution of one factor to variance is 63.920%. Contribution of each factor to total variance is important when deciding how much the number of factors will be. After unsuitable items were deleted, total variance for a single factor was found to be 63,920%.

It is a significant criterion of factor analysis the fact that total variance of explained variance exceeds 50%. 61.195 % of total variance explained is an acceptable value. When eigenvalues of factors are examined, it is found that the one factor is 8.859. If the absolute value of load is high, it can be said that it contributes to variable.

3.2.3. Reliability Analysis

CFA is decision whether to exclude items with a standardized regression coefficient (β) less than 0.40 from scale. After determining factor structure of the scales with CFA, reliability analysis was conducted to investigate consistent measurement of variables (Ford

et al., 1986). Reliability analysis was examined using (internal consistency method) method. It has been examined to Cronbach's Alpha value of scale, item-total correlation values, and finally, internal consistency coefficient obtained by removing an item. Recommended critical value of 0.70 for internal consistency coefficient was adopted by Nunnally (1978). Reliability analysis was performed for each of the scales used in the study.

It shows that internal consistency of scale is high the result of reliability analysis of organizational culture scale, which consists of four dimensions and twenty-four items (α = 0.960). It shows that internal consistency of scale is high the result of reliability analysis of the job performance scale, which consists of one dimension and four items (α = 0.947). It shows that internal consistency of scale is high the result of reliability analysis of SPOS, which consists of one dimension and nine items (α = 0.918). Factor loadings of all items of organizational culture, job performance and SPOS scales are greater than 0.40. For this reason, no item was removed (Ford et al., 1986).

Table 13. Reliability Analysis Results for Research Variables and Sub-Dimensions

Variables	Number of Items	Alpha Value (α)
Organizational Culture	24	0.960
Hierarchy Culture	6	0.698
Market Culture	6	0.930
Clan Culture	6	0.894
Adhocracy Culture	6	0.895
Job Performance	4	0.947
POS	9	0.918

3.2.4. T-Test Results for Independent Groups

3.2.4.1. Research Variables and T-Test Results for Gender

Table 14. Research Variables and T-Test Results for Gender

Research Variables and Sub-Dimensions	Gender	n	Mean	S	df	t	*p*
Organizational Culture	Male	138	3.8023	0.89263	194.304	-3.088	0.002*
	Female	209	4.1429	0.83667			
Hierarchy Culture	Male	138	3.7595	0.79965	179.904	0.422	0.494
	Female	209	3.7045	0.81722			
Market Culture	Male	138	4.0735	1.00627	202.769	-2.096	0.024*
	Female	209	4.2484	0.89866			
Clan Culture	Male	138	3.6813	0.90017	187.005	-3.517	0.000*
	Female	209	4.0945	0.88084			
Adhocracy Culture	Male	138	3.7724	0.92262	198.088	-2.843	0.004*
	Female	209	4.1034	0.84614			
Job Performance	Male	138	4.0041	0.87026	257.054	-4.321	0.000*
	Female	209	4.2931	0.54410			
POS	Male	138	3.7129	0.58747	182.538	-1.065	0.238
	Female	209	3.8021	0.59067			

Table 14 shows the results of t-test analysis results between research variables (organizational culture, job performance, and POS) and gender. The mean, standard deviation, degrees of freedom, t and p values of research variables are shown according to gender. According to analysis results, it has been observed that gender has a significant difference on organizational culture and sub-dimensions (adhocracy, clan and market culture) and job performance. In addition, it is seen that gender does not have a significant difference on POS. When gender is examined, women have higher levels of organizational culture and job performance and compared to men. As can be seen in Table 14, women's averages are higher than men's.

