

REFLECTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON UNIVERSITY WEB SITES:  
A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TURKISH STATE AND FOUNDATION UNIVERSITIES

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REFLECTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON UNIVERSITY WEB SITES:  
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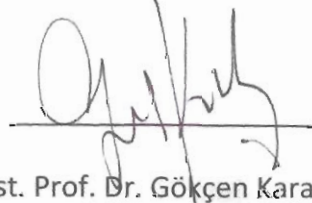
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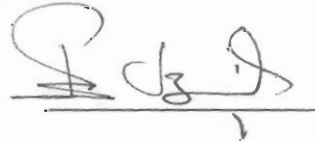
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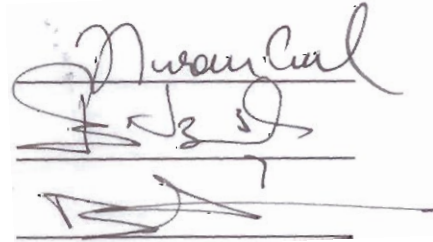
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## ABSTRACT

### REFLECTIONS OF ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE ON UNIVERSITY WEB SITES: A COMPARATIVE STUDY OF TURKISH STATE AND FOUNDATION UNIVERSITIES

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This thesis analyzes the reflections of organizational culture on official web sites of Turkish state and foundation universities; aiming to document if state and foundation universities have similar or different characteristics of organizational culture revealed by information provided in official web sites. In order to find out if there are significant, observable differences between Turkish state and foundation web sites, qualitative content analysis was applied to the web sites under the scope of study. The results of the study reveal that in many aspects, university web sites bear similarities rather than differences. Another finding is that even though many of organizational values and practices are employed in official web sites of universities, it is observed that there are significant problems in operational uses of web content and web appearance. As the research was conducted on a limited sample of Turkish state and foundation universities, results of analysis are not necessarily representative of the entire number of Turkish universities; yet they offer an insight to reflections of organizational culture through official channels of universities. The originality of research methodology in terms of web appearance may be useful for further studies and research on organizational culture and web sites.

Keywords: organizational culture, university, content analysis, web sites, Turkey

## ÖZET

### ÜNİVERSİTE WEB SİTELERİ ÜZERİNDEN KURUM KÜLTÜRÜ YANSIMALARI: TÜRK DEVLET VE VAKIF ÜNİVERSİTELERİ ÜZERİNE KARŞILAŞTIRMALI BİR ÇALIŞMA

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Bu çalışma, Türkiye'deki devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinin kurumsal web siteleri üzerinden kurum kültürü yansımalarını analiz etmektedir. Çalışmanın amacı, devlet ve vakıf üniversiteleri arasında kurum kültürü açısından varolan benzerlik ya da farklılıkları üniversitelerin kurumsal web sitelerinde verilen bilgiler vasıtasıyla açığa çıkarmaktır. Türkiye'deki devlet ve vakıf üniversitelerinin web siteleri arasında gözlemlenebilir ve anlamlı farklılıkların olup olmadığını ortaya koymak amacıyla, araştırma kapsamındaki web siteleri niteliksel içerik analizine tabi tutulmuştur. Araştırma sonuçları üniversite web siteleri arasında farklılıklardan çok benzerliklerin bulunduğunu göstermektedir. Başka önemli bir bulgu ise, üniversitelerin kurumsal web sitelerinde kurumsal değer ve pratiklere sıklıkla yer vermelerine rağmen, web içeriği ve web görünümünde kayda değer işlevsel sıkıntıların gözlemlenmesidir. Çalışma kapsamında Türkiye'deki devlet ve vakıf üniversiteleri arasından otuz üniversite belirlenen kriterlere göre seçildiğinden, araştırma sonuçlarının tüm Türk üniversitelerini kapsadığı varsayımına varılmamalıdır; ancak elde edilen bulgular üniversitelerin kurumsal kanalları üzerinden kurum kültürü yansımalarına bir iç görü sunmaktadır. Özellikle web görünümü açısından tasarlanan araştırma metodu özgünlük taşımakta; kurum kültürü ve web siteleri hakkında yapılabilecek benzer çalışmalara yarar sağlayabilecek niteliktedir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: kurum kültürü, üniversite, içerik analizi, web siteleri, Türkiye

To my ever-supportive mom...

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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

2GU: Second Generation Universities

3GU: Third Generation Universities

ADSL: Asymmetric Digital Subscriber Line

ARPA: US Defense Department's Advanced Research Projects Agency

ARPANET: Network of Advanced Research Projects Agency

BITNET: Because It's Time Network

CERN: European Laboratory for Particle Physics

DPT: Devlet Planlama Teşkilatı (tr), Ministry of Development (en)

DSL: Digital Subscriber Line

EUA: European University Association

HTML: Hypertext Markup Language

IEU: İzmir Ekonomi Üniversitesi (tr), Izmir University of Economics (en)

IT: Information Technologies

İTÜ: İstanbul Teknik Üniversitesi (tr), Istanbul Technical University (en)

İYTE: İzmir Yüksek Teknoloji Enstitüsü (tr), Izmir Institute of Technology (en)

METU: Middle East Technical University

MILNET: Military Network

NSF: National Science Foundation of United States

NSFNET: Network of Natural Science Foundation

SPSS: Statistical Package for the Social Sciences

TBMM: Türkiye Büyük Millet Meclisi (tr), Grand National Assembly of Turkey (en)

TOBB: Türkiye Odalar ve Borsalar Birliği (tr), The Union of Chambers and Commodity Exchanges of Turkey (en)

TÜBİTAK: Türkiye Bilimsel ve Teknolojik Araştırma Kurumu (tr), The Scientific and Technological Research Council of Turkey (en)

TÜSİAD: Türk Sanayicileri ve İşadamları Derneği (tr), Turkish Industry and Business Association (en)

TÜVAKA: Türkiye Üniversiteler ve Araştırma Kurumları Ağı (tr), Network of Turkish Universities and Research Institutions (en)

ULAKNET: Ulusal Akademik Ağ (tr), National Academic Network (en)

URAP: University Ranking by Academic Performance

ÜAK: Üniversitelerarası Kurul (tr), The Council of Interuniversities (en)

ÜDK: Üniversite Denetleme Kurulu (tr), The Council of University Supervision (en)

VDSL: Very High-bit-rate Digital Subscriber Line

WWII: World War II

WWW: World Wide Web

YÖK: Yükseköğretim Kurulu (tr), The Council of Higher Education (en)



## INTRODUCTION

In an age of massive communication and interaction, what distinguishes an organization from others and what makes it significant has come to be of great importance. Organizations with their unique cultures have become the interest of studies in many fields such as anthropology, sociology, psychology, linguistics, communications, management and marketing. Cultures that accumulate shared experiences, symbols, beliefs, values, myths and basic assumptions of organizations are dynamic systems that are interdependent to various internal and external factors. Among these factors, technological developments have played a crucial role in both the ways of conducting business and communicating with stakeholders of the organization. During the leap from industrial societies to the Information Age, it was inevitable that use of computer technologies would be pervasive and increasingly sophisticated (Deal & Kennedy, 2000). The widespread use of Internet and information and communication technologies both provide opportunities and challenges for an organization. On the one hand, organizations can benefit from low-cost facilities of internal and external communication via Internet, sustain efficient relationships with its various publics and gain competitive advantage through professional employment of public relations, marketing and organizational

communication. Nonetheless, Internet also bears a challenge for organizations on the path of innovation and professionalism. Traditional methods of communication are not sufficient enough for today's Information Society; moreover, having Internet presence is not satisfactory for publics within a global environment. Organizations are confronted with the demands of presenting information that provide an insight for organizational culture and understandings and the requirements of professionally organizing that information on the Internet as well (Morville & Rosenfeld, 2006). In that case, official web sites of organizations are among the most powerful tools for presenting organizational values and practices to the general public. In an age that recognizes official web sites as "an organization's window into [the] connected, global, electronic world" (Robbins & Stylianou, 2003), organizations should communicate and present information with the responsibilities of professionalism, accuracy, relevancy and impressing the users.