3.2.5. One-Way ANOVA Results

3.2.5.1. One-Way ANOVA Results between Working Year and Research Variables

Table 15. One-Way ANOVA Results between Working Year and Research Variables

Research Variables and Sub-Dimensions	Working Year	n	Mean	S	F	*p*	Difference
Organizational Culture	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.7080	0.93265	11.582	0.000*	1 – 2 and 1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.0460	0.80337			
	3. (11 +)	93	4.3985	0.57883			
Hierarchy Culture	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.8873	0.71339	5.045	0.007*	1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.0084	0.60464			
	3. (11 +)	93	3.5374	0.95984			
Market Culture	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.8556	1.05589	9.605	0.000*	1 – 2 and 1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.2127	0.88482			
	3. (11 +)	93	4.5650	0.54231			
Clan Culture	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.6129	0.97164	12.578	0.000*	1 – 2 and 1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.0367	0.76646			
	3. (11 +)	93	4.3018	0.63513			
Adhocracy Culture	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.6800	0.93830	10.151	0.000*	1 – 2 and 1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.0064	0.87316			
	3. (11 +)	93	4.3564	0.63625			
Job Performance	1. (1 to 5)	187	4.0296	0.85582	3.281	0.030*	1 – 3 and 2 – 3
	2. (6 to 10)	67	4.1434	0.63485			
	3. (11 +)	93	4.2295	0.70396			
POS	1. (1 to 5)	187	3.7259	0.57904	1.856	0.138	
	2. (6 to 10)	67	3.8812	0.55719			
	3. (11 +)	93	3.6667	0.63375			

According to analysis results, it is seen that working year does not have a significant difference on POS. It has been observed that working year has a significant difference on organizational culture and sub-dimensions and job performance. It is seen that those who have 11 and more years of working year in hierarchy culture are significantly lower than

those who have a lower level of working year. When effects of working year on organizational culture are examined, it is seen that all categories differ from each other. It has been determined that those with 11 years or more of work year show a higher level of job engagement compared to those who work between 1-5 years and 5-10 years. In addition, it was also observed that those with 5-10 years of working year had a higher level of organizational culture than those with 1-5 years of working year. Finally, it was determined that those with 1-5 years of working year had lower levels of job performance compared to those with 5-10 and 11 or more years of work experience.

3.2.6. Correlation Analysis

In this part of the study, correlation analysis was performed in order to reveal the relationships among research variables. Pearson correlation coefficient was examined. If the relationship between variables is between 0 ve ± 0.1, it is a weak relationship; if the relationship between variables is between ± 0.1 ve ± 0.3, it is a moderate relationship; if the relationship between variables is between ± 0.5 ve ± 1.0, it is a strong relationship (Cohen, 1988). In this study, while examining correlation coefficients between variables, criteria of Cohen (1988) were taken into account.

According to results obtained from Pearson correlation analysis, Multiple Regression Analysis and regulatory regression analysis will be performed to test the hypotheses of study. When the relationships between independent variable, dependent variable and regulatory variable are examined, it is seen that there is a positive relationship between independent variable organizational culture ($r = 0.641$; $p < 0.01$) and dependent variable job performance. There is also a positive and significant relationship between dependent variable job performance ($r = 0.576$; $p < 0.01$) and independent variable organizational culture ($r = 0.534$; $p < 0.01$) and moderator variable POS.

Table 16. Correlation Coefficients among Research Variables (N = 347)

Variables	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1 Organizational Culture	1						
2 Adhocracy Culture	0.835**	1					
3 Hierarchy Culture	0.947**	0.729**	1				
4 Clan Culture	0.887**	0.672**	0.781**	1			
5 Market Culture	0.870**	0.622**	0.758**	0.734**	1		
6 POS	0.534**	0.416**	0.489**	0.479**	0.516**	1	
7 Job Performance	0.641**	0.551**	0.565**	0.579**	0.605**	0.576**	1

** $p < 0.01$; * $p < 0.05$.

3.2.8. Regression Analysis

It has been tested the effects on job performance on the basis of dimensions of organizational culture. Since it is important for integrity of working, multiple regression analysis was used to test hypotheses about the effects of organizational culture dimensions on job performance. Regression analysis findings are presented in Table 20. When the results of multiple regression analysis are examined, the VIF value in model 1 is between 2.271 and 3.686. These values are much lower than the upper limit of 10 (Gujurati, 2009). The lowest tolerance value is 0.261. It is higher than the lowest limit value of 0.10. In addition, the highest condition index value (CI) is 21.346. It is lower than the upper limit of 30. There is no multicollinearity problem in model 1, considering these findings. On the other hand, it is seen that the Durbin-Watson Coefficient in model 1 is 1.639. Since this value is less than 2, it is seen that there is no autocorrelation problem (Fomby & Guilkey, 1978).

Table 17. Multiple Regression Analysis Findings Regarding the Effects of Organizational Culture and Sub-Dimensions on Job Performance

Model 1	**Unstandardized Coefficients**		**Standardized Coefficients**			**Internal Relationship Statistics**		
Independent Variables	**B**	**S.H**	**β**	**t**	***p***	**Tolerance**	**VIF**	**CI**
Constant	0.934	0.154		5.754	0.000			1.000
Adhocracy Culture	0.206	0.052	0.206	3.321	0.001	0.428	2.271	10.989
Hierarchy Culture	0.026	0.074	0.025	0.326	0.727	0.261	3.686	14.269
Clan Culture	0.167	0.060	0.173	2.522	0.011	0.319	3.032	16.982
Market Culture	0.278	0.051	0.311	4.706	0.000	0.362	2.680	21.346
R^2	0.425							
Adj. R^2	0.423							
SE	0.64999							
F	62.550							
Sig.	0.000							
Durbin-Watson	1.639							

Dependent Variable: Job Performance

**$p < 0.01$. *$p < 0.05$.

Organizational culture and dimensions (independent variable) and job performance (dependent variable) are statistically significant in Model 1 ($R^2 = 0.425$; $F = 62.550$; $p < 0.01$). In the model, four dimensions of organizational culture explain 42.5% of job performance variance. According to the results of multiple regression analysis, it has been seen that adhocracy culture ($\beta = 0.206$; $p < 0.01$), clan culture ($\beta = 0.173$; $p < 0.05$) and market culture ($\beta = 0.311$; $p < 0.01$), which are organizational culture dimensions, have a positive and significant effect on business performance.

Therefore, according to these findings, the H_{1b}, H_{1c} and H_{1d} hypotheses were accepted. On the other hand, hierarchical culture (dimensions of organizational culture) affects job performance in a positive but non-significant way ($\beta = 0.025$; $p > 0.05$). Therefore, the H_{1a} hypothesis was not supported.

When the data is interpreted in terms of aviation industry employees in Model 1, 1 unit increase in dimensions of organizational culture leads to an increase of 0.934 units in job performance. It can be said that organizational culture of employees contributes to job performance.

After all these considerations, regression equation for Model 1 regarding the dimensions of organizational culture on job performance is as follows:

$Y = \beta_0$ (Constant) + β_1 (adhocracy culture) + β_2 (clan culture) + β_3 (market culture)

Y = 0.934 (Constant) + 0.206 (adhocracy culture) + 0.173 (clan culture) + 0.311 (market culture)

When the correlation coefficients in Table 21 are examined, it is observed that there are significant relationships between organizational culture (independent variable), POS (regulatory variable) and job performance (dependent variable). Hierarchical regression analysis findings are presented in Table 21.

Table 18. The Effect of POS as a Moderating Variable

Model 2	**Dependent Variable**			
Variables	**Y (Job Performance)**			
	β	**S.H**	**t**	***p***
Constant	3.2176**	0.0273	86.4807	0.000
Perceived Organizational Support (POS)	0.4769**	0.0539	7.3884	0.000
Organizational Culture (OC)	0.5244**	0.0463	9.2128	0.000
POS x OC	0.5642**	0.0598	1.0280	0.015
R^2	0.478			
ΔR^2	0.225			
F	111.7555			
ΔF	1.8989			
P	p<0.01			
95% Confidence Intervals Level	**Indirect Effect of Low POS Level (β)**			
	0.4748**			
	LLCI		**ULCI**	
	0.3609		0.5878	
	Indirect Effect of High POS Level (β)			
	0.5719**			
	LLCI		**ULCI**	
	0.4234		0.7205	

*$p < 0.05$. **$p < 0.01$

According to the findings, Model 2, in which the effect of POS (moderator variable) on the relationship between organizational culture (independent variable) and job performance (dependent variable) is tested, is statistically significant (R^2 = 0.478; F = 111.7555; p < 0,01). This model of organizational culture and POS explains 47.8% of variance in job performance. This means that determinant variables have a high effect on dependent variable.