In the context of universities, official web sites help to convey the perspective of organizations through content such as mission and vision statements, strategic plans, objectives, values and beliefs. Such information that gives hints of organizational culture is strategically important for universities that interact with various internal and external stakeholders such as academic and administrative staff, students, parents, prospective partnerships, media, and governmental institutions. Additionally, for reaching global standards on university governance, content related to organizational culture are rendered accessible to anyone who wants to get information about the university in terms of transparency

and accountability. The potential of official web sites in the way of maintaining and sustaining a strong organizational culture should be fully explored by universities.

This study focuses on Turkish state and foundation university web sites to analyze how these organizations are using their official channels in order to communicate their organizational cultures. In order to shed light on the global and national requirements in higher education, state and foundation universities are comparatively analyzed in order to see if impacts of global standardization of higher education governance and efforts at enhancing the quality of university web sites have had a homogenizing effect on organizational cultures of state and foundation universities. For this study, it is hypothesized that there exists no significant, observable differences between the official web sites of Turkish state and foundation universities regarding reflections of organizational culture; in terms of both content and web appearance. The study aims to put forward main characteristics of official university web sites in terms of content and web appearance and explore whether universities are meeting the requirements of reflecting organizational culture through official web sites.

Before elaborating on organizational culture in detail, Chapter One explains the concepts of culture and organization separately, providing various definitions and approaches in the social sciences field. The chapter underlines the common characteristics of definitions and devotes special attention to elements of an organization such as history, founders and influential figures or heroes, stories and

myths, ceremonies, rites and rituals, organizational symbols and language. As university web sites as artifacts of organizational culture will be explored, levels of culture (artifacts, values and beliefs, basic assumptions) are introduced.

Chapter Two focuses on the relationship between organizational culture and communication. As today's globally networked societies are defined as Information Society, the rise of the term and its consequences are discussed. As the driving force of this new era, the emergence of the Internet is introduced; World Wide Web technology and the future projections on information and communication technologies are interpreted. A brief account on the history of the Internet in Turkey is provided. Additionally, as this study focuses on web sites as artifacts of organizational culture, basic characteristics of official web sites in terms of web content and web appearance and the organic link between organizational culture and official web sites are discussed.

Universities in the organizational context are examined in Chapter Three. This chapter provides an insight to history of universities worldwide, global and national forces driving higher education systems in the path of *good governance* and recounts processes encountered by Turkish higher education. Consequently, universities and organizational culture are discussed and significance of organizational web sites for universities is put forward.

The final chapter of this study is devoted to the comparative content analysis of Turkish state and foundation universities. Deriving from the content analysis categories of Overbeeke and Snizek's (2005) article titled as "Web Sites and Corporate Culture: A Research Note"; Robbins and Stylianou's (2003) article named as "Global Corporate Web Sites: An Empirical Investigation of Content and Design"; and Gibson, Margolis, Resnick and Ward's (2003) article titled as "Election Campaigning on the WWW in the USA and UK: A Comparative Analysis" ; this study aims to provide an insight on how organizations make use of content and web appearance features of their official web sites in order to present and communicate values and practices related to their organizational cultures. Through qualitative content analysis, thirty Turkish state and foundation universities are analyzed in terms of organizational practices, organizational values, communication, organization and society, organizational culture and organizational and technical features of web appearance. The sample of analysis is taken from the latest list of University Ranking by Academic Performance, declared in September 2011. Websites of Top 15 universities in each ranking were taken into account for analysis. Carefully analyzed and coded data related to official university web sites were evaluated with SPSS 17.0 and reported in detail to see if the main hypothesis of the study was accepted or rejected. Individual scores of Turkish state and foundation universities in each subcategory are given in tables as well.

This study covers a limited number of Turkish state and foundation universities for analysis. Further studies on university web sites can be designed

more extensively; including all Turkish universities. Additionally, future research may be conducted around social media uses of Turkish state and foundation universities to explore to what extent these organizations are embracing Web 2.0 technologies. Nevertheless, this study focusing on reflections of organizational culture through official university web sites features an exploratory research in the Turkish context and it is hoped that the study will deliver useful insights for further studies.

## CHAPTER I

### DEFINING 'ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE'

#### 1.1. The Concepts of Culture and Organization

Culture and organization, two separate concepts that form the roots for the phenomena coined as 'organizational culture', have been defined several scholars and writers in the social sciences field. In order to understand the comprehensive nature of organizational culture; these two components need to be explained primarily. This section will reveal the great deal of definitions and focus on the basic elements that form these two concepts.

##### 1.1.1. Culture

Culture as a word is powerful, extensive, yet so abstract that many definitions from different approaches coexist. It is acknowledged that culture comes from the verb in Latin "colere" or "cultura", which means 'to look after' or 'to cultivate' (Vural, 2012, p.37). Everyone knows what culture is and even feels it when introduced to a new setting such as a new neighborhood, a new workplace; but when asked, no one can put it into words very easily. It can only be imagined that

the concept of “organizational culture” is even harder to define and it can be inferred that there will be more than a dozen definitions for the concept, coming from different fields of study. Brown (1998) states that it is inevitable that there are various approaches to what organizational culture as a concept refers to; since ‘culture’ had been defined in a vast of number of ways long before the terms ‘organization’ and ‘culture’ started to be used in combination; “as long ago as 1952 the anthropologists Kroeber and Kluckhohn isolated 164 different definitions of culture.” (p.7). Indeed, Kroeber and Kluckhohn’s definition is acknowledged as one of the earliest definitions of culture:

“[Culture] consists in patterned ways of thinking, feeling and reacting, acquired and transmitted mainly by symbols, constitute the distinctive achievements of human groups, including their embodiments in artifacts; the essential core of culture consists of traditional (i.e., historically derived and selected) ideas and especially their attached values.” (as cited in Keyton, 2005, p.17).

There exists many definitions of culture, coined by theorists and practitioners who specialized in various fields of social sciences; therefore the way of defining culture varies in accordance with the characteristics of these different areas of study. For example, in anthropology, culture was associated mainly with society and its shared values, beliefs, feelings and acts which were symbolically embodied in their traditions, history and experiences. Culture was first attributed to groups of people that were bounded within a society and which are distinguishable not only by its



unique qualities but also by geographical borders. In the broadest sense, culture means different ways of living held by different groups of people (as cited in Terzi, 2000, p.5). Çetin (2004) also points out to groups of people and their shared values:

“In a broad sense, culture refers to the social environment and conditions people live in. Culture is way of thinking, feelings and reactions that are transferred by symbols that includes special achievements of groups of people. The essence of culture is composed of traditional thoughts and especially the values related to them. What character means to an individual is what culture means to a group of people” (p.6).

Similar to what Çetin proposes, Schein (2004) also draws attention to character-culture association. He argues that culture as a concept is intriguing since it indicates to phenomena that lies below the surface; which are powerful in terms of impact but rather “invisible and to a considerable degree unconscious. In that sense, culture is to a group what personality or character is to an individual.” (p.8). Culture is internalized both in societies and in organizations through tradition and history; that is mainly why it is deemed as an ‘unconscious’ concept that one cannot put it into words easily. Even though many aspects of culture can be observed, they are hard to decipher when analyzed; just as it is hard to analyze an individual’s characteristic features. Moreover, character-culture analogy is also valid when thinking about uniqueness. As an individual’s character is peculiar to oneself, culture is also peculiar to the society or organization in which it is developed, consumed, altered and maintained. Therefore, “culture is within us as individuals

and yet constantly evolving as we join and create new groups that eventually create new cultures.” (Schein, 2004, p.8).