When findings on the relationships between variables in Model 2 are examined, it has been determined that organizational culture has a positive and significant effect on job performance (β = 0.524; p < 0.01). According to these findings, the H_1

hypothesis is supported. Similarly, it has been observed that POS has a positive and significant effect on job performance ($\beta = 0.476$ $p < 0.01$). Therefore, the H_2 hypothesis was also accepted. On the other hand, it has been determined that OC*POS interaction term has a positive and significant effect on job performance ($\beta = 0.564$; $p < 0.01$). When POS is low, 1 unit increase in organizational culture leads to an increase of 0.1382 units in job performance. When POS is high, 1 unit increase in organizational culture causes an increase of 0.1358 units in job performance. Organizational culture has a positive and significant effect on job performance both in cases when POS is low and when POS is high. As seen in Table 21, this effect is much higher at the level of POS. In addition, in the model, OC*POS interaction term additionally explains 22.5% of variance in job performance. Finally, BC Boot method was used to demonstrate that POS has a moderating effect. When it is using this method, the sample size of 5000 is based on the 95% confidence level suggested by Preacher & Hayes (2008). According to the 95% confidence interval Bootstrap estimates, there is a significant decrease in the effect of organizational culture on job performance when POS is low ($\beta = 0.4748$; %95 CI [0.3609 and 0.5878]). Here, POS has a moderating effect, since the lower and upper limits of confidence intervals differ significantly from zero. Therefore, the H_4 hypothesis was accepted when POS was low. Similarly, there is a significant increase in the effect of organizational culture on job performance in cases where POS is high ($\beta = 0.5719$; CI [0.4234 and 0.7205]). The H_3 hypothesis was also supported at this level since the lower and upper limit values at this level do not include 0 (Zero). In Table 21, POS strengthens the positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. This effect is significant at both low POS and high POS levels.

DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSIONS

In this part of the research, the findings from the analyses are discussed and evaluated. Along with globalization, organizations are forced to adapt to changing conditions in the competitive environment. At this point, organizations have to get more efficiency from human resources. POS and organizational culture, which are frequently mentioned in the literature, gain importance in this respect.

When considered in the theoretical framework, it can be thought that there should be a significant and positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. As a result of the research, it was concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between organizational culture and job performance. Wu (2001) found a positive relationship between the two concepts in his research examining the relationship between organizational culture and job satisfaction. He states that organizational culture may increase job performance. Smart and St. John (1996) revealed that there is a positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. In this study, the effect of POS on the interrelated concepts of organizational culture and job performance has been examined. Considered in the theoretical framework, it can be thought that there should be a significant and positive relationship between POS and organizational culture. As a result of the research, it was concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between POS and organizational culture. Washington (2013) determined a positive and significant relationship between organizational culture and POS. The results obtained from the study showed that there are significant relationships between clan, market and adhocracy cultures and POS. Considered in the theoretical framework, it can be thought that there should be a significant and positive relationship between POS and job performance. As a result of the research, it was concluded that there is a positive and significant relationship between POS and job performance. Various studies have conducted studies on how the motivations of employees for their work results are affected by the behaviors they see by their organizations. These studies show that when employees perceive the level of support the organization gives them; they increase their job performance to benefit the organization (Arshadi & Hayavi. 2013). Hansen (2009) stated that POS has a weak to moderate positive effect between both task and contextual performance.

In the study, t-tests performed provided variation analysing differences between groups. For example, differences were found in t-test results between organizational culture

and its sub-dimensions and gender. Market culture shows an average of 4.0735 for male employees and 4.2484 for female employees. Clan culture shows an average of 3.6816 for male employees and 4.0945 for female employees. Adhocracy culture shows an average of 3.7724 for male employees and 4.1034 for female employees. Differences were found in the t-test results between job performance and gender. Job performance shows an average of 4.0041 for male employees and 4.2931 for female employees. Anabal (2020) found a relationship between gender and market culture. Erdemoğlu (2021) found a relationship between gender and clan culture. It was determined that female teachers' clan culture levels were significantly higher than male teachers. Ertaş (2019) found a relationship between gender and adhocracy culture. The difference in the level of clan culture dimension according to the gender groups of the participants was found to be statistically significant at the 95% confidence level. It was determined that women's clan levels were lower than men's.