Moving from anthropology to communication and management studies, culture has become to be also associated with groups of people which are led by influential figures. Schein (2004) defines culture as such: “Culture is both a dynamic phenomenon that surrounds us at all times, being constantly enacted and created by our interactions with others and shaped by leadership behavior, and a set of structures, routines, rules, and norms that guide and constrain behavior.” (p.1). Interactions with others are also expressed in Hofstede’s (2003) definition of culture, because of its collective nature: “It is the collective programming of the mind which distinguishes the members of one group or category of people from another” (p.5). Schein (2004) also improves the definition of culture by stating that even the smallest groups of people can form a culture: “Any social unit that has some kind of shared history will have evolved a culture, with the strength of that culture dependent on the length of its existence, the stability of the group’s membership, and the emotional intensity of the actual historical experiences they have shared” (p.11). Indeed, one can encounter many cultures on all levels. Commonly expressed cultures are national cultures, ethnic or racial cultures, regional cultures and more localized cultures (Keyton, 2005, p.18). Interactions with others produce and shape these cultures regardless of their extensiveness. Hofstede (2003) argues that culture is learned rather than being innate. The social structure and environment that groups of people find themselves within are what creates a culture. Culture is a learned process that is collectively programmed, but

this does not mean that culture is an engineered source altogether. While it is certainly correct that leaders, founders or other influential figures are significant in the development, maintenance and change of cultures, they do not *produce* a culture for the people. Interactions of members are very essential in building, maintaining and adapting to a culture. “The patterns, expectations, and norms emerge as meanings, and are negotiated and renegotiated as members enter and exit the social structure” (Keyton, 2005, p.18). Even though there are appointed or naturally emerged leading figures in any organization, no one can deny the fact that members of these social units have the power of negotiation. Because of this negotiation process and shifts in membership, culture is a certainly dynamic phenomenon by nature. Deal and Kennedy (1982) argues that culture is a body of unofficial rules that shape people’s behavior (as cited in Çetin, 2004, p.6). Rules both shape and guide behavior, but they also confine people within set borders and guidelines. Culture is confining because it acts as a perspective or framework on what people does and see and how they interpret actions and how they act in certain situations. On the other hand, due to the dynamic nature of culture, culture also contributes to progression. It allows making sense of the social structure and environment that the unit finds itself into. Past, present and future of culture are all interconnected; “The social reality of any group is simultaneously tied to its traditions anchored in the past, and open to revised or new interpretations based on the interactions of its members” (Keyton, 2005, p.19). Therefore, culture can be defined as a dynamic process that is grounded in the history of a group; that is learned through shared experiences and can be negotiated, revised and updated in time by the members of the group.

### 1.1.2. Organization

Before combining organizational practices with rather vague and abstract notion of culture and investigating what organizational culture is, what an organization is needs to be defined properly. As Schein (2004) suggests, this study also argues that any social unit that has a shared history of experiences and common, patterned beliefs and values can develop a culture peculiar to itself. In that case, what differentiates an organization from any other social unit? Schein (2004) defines culture of a group as such:

“A pattern of shared basic assumptions that was learned by a group as it solved its problems of external adaptation and internal integration, that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems” (p. 17).

Schein in his book *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (2004) does not differentiate any group from organizational groupings and proposes that culture formation in any group more or less follows the same pattern; shared history and interaction, guided by leadership behavior. All groups go through the external adaptation and internal integration stages - sometimes more than once - and they lose and gain memberships while learning to cope with problems. That is why he prefers to refer to organizational members also as groups. Indeed, whether it is a country going through new stages in economic and political affairs, a profit

organization such as a global company getting ready for a merger or moving to a new plant, or a nonprofit organization such as Greenpeace dealing with national and local issues, all of these social units have to make considerations about these external and internal issues.

Providing another perspective, Keyton (2005) argues that in order to define organization, its common elements need to be identified. Drawing on her argument, elements of organization are (1) ordered and purposeful interaction among people, (2) communicating within and across structures, (3) a superordinate goal, and (4) a dynamic system. Interaction is purposeful since people get into interaction with an organization with a specific goal in mind. Whatever role people takes, as an employee or a client, they communicate with one another and they are engaged in their organizational roles. "The point here is that people in organizations do not act randomly. Rather, organizations are sites of controlled and coordinated activity" (Keyton, 2005, p.4). The roles people undertake in organizations engage them with predetermined structures and expectations. Expectation also indicates preferably predictable actions arising from these organizational roles. Still, there can be some cases where communication occurs very indirectly. "Despite the organization's overall goals and ordered patterns of interaction, it is very likely that not all organizational members are connected to one another" (Keyton, 2005, p.5). However, indirect linkages between organizational members remain and ordered, purposeful interaction is maintained in any case.

Communication within and across structures are generally organized through 'functional' or 'operational' units. In a typical organization such units are accounting, research and development, human resources, public relations, international affairs and according to what type of business is executed; such as production, manufacturing, logistics, counseling and so on. Keyton denotes that time and space can also be a determinant factor in organizational structure. Shift system in organizations or an organization having several offices working in connection with headquarters are examples of these structural factors. Furthermore, it is significant that these structures indicate a power and responsibility distribution. While communicating with one another, organizational units operate through a hierarchy and each organizational member takes on different powers, roles and responsibilities. On many conditions, most of the organizational members communicate directly with each other within their units either in one-to-one interaction or in teamwork, but also different units which are mainly in indirect connection get together, as Keyton (2005) states that "organizations cannot survive without their employees communicating across units as well" (p.6). Thus, for the creation, development and maintenance of organizations, communication is a key point and its effectiveness within and across these structures results in positive ways for overall organizational goals.

An organization having a superordinate goal indicates one of the most important necessities for organizational culture. Even though each member of a group has specific organizational roles, their interdependent interaction paves the way to organizational goals and success. In many organizations, organizational roles

are distributed to many members as superordinate goals are “so difficult, time-consuming and complex that it is beyond the capacity of one person” (Keyton, 2005, p.7). Organizational culture, as it will be explained in depth through further parts of this study, helps distribute the mindset, values, beliefs and in the broadest sense ‘way of doing things’; and makes it possible for the organization to reach its superordinate goal(s). Thus, a superordinate goal is a key element for an organization. Keyton (2005) mentions about ‘economic viability’ as part of superordinate goals. According to her, “in a capitalistic society, making money is always an underlying organizational goal regardless of what type of product or service the organization manufactures or provides” (p. 7). At first, this seems to be an induction for profit-seeking organizations but in fact, nonprofit organizations also have to take into consideration their economic viability in order to maintain their reason to be. For example, the focus of this study is on universities as organizations. Universities, whether they are state or foundational ones, aim at contributing to society in various ways; such as by raising university graduates, by conducting both academic and sectoral research and so on. Still, they have to operate on a capital in order to survive, provide services and reach their ultimate goal. Keyton (2005) therefore states that superordinate goals go beyond the skills and strengths on the individual level, needs interdependence and cooperation in order to achieve organizational goals “which, in turn, serve as a vehicle or purpose for obtaining monies or the other resources required to sustain goal-directed activities” (p.8). Superordinate goals should also take into consideration the individual aims of members. These goals should be expressed in an explicit way in order to determine and specify the aims to be reached by employees of the

organization (Terzi, 2000); but also organizations should keep in mind why employees have chosen to work at this organization in the first place. While contributing to the organization's superordinate goals, they also invest in their personal developments and aims.

Both Schein (2004) and Keyton's (2005) way of defining organization and its elements show that an organization is a dynamic system. First, the internal structure of an organization constitutes and contributes to its dynamism. As also stated in other elements of organization, each member takes on different organizational roles; furthermore their skills and strengths are different. On one hand, existing members of an organization change positions, get promotions, are transformed to a new places for new roles, are taking vacations or other types of leaves, are fired or retired; on the other hand new members of the organizations temporarily or permanently join organizations or replace others. Keyton (2005) stresses that while the tasks members are newly appointed to are more or less the same, the people performing them are not. This also includes the communication experience that will arise. Secondly, an organization does not exist by itself in its surrounding environment. Keyton (2005) argues that organizations must be responsive to and interact with its various publics; including customers, clients, regulatory and economic environments. Although they have target audiences or publics, other stakeholders interact with and influence organizations. For example, when a company decides to execute a social responsibility campaign, it has to make both internal and external assessments; about employees, customers, governmental institutions, nongovernmental organizations, academics, the media



and the community in general. In that case, organizations are all “part of a dynamic system which it influences other organizations, and at the same time is influenced by them” (Keyton, 2005, p.9).

Thus, Keyton (2005) gathers elements of an organization and defines it as such: “An organization is a dynamic system of organizational members, influenced by external stakeholders, who communicate within and across organizational structures in a purposeful and ordered way to achieve a superordinate goal” (p.10). What matters in the organization in the long term is not the size or structure of it, but the interaction processes that are undertaken by its members. While interacting with each member or unit, organizational bodies preserve collective memories of experiences and ways to cope with encountered problems. On the organizational level, individuals help to draw paths for norms, values and beliefs and they also transfer their interpretations of their environment onto new members but needless to say, organizations are not altogether dependent to individual skills, strengths and interpretations of members; “an organizational interpretation exists beyond that of its individual members” (p. 11).

According to Schein, organization can be defined as a result of division of labor and function; coordination of activities of a group of people towards a shared and explicit aim to be reached within a power of sanction and order of responsibilities (as cited in Terzi, 2000). Indeed, organizational members take responsibility with their coordinated, ordered and purposeful actions according to their skills and strengths and serve to the organizational goals to be reached. In

order to carry their organizational roles in the best way possible, organizational members need to be aware of organizational norms, values and practices. Other than organizational members themselves, publics and stakeholders of organizations should also be informed about how things are done. Communicating organizational culture with the internal and external stakeholders is a crucial process for an organization.

## 1.2 Organizational Culture

Organizational culture, with its dynamic properties derived from the two separate notions of culture and organization, incorporate several elements and layers that distinguish it from other managerial and communicative perspectives. This section will elaborate on the definitions of organizational culture, present the elements that indicate any organization's unique culture and discuss the layers of organizational culture formed by theorists in the field; particularly stressing Schein's levels of culture (2004).

### 1.2.1. Defining Organizational Culture

By defining culture and organization separately, it was aimed to bring explanation to another vague term, organizational culture. When asked, anyone can talk about some elements of organizational culture; likewise culture, organization is also a sensible concept which is also too intangible to explain. It can be inferred from the culture and organization explanations that any group of people could have

formed a culture through shared experiences and memories. Organizational culture distinguishes itself by the superimposition of organizational elements. Those were (1) ordered and purposeful interactions, (2) communication within and across organizational structures, (3) a superordinate goal, and (4) a dynamic system (Keyton, 2005). Likewise, organizational culture requires interaction and communication, leading and driving forces and figures, and has a very dynamic structure.

Just as there are many debates concerning what culture is, there are also a variety of definitions for organizational culture; coming from many disciplines. In that case, it can be argued that there is no one solid definition for organizational culture. In addition to this, in the recent years, the term 'corporate culture' came into prominence and in literature these two terms started to be used interchangeably. Hofstede (2003) argues that attributing culture to an organization is a relatively recent phenomenon:

"The term *organizational culture* first appeared casually in English-language literature in the 1960s as a synonym of 'climate'. The equivalent *corporate culture*, coined in the 1970s, gained popularity after a book carrying this title, by Terrence Deal and Allan Kennedy, appeared in USA in 1982... Since then, an extensive literature has developed on the topic, which has also reached other language areas" (p. 179).

Vural (2012) also stresses that even though research and studies on organizational culture goes a long way back, in the past ten years this concept has rapidly developed an interest in the study of organizational culture increased much more. Goodman (1998) as well show Deal and Kennedy as the figures for popularizing this term in their book *Corporate Cultures: The Rites and Rituals of Corporate Life*, but indicates that they have just provided a limited perspective at the time: "In the book, however, they only approach a definition of this concept with: "Values are the bedrock of any corporate culture" (p.29). In this study, the approach will be based on organizational culture and other organizational terms and concepts.<sup>1</sup>

Paying regard to the given condition that there is no certain definition of organizational culture, it would be useful to show the diversity of definitions and attract attention to distinctive, common characteristics of them; therefore, Brown's (1998) selection of some best-known and widely used definitions in chronological order, describes the stances writers have taken in the literature:

The culture of the factory is its customary and traditional **way of thinking and of doing things**, which **is shared to a greater or lesser degree by all its members, and which new members must learn, and at least partially accept**, in order to be accepted into service in the firm. Culture in this sense covers a wide range of behavior: the methods of production; job skills and technical knowledge; attitudes towards discipline and punishment; the customs and habits of managerial behavior; the objectives of the concern; its way of doing business; the methods of payment; the **values** placed on different types of work; **beliefs** in democratic living and joint consultation; and the less conscious conventions and taboos (*Jacques, 1952:251*).

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<sup>1</sup> Since the terms organizational or corporate culture are considered equivalent to one another, it becomes a matter of preference for many scholars, practitioners and researchers while studying and writing about organizational culture. This study will use the term organizational culture and for maintaining coherence through this dissertation, quotes or excerpts from the literature regarding corporate matters will be changed according to organizational terms and concepts. (e.g: corporate body - organization, corporate identity - organizational identity etc.)

The culture of an organization refers to the **unique configuration of norms, values, beliefs, ways of behaving** and so on that characterize the manner in which groups and individuals combine to get things done. The distinctiveness of a particular organization is intimately bound up with its **history and the character-building effects of past decisions and past leaders**. It is manifested in the folkways, mores, and the ideology to which members defer, as well as in the strategic choices made by the organization as a whole (*Eldridge and Crombie, 1974: 89*).

A set of understandings or *meanings shared* by a group of people. The **meanings** are largely *tacit* among members, are clearly *relevant* to the particular group, and are *distinctive* to the group. Meanings are *passed* on to new group members (Louis, 1980).

Culture... is a **pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization's members**. These beliefs and expectations **produce norms** that powerfully shape the behavior of individuals and groups in the organization (Schwartz and Davis, 1981:33).

A quality of perceived organizational specialness - that it possesses some **unusual quality that distinguishes it from others in the field** (Gold, 1982:571-2).

Organizational culture is not just another piece of the puzzle, it is the puzzle. From our point of view, a culture is not something an organization has; a culture is something an organization is (Pacanowsky and O'Donnell-Trujillo, 1982:126).

Corporate culture may be described as a general constellation of beliefs, mores, customs, value systems, behavioral norms, and ways of doing business that are **unique to each corporation**, that set a pattern for corporate activities and actions, and that describe the implicit and emergent patterns of behavior and emotions **characterizing life in the organization** (Tunstall, 1983:15).

I will mean by "culture": a pattern of **basic assumptions** - invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems (Schein, 1985:9).

The culture metaphor points towards another means of creating organized activity: by influencing the language, norms, folklore, ceremonies, and other social practices that communicate the key ideologies, values, and beliefs guiding action (Morgan, 1986:135).

By culture, I mean the shared beliefs top managers in a company have about how they should manage themselves and other employees, and how they should conduct their business(es). These beliefs are often invisible to the top managers but have a major impact on their thoughts and actions (Lorsch, 1986:95).

Corporate culture is the implicit, invisible, intrinsic and informal consciousness of the organization which guides the behavior of the individuals and which shapes itself out of their behavior (Scholz, 1987:80).

'Culture' refers to the underlying values, beliefs, and principles that serve as a foundation for an organization's management system as well as the set of management practices and behaviors that both exemplify and reinforce those basic principles (Denison, 1990:2).

Culture represents an **interdependent set of values and ways of behaving** that are common in a community and that tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over long periods of time (Kotter and Heskett, 1992:141).

Culture is "**how things are done around here**". It is what is typical of the organization, the habits, the prevailing attitudes, the grown-up pattern of accepted and expected behavior (Drennan, 1992:3).

Culture is the **commonly held and relatively stable** beliefs, attitudes and values that exist within the organization (Williams et al. 1993).