One-Way ANOVA tests were performed and the results were interpreted. According to the findings obtained from One-Way ANOVA between working year and organizational culture and its sub-dimensions, there is a difference in terms of organizational culture and sub-dimensions between working years. In terms of organizational culture, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 6 to 10 years of working periods, between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. In terms of hierarchy culture, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. In terms of market culture, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 6 to 10 years of working periods, between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. In terms of clan culture, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 6 to 10 years of working periods, between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. In terms of adhocracy culture, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 6 to 10 years of working periods, between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. In terms of job performance, there were significant differences between 1 to 5 and 11 and above years of working periods, between 6 to 10 and 11 and above years of working periods. However, no difference was observed in terms of POS between different working years. Nevertheless, Taner (2020) did not observe any difference in organizational culture according to the working year in this study. Other studies show similar findings to this thesis study. In the

study of Durmuş (2020), a difference was observed in adhocracy culture to the working year. Likewise, in the study of Parmaksız (2018), a difference was observed bureaucratic culture to the working year. Contrary to this thesis, Dilsiz (2018) and Çakır (2017) observed differences in organizational support to the working year.

Hierarchical regression analysis provided different results in the study. Independent variable is organizational culture, dependent variable is job performance, and moderating variable is POS. Different values such as β values, standard error values, LLCI and ULCI values, and significance values at 95% confidence intervals were calculated. In the analysis, the weight of variance in organizational culture and sub-dimensions was controlled by using R^2. In general, adhocracy culture (β=0.206, *p*=0.001), clan culture (β=0.173, *p*=0.011), market culture (β=0.311, *p*=0.000) predicted significantly. Organizational culture and its sub-dimensions (adhocracy culture, clan culture and market culture) have a positive effect on job performance.

In this thesis, POS was accepted as the moderator variable in applied model. Then, the moderator role of POS between organizational culture and job performance components was realized. The results of this moderating are summarized in a separate table. For example, POS seems to moderate the relationship between organizational culture and job performance. This was a positive significant relationship. POS has a moderator between the two parameters. Three variables (independent, dependent, regulatory) used to analyse moderator effects are shown in this study. POS strengthens the positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. This effect is important at both low POS and high POS levels.

The moderator effect of POS on the relationship between organizational culture and job performance was also observed in the analysis. Although there are no studies in the literature that examine organizational culture, job performance and POS relations with these concepts, the results of the research are in accordance with the studies carried out with similar concepts. For example, similar results were obtained in the studies relationship between POS, work-life balance and job performance (Plakolli, 2021); mediating role of POS in the relationship between organizational culture and service innovation performance (Efe, 2022); moderator role of self-efficacy factor in the relationship between POS and job performance (Erkoç, 2015); the relationship between POS and job performance (Uçar, 2021).

Throughout this study, organizational culture, job performance and POS relationships were examined. Also, it was tested whether organizational culture, job performance and POS different to gender and age. For this purpose, Aviation Industry employees were chosen as the sample group of the research. According to the results obtained, when looking at gender, women's organizational culture and job performance levels are higher than men. Women's averages are higher than men's. According to the results of the ANOVA analysis, it was seen that age groups did not have a significant difference on organizational culture, job performance and POS. For this reason, it can be thought that age is not an important factor in analysing employees' organizational culture, job performance and POS. Hierarchical regression analysis results show that there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between organizational culture and job performance. It also shows that there is a statistically significant and positive relationship between POS and organizational culture and job performance. Finally, POS has a moderator effect between organizational culture and job performance.