**Table 1.** Brown's (1998) table of organizational culture definitions<sup>2</sup>

As it is proposed above, there are many different definitions of organizational culture coming from different disciplines; mainly in social sciences. However, it is possible to outline the key features that are stressed by each definition. Hofstede (2003) argues that even though there is no standard definition of organizational culture, there are visible common traits in each of them that most people would agree on. According to his deduction, organizational culture is:

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<sup>2</sup> as shown in Brown, 1998, p.7; the quotes within the table are not modified to organizational terms. Points to be emphasized are shown in bold.

- *holistic*: referring to a whole which is more than sum of its parts
- *historically determined*: reflecting the history of the organization
- *related to the things anthropologists study*: like rituals and symbols
- *socially constructed*: created and preserved by a group of people who together form the organization
- *soft*: (although Peters and Waterman assure their readers that 'soft is hard')<sup>3</sup>
- *difficult to change*: although authors disagree on *how* difficult (p.179-80).

Brown (2005) himself defines organizational culture as such: "Organizational culture refers to the pattern of beliefs, values and learned ways of coping with experience that have developed during the course of an organization's history, and which tend to be manifested in its material arrangements and in the behaviors of its members" (p.9). Drawing on several definitions he provides, it can be observed that since the very first definitions of organizational culture, the reference to ways of doing and thinking is stressed in the broader sense. Meanings are created among members of the organization and they are distributed to current and joining members of the organization in order to introduce the values, beliefs and norms of the organization to be considered while taking action. History and historical figures are included in many definitions as well. Furthermore, an organization's culture is

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<sup>3</sup> McKinsey 7-S model, designed by Peters and Waterman, indicates that there are seven important factors regarding an organization; (hard S's) strategy, structure, systems; (soft S's) style/culture, staff, skills, shared Values / superordinate goals. In their book *In Search of Excellence*, even though many organizations pay a lot attention to hard S's, soft S's are also worth the effort for organizational success. In that case, what was deemed as "soft" becomes harder and more significant than ever. (Recklies, 2012).

likened to an individual's character. It is unique to the organization and it differentiates the organization from others. Each organization goes through different obstacles and changes to cope with, so they develop different shields to protect themselves and different methods to overcome issues. With their experiences they carry to the present and their customary actions, organizations form a trademark culture; "Organizations through their existence, by keeping their customs alive, constitute a distinctive culture; and that becomes their organizational culture" (Okay, 2003, p.212). Organizational culture also leads the managers on how to manage the organization and how to manage themselves. Therefore, organizational culture provides a guideline for organizational members on all levels.

According to Okay (2003), organizational culture is "hypotheses transmitted to the newcomers as a problem-solving building block of a group's acquired experiences that resulted in a positive way" (p.213). In this case, while acquired experiences are shared as a guiding manual to new members, Okay's definition of organizational culture as 'hypotheses' supports the earliest definition given shown in Table 1 as well; that suggests new members have the opportunity to confirm to or partially reject organizational culture. In that sense, organizational culture is relatively open to negotiation and is dynamic; challenged by both external and internal factors. Vural (2012) also points out that the perception of organizations have changed in the latest decades: "Organizations, just as individuals do, have character and just as individuals are, they can be strict or flexible, distant and supportive, conservative or innovative" (p.41). Organizational members therefore



learn how to *know*, *act* and *feel* in through the guidelines set by organizational culture and adapt themselves accordingly, either in acceptance or in rejection if possible.

Schein (2004) argues that culture can be analyzed at levels; which are artifacts, espoused beliefs and values, and basic assumptions. Whereas he does not make a formal definition of 'organizational culture' and adapts a more holistic approach by taking 'culture of a group'; borrowing from Schein's levels of culture, Keyton (2005) defines organizational culture as such: "Organizational culture is the set(s) of artifacts, values and assumptions that emerge from the interactions of organizational members" (p.28). Before going into further detail in explaining what each level is and what they signify, it is essential to see how elements of organizational culture and levels of it are discussed in several ways.

#### 1.2.2. Elements of Organizational Culture

A variety of definitions, coming from theorists and practitioners specialized in different fields, have revealed that there are some intercepting aspects and elements of culture. Brown (1998) argues that elements that are commonly identified are as such: "artefacts; language in the form of jokes, metaphors, stories, myths and legends; behavior patterns in the form of rites, rituals, ceremonies and celebrations; norms of behavior; heroes; symbols and symbolic action; beliefs, values and attitudes; ethical codes; basic assumptions and history" (p.10-11).

Similarly, Vural (2012) attracts attention to common elements identified in the organizational culture literature:

- history of the organization;
- values and beliefs (concepts and beliefs that defines success within the organization and sets the standards of it);
- stories and myths that explain the organization;
- cultural network of the organization (informal structure, implicit and partially invisible hierarchy of authority);
- customs, traditions, ceremonies;
- heroes of the organization (female and male heroes that personify organizational values and serve as role models for others) (p. 42-43).

In order to get a clear understanding of what elements of culture are, each of them must be explained in detail. Drawing on the arguments of Brown (1998) and Vural (2012) that these elements stated above are frequently used in the literature, this section will get into further detail with each visible element that are commonly studied in the research field. Brown (1998) argues that even though these categories of elements are reviewed as independent from each other, there are many overlapping points and discussions. This section will not go into detail with deeper elements of culture such as values, beliefs, attitudes and basic assumptions; as those will be discussed later in Chapter 1.3 as Schein's (2004) 'levels of culture'.

#### 1.2.2.1. History of Organization

Hofstede (2003) argues that organizational culture is historically determined; which implies that history is a reflection of the organization in the sense that it includes all the past experiences; when, under which conditions and for which purpose it was founded; and all its acquisitions. Indeed, almost all culture and organizational culture definitions have included history as an essential introductory matter for new members of a group (organization). Brown (1998) also argues that it is better understood when culture is thought as to have formed as an output of historical processes. He furthermore argues that studying solely history of an organization is also mind-opening. Since organizational culture opens up the possibility for change with its dynamic system and qualities, a comparison of organization's past and present can expose the changes in the organization in an explicit way.

#### 1.2.2.2. Founders and Influential Figures/Heroes

When talking about organizational history, it is essential to speak of founder(s) of an organization and other managers or employees who have played an important role in the organizational processes. If defined as heroes, these organizational members are most probably founders of the organization; sometimes even the organization is named after them (e.g: Dell - Michael Dell (1984), HP - Bill Hewlett and David Packard (1939), Nestlé - Henry Nestlé (1866), P&G - William Procter and James Gamble (1837), The Walt Disney Company - Walt

and Roy Disney (1923) (Abrugar, 2011); or they are legendary figures who have strong association with the organization name, who will be remembered forever and will be narrated to new members as part of the organizational culture. (e.g: Apple - Steve Jobs, Microsoft - Bill Gates, Facebook - Mark Zuckerberg, Sabancı Holding - Sakıp Sabancı, Yaşar Holding - Durmuş Yaşar) It is quite often that organizational heroes feature book covers and are acted out in movies in honor of them. Hofstede (2003) adds that these heroes can also be imaginary ones, who possess important qualities that are aimed to project as part of organizational culture; which in turn helps to serve behavioral norms. Terzi (2000) furthermore argues that heroes “enliven the cultural values” (p.56) and “concretize” (p.57) them. Whether these influential figures are called heroes, legends or are just ordinary members of the organization, the circulation of their success and key roles for the organization is a pivotal practice. Okay (2003) suggests that leading figures in an organization is important for both the organization and its members, since they are literally the incarnated figures of success; and not only their achievements motivate the members but also they are symbols who represent the organization in the eyes of stakeholders.

#### 1.2.2.3. Stories and Myths

Stories and myths are two almost inseparable elements of culture, which help to unveil organization values to new members. Stories are true narratives that happened within or around the practices of the organization that provide newcomers with slices of organizational history. Brown (2005) argues that not only

existing members actually like to tell the stories to new members, but also they tend to narrate them in order to provide them with a clear, comprehensive picture of organizational values. These stories are; he proposes, as they are peculiar to each organization, ways of expressing uniqueness. Just as heroes concretizing the norms and values, stories as well represent the values and norms of the organization in general, and of the leaders or other influential figures which are actors of the story. Terzi (2000) argues that these stories can narrate both positive or negative situations happened in the past. Furthermore, these stories usually entreat issues that features leaders and heroes, but “from time to time, ordinary employees that achieved extraordinary successes can also be featured in stories” (Okay, 2003, p.235). Regardless of the key actors in the narrative, stories help reflect the key values and norms of behavior to organizational members. Stories can also be analyzed in organizational culture research, but there is one obstacle that as these stories circulate around the organization, its factuality becomes questionable as there occurs many interpretations coming from different individuals as each member can perceive a story in a different way. Brown (1998) states that the more interpretations there arise, the less quality these stories have for the researcher.

Myths on the other hand are not actually as credible as stories in the sense of true experiences. Usually indistinguishable from stories as another narration style, organizational myths are fictitious beliefs which may or may not be incorporated into stories, which help to explain acts and situations regarding organizational culture (Brown, 1998). According to Terzi (2000), myths are beliefs that are not experienced and that are not criticized; furthermore they should not be

identified as false beliefs but as unique elements of organizational culture that offers a perspective to organizational history and collective memories; even though they are presented in a narration that is idealized and quite exaggerated. Indeed, myths are key elements of organizational culture even though they are partly fabricated, arising from customary actions, beliefs, values and prejudices. Myths, as they are idealized, can be indicators of how things should be and how members should position themselves accordingly. As in other cases of historical inheritances of organizational culture, myths as linguistic elements of organizational culture, help to disseminate organizational beliefs, values and assumptions to new members of the organization. Myths, just as stories do, can include key members and leaders of the organization in order to better explain organizational order, behavior and structure.

#### 1.2.2.4. Ceremonies, Rites and Rituals

These collective elements of action are one of the most important visible elements of organizational culture to both insiders and outsiders of an organization. They are significant for the organization since they have four main functions such as socialization, providing consistency, reducing anxiety and sending messages to external environment (Vural, 2012). Indeed, rites, rituals and ceremonies all activate the feeling of unity and cooperation; in each meeting they re-establish the energy and power of the organization and its culture; they reassure members of a better future together and they inform stakeholders of the organization.

Brown (1998) defines ceremonies as such: "Ceremonies may be thought of as celebrations of organizational culture, or collective acts of cultural worship that remind and reinforce cultural values" (p.21). Ceremonies indeed celebrate organizational culture, and it is a great opportunity for the organization where organizational members greet each other in both formal and informal ways, feel the reinforcements of organizational culture and its symbolism and be reminded of values and organizational goals once more. Ceremonies mark a time which is important for all members (e.g.: establishment anniversary of a university) and where organizational symbols are out there for all to experience once more: logos, flags, key sayings, speeches given by founders or leaders, stories pertaining to organizational culture, marching music, dress codes etc. While ceremonies remind organizational members of ultimate goals of an organization by a planned event, they are also important presentations to the organization's stakeholders. For example, inclusion of media within a ceremony exposes both very basic elements of organizational culture to outsiders of the organization and gives out messages to them (e.g.: Establishment anniversary of a university communicates the culture of the university as well as reinforcing the importance and reason for preference of it.).

Rites and rituals are also planned, repeated events that help to reinforce organizational values. Members get used to these rites and rituals within the course of organizational life; since they get accustomed to these repeated events. Hofstede (2003) argues that rituals have strategic importance as they serve to rational reasons such as introducing a new leader to an organization, saying farewell to an

important member, familiarizing members with a new goal of the organization through office parties and so on. It can be clearly asserted that these planned rites and rituals contribute to the communication of organizational messages. Rites and rituals are important aspects of organizational life as they gather people to communicate key messages of organizational culture to each member; moreover they influence and exercise power on them (Brown, 1998). Even though, on the surface, these events seem to be a “get together” for the organizational members on all levels; for the researcher, when investigated with a critical eye no one can deny the pouring of influential power in between the lines of these “planned” events.

#### 1.2.2.5. Organizational Symbols

Other visible elements of organizational culture can be categorized into ‘symbols’ in general. Symbols are objects, designs, slogans, songs, relations and acts within rituals, architecture of buildings, way of organizing the offices, name of the organization and so on, that can be considered as markings of culture (Terzi, 2000, p.54). Hofstede (2003) furthermore argues that these symbols may be “words, gestures, pictures or objects that carry a particular meaning which is only recognized by those who share the culture” (p.7). Indeed, symbols carry much more meaning for an insider than an observer; they embody cultural meanings that can only be fully understood by organizational members. These cultural symbols pave the way for strong identification with the organization. They are “deeply felt or held when they tap into emotions or identity” (Keyton, 2005, p.19). For example,



Turkish football team Galatasaray's organizational symbol is a lion, which is featured in their official merchandise, posters and billboards, slogans, official web site, social media accounts and so on. The footballers and the fans are frequently called as "the lions" in the printed press and in television programs. Members who are each identified as a lion associate themselves with the organizational symbol. Classification by symbols also separate people into groups (Keyton, 2005): 'the lions' mark who is a member of Galatasaray and who is not. Symbols provide inclusion into the organizational culture for the members. In relation to meanings these symbols carry, it can be said that symbols are static and same for all organizational members; whereas the values and beliefs attached to them are various. In Galatasaray case, lion is generally associated with the meanings and values of power, fearlessness, wildness, being a king and is positioned against the rival Fenerbahçe's yellow canary, playing with the theme cat vs. bird and so on. While there is a strong identification with the lion among the Galatasaray members, interpretations of the symbol vary. In the light of these, Keyton (2005) defines symbols as "collective representation of a culture when the symbol or meaning is deeply felt or held, is interpretable within a community, and is widely accessible to members of the community."

While symbols have deep meanings inscribed within them, it should not be deduced that a symbol represents the whole of the culture. For example, organizational architecture can be a symbol for organizational culture (Brown, 1998); but it is not separately sufficient to describe organizational culture. A symbol, in combination with other symbols and values, help develop and maintain culture

(Keyton, 2005). Furthermore, symbols are rather 'superficial', Hofstede (2003) argues; since symbols can be renewed and replaced. Changes in the organization are reflected to all levels of organizational culture; and symbols, as the superficial elements of culture, can give their places to new ones. Still, symbols are important motivators for the organizational members (Brown, 1998; Terzi, 2000) and they help to determine what is acceptable, preferred and approved in a symbolic way.

#### 1.2.2.6. Language

Just as each society has to use a specific language in order to communicate within its members, so do organizations of all kinds. Language used both verbally and nonverbally; slang, idioms, jokes, metaphors, slogans, greetings, songs, signs can all be included within the category of language (Terzi, 2000; Okay, 2003). "Speaking the same language" is figuratively used for an organization; it means that within an organization, members on all levels should be able to interpret others' messages without any misunderstandings. In an organizational structure, members should develop mutual understanding of the language in order to work together and reach organizational goals (Brown, 1998). Interpretations should be clear and unified within and across organizational units that work together or that order and report to each other.

Even though members bring historical, cultural and social backgrounds with them when joining a new organization, these members have to learn and to adapt to the language used during the operations within the organization. Language in

that sense is also a significant element of organizational culture that introduces new members with 'what things mean' and 'how to do things'. Using the same language creates the senses of belonging, togetherness and identification towards the organization within members. This also reveals that language is unique to an organization; it is an undeniable fact that even two organizations performing similar operations within the same sector have different languages in terms of jargon, in-jokes, metaphors and so on. Language, as many other elements of culture, can be subjected to change over time. In that case, language is both partly a historical component of culture and a dynamic feature of it that.