This study, which investigates the moderating role of POS in the relationship between organizational culture and job performance, has some limitations similar to other studies. While evaluating the findings obtained as a result of the research, these constraints should be interpreted considering. First of all, the sample of the research consists of the employees of the Aviation Industry. Basically, data were collected by snowball sampling method as considering this feature. However, data were generally obtained from a single city. Therefore, the generalizability of the study is limited and cannot be generalized to the whole society. Conducting future studies in wider geographical areas and focusing on different occupational groups will increase generalizability and will enable comparative results to be obtained.

Another limitation of the research is that the relationship between the variables cannot be evaluated in the cause-effect relationship. Due to the design of the research, the relationships between variables were examined using hierarchical regression analysis. The relations of future studies can be examined in the experimental environment in order to mention a causality between the variables (Tabachnick & Fidell, 2019).

It should not be ignored that it may cause common method variance problem due to the fact that the data for all the variables of the research were collected in a single time period (Podsakoff et al., 2003). It can be suggested that future studies can design a longitudinal

study by designing the data collection process in different time periods. The data of the study were collected by the questionnaire method based on the self-evaluation of the employees. Qualitative and quantitative methods can be used together in order to increase its reliability (Vijver & Leung, 1997).

It is recommended to take the following steps in order to establish perceived organizational support, orgnatizational culture, and job performance:

- Organizations should increase their activities towards perceived organizational support in order to increase job performance levels of their employees.
- Job performance is very important for organizations. Orgnaiztional culture should be disseminated in order to increase job performance.
- Organizational culture in organizations need to be institutionalized. In this context, units that will manage the related processes may be established.
- Organizational culture is intertwined with the concepts of perceived organizational support and job performance. Therefore, organizational culture is extremely important in shaping perceived organizational support and job performance. Organization culture of decision-makers should be increased.

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APPENDIX

ANNEX. SURVEY FORM

Bu anket formu T.C. Ankara Yıldırım Beyazıt Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Üniversitesi Yönetim ve Organizasyon Anabilim Dalı'nda Hatice YILMAZER'in sürdürmekte olduğu yüksek lisans programı tez çalışmasının istatistiksel uygulama bölümüne aittir. Bu anket, iş yaşamınıza ilişkin algılanan örgütsel destek ve örgüt kültürünün iş performansınız üzerindeki etkilerini ölçmek üzere hazırlanmıştır. Sizden alınacak tüm veriler gizli tutulacak ve sadece akademik çalışma için kullanılacaktır. Sağlıklı bilimsel veriler elde edebilmek için her soruyu dikkatlice okuyup size en uygun cevapları vermenizi rica ederiz.

Katkılarınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Tez Danışmanı	Tezi Hazırlayan
Dr. Hande ÖZGEN	Hatice YILMAZER

Bölüm 1: Sosyodemografik Form

1. Cinsiyet ( ) Erkek ( ) Kadın
2. Yaş ( ) 18 – 25 ( ) 26 – 35 ( ) 36 – 45 ( ) 46 – 55 ( ) 56 – 65 ( ) 65 yaş üstü
3. Medeni Durum ( ) Evli ( ) Bekâr
4. Eğitim Seviyesi ( ) Lise veya altı ( ) Ön lisans derecesi ( ) Lisans ( ) Lisansüstü ( ) Doktora
6.Şirkette Çalışma Süresi……..

Bölüm 2: Algılanan Örgütsel Destek Anketi

(0) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum

(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum

(2) Biraz katılmıyorum

(3) Kararsızım

(4) Biraz katılıyorum

(5) Kısmen katılıyorum

(6) Katılıyorum

Lütfen, aşağıdaki ifadeleri çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu düşünerek dikkatlice okuyarak her bir ifadeye ne derece KATILDIĞINIZI 1 ile 5 arasında size en uygun rakamı işaretleyiniz.

	(0) Kesinlikle katılmıyorum	(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum	(2) Biraz katılmıyorum	(3) Kararsızım	(4) Biraz katılıyorum	(5) Kısmen katılıyorum	(6) Kesinlikle katılıyorum
1. Kurumum yaptığım katkıları değerli bulur.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
2. Kurumum yerime daha düşük maaş ile çalışacak başka birini bulsaydı onu işe alabilir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
3. Kurumum daha fazla çaba göstermemi takdir etmez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
4. Kurumum hedeflerimi ve değerlerimi ciddi şekilde destekler.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
5. Kurumum hastalığımdan kaynaklanan uzun süreli ise gidemememi anlayışla karşılar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

6. Kurumum benimle ilgili herhangi bir şikâyeti dikkate almaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
7. Kurumum beni etkileyen bir karar verdiğinde katkılarımı göz umursamaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
8. Yardıma ihtiyacım olduğunda kurumum bana yardım eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
9. Kurumum refahımı ve mutluluğumu önemser.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
10. Kurumum işimi en iyi şekilde yerine getirmeme yardımcı olmak için yeteneklerimi geliştirmeme destek olur.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
11. Kurumum benim kişisel bir sorun yüzünden izin aldığımda yokluğumu anlayışla karşılamaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
12. Kurumum işlerimi daha etkin bir şekilde yapanı bulursa beni işten çıkarır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
13. Kurumum elimde olmadan yaptığım hatayı affeder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
14. Kurumum çalışma performansımda bir düşüş görürse yerime başkasını tercih edebilir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
15. Kurumum kariyerimin geri kalanında bu iş yerinde beni istihdam ederek önemli bir fayda sağlamayacağını düşünmektedir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
16. Kurumum kariyer basamaklarını çıkmam için bana çok az olanak sağlamaz.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
17. İşimde mümkün olduğunca en iyi işi yapsam bile kurumum beni fark edemezdi.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
18. Kurumum çalışma şartlarımda değişiklik yapılması için mantıklı bir talebim olursa bunu yerine getirecektir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
19. Eğer işten çıkarılırsam kurumum beni geri işe almak yerine yeni bir elemanı işe almayı tercih eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
20. Kurumum özel bir iyiliğe ihtiyacım olduğunda bunu yerine getirme konusunda isteklidir	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
21. Kurumum yaptığım işteki genel olarak memnuniyetime önemser.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
22. Kurumum eğer fırsat verirse bunu kendi menfaati için kullanır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
23. Kurumum benim için çok fazla endişe göstermez.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

24. Eğer işten ayrılmak düşünseydim kurumum beni kalmaya ikna etmeye çalışırdı.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
25. Kurumum benim görüşlerimi önemser.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
26. Kurumum beni işe almanın bir hata olduğunu düşünmektedir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
27. Kurumum benim işteki başarılarımdan dolayı gurur duyar.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
28. Kurumum kar etmeyi benden fazla önemser.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
29. Kurumum işimi zamanında tamamlayamazsam bunu anlayışla karşılardı.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
30. Eğer kurumum daha fazla kar ederse maaşıma zam yaparak beni ödüllendirir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
31. Kurumum yaptığım işi başkalarının da en az benim yaptığım kadar iyi yapabileceğini düşünmektedir.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
32. Kurumum bana emeğimin karşılığı olan ücreti öder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
33. Kurumum bana niteliklerim ile ilgili en uygun işi bana vermeyi arzu eder.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
34. Eğer yaptığım işe artık ihtiyaç duyulmasaydı kurumum beni başka bir pozisyona kaydırmak yerine işten çıkarmayı tercih ederdi.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
35. Kurumum işimi olabildiğince ilgi çekici ve zevkli hale getirmeye çalışır.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6
36. Yöneticilerim benim bu organizasyonun bir parçası olduğum için benimle gurur duyuyordur.	0	1	2	3	4	5	6

Bölüm 3: Örgütsel Kültür Değerlendirme Aracı

(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum

(2) Katılmıyorum

(3) Kararsızım

(4) Kısmen katılıyorum

(5) Katılıyorum

Lütfen, aşağıdaki ifadeleri çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu düşünerek dikkatlice okuyarak her bir ifadeye ne derece KATILDIĞINIZI 1 ile 5 arasında size en uygun rakamı işaretleyiniz.