### 1.3. Levels of Organizational Culture

While some of the literature reveals a tendency towards laying out several elements of organizational culture, there are also approaches that combine elements of culture into layers. These layers are generated via an inductive method; starting from more general and visible through more specific and implicit notions.

Two well-known models are illustrated above:

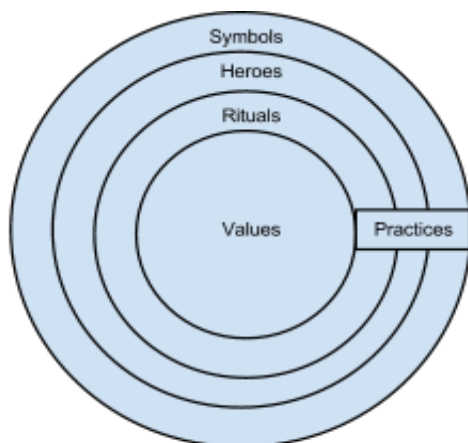


Figure 1. Hofstede's (2003) 'Onion Diagram': manifestations of culture at different levels of depth (p.9).

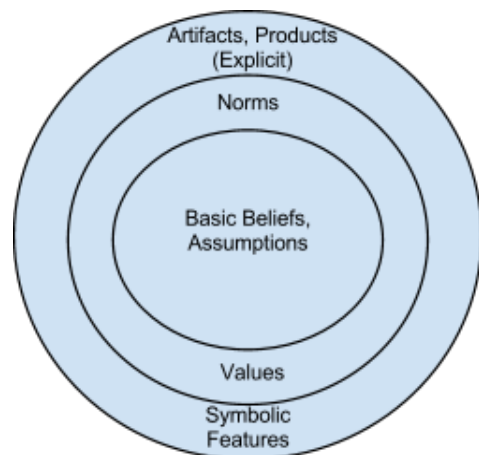
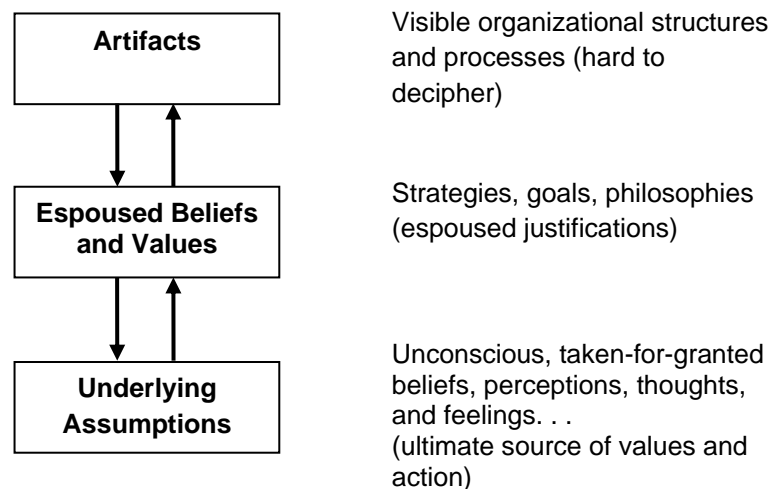


Figure 2. Trompenaar's Layers of Culture (as cited in Uzunoglu, Onat, Alikılıç and Çakır, 2009, p.29)

These two figures show an 'onion model'; which reveals that the deeper into the cycle, the implicit the elements are. In Hofstede's model, stemming from the core element 'values'; rituals, heroic figures and superficial symbols (such as logos, buildings of organization etc.) are formed. These upper layers of culture are supported by actual practices; that is how people know or feel the culture within an organization but cannot easily decipher it. Underlying values are hard to observe as they are inscribed within the upper layers. For example, if one attentively listens to founder of an organization's speech at the opening of a new building at the opening ceremony, he/she can sense the fragments of organizational values when observing the rhetoric of the founder, paying attention to which beliefs and assumptions are underlined implicitly or explicitly, observing in detail the architecture of the building and the ceremony itself. All practices; of the leader, about the rituals and ceremonies, mission statements and so on, embody the core values within an organization. However, while "they are visible to an outside observer; their cultural meaning, however, is invisible and lies precisely and only in the way these practices are interpreted by the insiders" (Hofstede, 2003, p.8).

Likewise, in Trompenaar's culture model, basic beliefs and assumptions are at the heart of organizational culture. These basic beliefs and assumptions are based on acquired experiences and solutions to problems. Values and norms; the 'correct' (morally and ethically) and standard ways of behaving and responding to organizational issues are built on top of these acquired knowledge and experience. At the end, symbolic features such as mission statements, annual reports,

architecture and design related to the organization, even the products and services the organization provides are concentrated within the top layer of culture; as in Hofstede’s model, employing the core assumptions and beliefs.



**Figure 3.** Schein’s levels of culture, adapted from *Organizational Culture and Leadership* (2004), p. 26.

Third well-known model is Schein’s (2004) ‘levels of culture’; which implies “the degree to which the cultural phenomenon is visible to the observer” (p.25). Similar to the onion models, Schein also argues that culture is built from superficial artifacts that are explicitly presented to embedded values and basic assumptions that are implicitly perceived; “These levels range from the very tangible overt manifestations that one can see and feel to the deeply embedded, unconscious, basic assumptions that [I am] defining as the essence of culture” (p.25). His model, from overt to covert, from observable to deeply felt elements, define levels of culture as (1) artifacts, (2) espoused beliefs and values, and (3) basic assumptions. In the

subsections, each level of culture will be explained in detail; as artifacts in particular will be at the locus of study.

### 1.3.1. Artifacts

In Chapter 1.2.2, visible elements of organizational culture were defined in detail. Those elements, including a few others that are not mentioned, are positioned within the level artifacts. Coined by many dictionary definitions, an artifact can be identified as something that is produced by human action; that has a specific aim for existence and has an observable, physical presence (Brown, 1998). Schein (2004) uses the word artifact to identify phenomena that can be spotted by senses such as seeing, hearing or feeling when joining a group and facing an unfamiliar culture; he includes many visible products of a group such as architecture, language, technology, style regarding clothing, manners of address, way of emotional reacting, myths and stories, rituals, ceremonies, publicly listed values, organizational charts and so on. Indeed, many of the practices and tangible material regarding an organization's culture can be observable to anyone who encounters with the organization. Even though it is argued that even the most superficial layers of culture (such as symbols, names, words, gestures, signs and so on) cannot be recognized by those who are not familiar with the culture from within (Hofstede, 2004), artifacts which incorporate many meanings and symbols within its scope, are deemed as observable, visible products of culture.

For the study of the artifacts; experts, who deal with organizational culture and the research of it, have taken two different approaches. One approach suggests that artifacts are just at the superficial level of organizational culture, which can be seen, heard and felt but cannot be deciphered in the correct way by an “outsider” and therefore research based on artifacts are not sufficient enough to represent an organization’s culture (Hofstede 2003; Schein, 2004; Keyton, 2005); while another approach looks positively to the study of artifacts by saying that even though they are on the manifest level, as they stem from the deeper values and assumptions, they are also important reflections of organizational culture and therefore their power of revealing organizational culture should not be underestimated (Brown, 1998; Rafaeli and Pratt, 2005; Overbeeke and Snizek, 2005). Schein (2004) offers three accounts for the reasons of not advising scholars and practitioners to study artifacts alone: (1) outsiders may be able to describe what they observe, but they cannot be able to decipher what the artifacts mean for the group, (2) researcher who investigates the culture of the group should be experiencing same larger culture in order to be able to infer from what symbols mean for the group and deduce the cultural values and assumption lying beneath, and (3) it is dangerous for the researcher to reach conclusions for values and assumptions by studying only artifacts; since ones who study artifacts will be projecting their own feelings and reactions, there will be a cluster of incomparable interpretations coming from different accounts which are full of biases that will not truly reflect an organization’s culture. Indeed, Schein, as a counselor to many national and multinational corporations, draws attention to an important handicap for students and researchers of organizational culture. He believes in the method of what he calls

“clinical research”, one that observers actually do participant observation long enough to feel and see what they experience, and that they report their day-to-day actions and practices while including their emotional displays and their way of expressing their feelings on understanding what organizational culture resonates within them. On the other hand, it is also argued that artifacts can guide researchers to explain the nature of an organizational culture since there is linkage between deeper levels of culture (Brown, 1998). This study, as it deals with official web sites of universities as organizations, will be based on the artifacts level of culture. The implications of studying artifacts for this study will be explained also in limitations of research in Chapter 4.4.