	(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum	(2) Katılmıyorum	(3) Kararsızım	(4) Kısmen katılıyorum	(5) Katılıyorum
1. Kurumum büyük bir aile gibidir ve çalışanlar pek çok şey paylaşır.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kurumum dinamik ve girişimci yapıda olup çalışanlar risk alırlar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kurumum kuralların ve prosedürlerin hâkim olduğu resmi bir iş yeridir. Kurallar ve prosedürler çalışanların davranışlarını belirler.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kurumum rekabetçi yapıda olup çalışanları da üst düzey üretim ve başarı odaklı çalışmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kurumumun üst düzey yöneticisi bir danışma ya da ebeveyn olarak algılanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Kurumumun üst düzey yöneticisi girişimci, yenilikçi ya da risk alan bir kişi olarak algılanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kurumumun üst düzey yöneticisi koordinatör, organizatör ya da etkinlik odaklı bir kişi olarak algılanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kurumumun üst düzey yöneticisi üretim odaklı, rekabetçi ya da zorlayıcı bir kişi olarak algılanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kurumumu bir arada tutan sadakat ve bağlılık olup uyum ve ekip çalışması kurumun en önemli özelliğidir.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Kurumumu bir arada tutan unsur inovasyon ve gelişmeyi hedeflemiş olup yapılan işte ilk olmak hedeftir.	1	2	3	4	5

11. Kurumumu bir arada tutan prosedürler, kurallar ve politikalar olup kurumun faaliyetlerini kusursuz olarak sürdürmek amaçlanmaktadır.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Kurumumu bir arada tutan üretim ve hedeflerin başarılmasına verilen önem olup pazar payını artırmak için agresif hedefler ortaya konur.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Kurumumda katılımcı ve rahat bir çalıma ortamı vardır ve güven, açıklık ve samimiyet vardır.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Kurumumda zorluklara karşı hazırlıklı olmak ve dinamizm önemlidir. Yeni bir şeyler deneme yanılma yoluyla öğrenilir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Kurumumda süreklilik ve istikrar önemlidir. Prosedürlerdeki beklentiler açık ve zorlayıcıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Kurumum rekabet ve başarı odaklıdır. Rekabette kazanmak önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Kurumuma gore başarı insan kaynaklarının gelişimi, ekip çalışması ve çalışan odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Kurumum başarıyı eşsiz ve yeni ürünlere sahip olmaya bağlamıştır. Kurumum ürün lideri ve yenilikçi odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Kurumum başarıyı verimliliğe bağlamaktadır. Kurumum için en güvenilir dağıtım, mükemmel zamanlama ve düşük maliyet önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Kurumuma göre başarı büyük pazar payına sahip olmaktır. Rekabette en iyisi olmak temel amaçtır.	1	2	3	4	5
21. Kurumumun yönetim tarzı ekip çalışması, uyum ve katılım odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
22. Kurumumun yönetim tarzı girişim, inovasyon, özgürlük ve eşsiz olma odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
23. Kurumumun yönetim tarzı çalışanların güvenliği, gelenek, kurallar ve prosedürlere uygun davranış, öngörülebilirlik ve ilişkilerde istikrar odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
24. Kurumumun yönetim tarzı zorlayıcı rekabet ve büyük beklentilere ulaşma odaklıdır.	1	2	3	4	5

Bölüm 4: İş Performansı Anketi

(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum

(2) Katılmıyorum

(3) Kararsızım

(4) Kısmen katılıyorum

(5) Katılıyorum

Lütfen, aşağıdaki ifadeleri çalışmakta olduğunuz kurumu düşünerek dikkatlice okuyarak her bir ifadeye ne derece KATILDIĞINIZI 1 ile 5 arasında size en uygun rakamı işaretleyiniz.

	(1) Kısmen katılmıyorum	(2) Katılmıyorum	(3) Kararsızım	(4) Kısmen katılıyorum	(5) Katılıyorum
1. Görevlerimi verilen zamanda gerçekleştiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimin gerektirdiği hedeflerimi fazlasıyla yerine getiririm.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kurumum için verdiğim hizmet kalitesinin standartların çok üzerinde olduğundan eminim.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Kurumda bir sorun ortaya çıktığında hızlı bir şekilde çözüm getirebilirim.	1	2	3	4	5