### 1.3.2. Espoused Beliefs and Values

The slight difference between beliefs and values are hard to distinguish; in literature they are used either interchangeably or consistently as they are positioned at the same level of cultural analysis. Values are strategies, goals, principles or qualities that are deemed as ideal or desirable; therefore they produce guidelines for organizational behavior (Keyton, 2005); they are in connection with ethical and moral issues and they draw the lines for what organizational members ought to do and not to do (Brown, 1998). Values within an organization provide an insight to what is acceptable and affirmed by organizational members on all levels; within and across structural units. Values can be considered as a handbook on what principles are of virtue and of importance. Among the key values of many organizations, there are associations with prestige, wealth, control, authority,



ambition, pleasure, independence, equality, tolerance, respect, commitment, politeness, harmony, teamwork, innovation, justice, honesty, integrity, cooperation, openness, rationality, quality, “customer comes first” and so on (Brown, 1998; Terzi, 2000; Keyton, 2005; Vural, 2012). Beliefs on the other hand, are indicators of what organizational members think something is true or not (Brown, 1998). Beliefs and values are categorized more or less under the same level because they assist each other in organizational behavior, in the sense that beliefs on what is true or not are underlined by insights on what should or should not be done and vice versa.

It can be argued that at the core of organizational culture there are espoused beliefs and values, since they are the first steps towards the formation of culture. As well as other models do, Schein (2004) also explains the emergence of culture with values, beliefs and leadership. Each group, through their journey of organizational formation, goes through phases and stages that are loaded with problems and obstacles which the group has to overcome. In any group, a leading figure naturally steps forward with the qualities of vision, rhetoric and commitment. The first values and beliefs of the group are therefore constructed upon the initial assumptions of one(s) who are influential on others. At this stage, Schein argues that values and beliefs can be questioned since the group has not experienced such a situation before and has not developed a shared approach to it; group members have the opportunity to challenge the ideas proposed. If the leading figure’s own beliefs and assumptions succeed in solving the problem (possibly more than once), these beliefs and values spring from personal level to shared level. In the end, what happens is that these beliefs and values initially introduced and proposed by the

leader, turn into basic assumptions that are taken for granted in time and they are no longer 'values to be discussed' but 'values to be internalized'. Values and beliefs that pass the stage of questioning and testing, start to be viewed by other members of organization not as expressions of individual beliefs, but as assertion of the leader's values to be taken to heart (Brown, 1998). Schein (2004) also argues that there are some values and beliefs which are not to be questioned after the process of social validation; that is the internal acceptance and reinforcement stage that members have to go through by shared social experiences on values regarding aesthetic and moral issues. This stage also helps to test the level to which members are comfortable with the values and which members are going to be naturally excluded from the group. After social validation, organizational members which are fine with the values and beliefs proposed remain within the organizational structure and they start to abide by the steady values and beliefs.

Values are shared opinions that reveal what is desired within an organization and they are reflections of the underlying basic assumptions that actually drive all other levels of organizational culture (Terzi, 2000). The problem with the study of espoused beliefs and values is that those are not easy to identify just as artifacts are; they remain unconscious to even the ones who abide by these values and beliefs and they are not easy to decipher only by observation of outsiders; they can only be inferred by watching how people act and react under specific circumstances. In addition, while interpreting values and beliefs, researcher must be able to distinguish what is *desirable* and *desired*. (Hofstede, 2004). For example, questionnaires and surveys are one way to approach group members for

their opinions on values and beliefs of the organization they are in mutual connection with. Members may therefore choose to answer in the way that is deemed desirable by the organization, not in the way that desire to behave under such circumstances. Another problem with the values and beliefs can be their actual validity within the organization. Schein (2004) argues that mission statements and philosophies of an organization may reflect one thing while actually implementing another. While there are many statements which are in line with the accepted values and beliefs, they may also turn out to be aspirations and initially intended objectives that have never been realized since they are in many cases “so abstract that they can be mutually contradictory” (p. 30). Thus, these two obstacles that researchers must avoid, again brings one to the method he proposes as clinical research; that only observers which get involved with the organization for some time, can acquire the ability to decipher values and beliefs which are not overtly stated but only acted out. Schein (2004) furthermore argues that even getting at the level of espoused beliefs and values are not adequate to understand an organization’s culture fully since those are not actually deployed by members or so abstract that members cannot fully comprehend and abide by them.

### 1.3.3. Basic Assumptions

Basic assumptions constitute the deepest level of organizational culture that links all other levels of culture directly or indirectly; consciously or unconsciously. Schein (2004) defines his most reserved level as taken for granted solutions to a specific problem that have been encountered before. In order to become a basic

assumption, a proposed solution has to go through the several stages of testing and challenging; and in the end there must be a consensus among the members that 'this is the right way' to overcome the problem. After basic assumptions go through these stages, they become unquestioned elements of culture. As they are nondiscussible, they are also resistant to change. Keyton (2005) argues that assumptions set guidelines for how members of a group ought to perceive, think, feel and act; furthermore as these deeply held assumptions are not articulated very often, it is very difficult to change these rooted presuppositions and very difficult to detect them as they are very subtle and covert. Brown (1998) as well indicates that beliefs and assumptions should be distinguished from each other in three distinct ways: (1) beliefs are held intentionally and easier to observe, but assumptions are at the unconscious level and therefore they are very hard to detect, (2) beliefs are to be confronted, challenged and tested; whereas assumptions have acquired the status of being 'nondiscussible', and (3) beliefs are cognitive and rather non-complex compared to assumptions; on the other hand assumptions are not just interpretation of beliefs but also a multifaceted framework that includes also values and emotions. In that sense, he defines basic assumptions as "preconscious, non-confrontable and highly complex aspects of human group psychology" (p.28).

Schein (2004) proposes that once groups acquire a set of basic assumptions, they become more comfortable with the organizational culture surrounding them; since "culture as a set of basic assumptions defines for us what to pay attention to, what things mean, how to react emotionally to what is going on, and what actions to take in various kinds of situations" (p.32). Indeed, that is why a newly joined

member feels the anxiety of not having clues about organizational culture; once he/she adapts oneself to the organization by engaging in communication and starts to perceive how others think, what they mean, how to behave and so on, he/she abandons the feeling of being an 'outsider' and begins to learn how to fit within the organizational structure. Low anxiety levels of members therefore increase the performance of organizational members and productivity within the organization.

Basic assumptions are the 'essence of culture' whereas other surface levels are subsequent to these deeply rooted sets of how to think and feel; therefore getting familiar with the deeper levels of culture will truly reveals how the organizational culture is. Only after figuring out basic assumptions, one may be able to decipher other surface levels and the elements that are engaged within them, Schein (2004) argues. Keyton (2005) further argues that the sole path to decipher organizational members' assumptions and values is through observing their day-to-day communication with insiders and outsiders of the organization; thus artifacts at the manifest level become clearer to the observer through participant observation, after fully comprehending what their underlying assumptions about the course of actions are. Basic assumptions and values are not under the scope of this dissertation, since it will be taking an inventory on how universities as organizations use their official web sites as an outlook of their accounts regarding organizational culture.

## CHAPTER II

### ORGANIZATIONAL CULTURE AND COMMUNICATION

Communication by its very own dynamic nature, have continuously been a transformative agent on administrative, economic and social structures within public sector, business world and the society in general. Starting with the common use of computers and the extension of internet use, there occurred a fast conversion from data to information. In the case of organizations, this new configuration have restructured decision-making processes, organizational structures and how business is conducted (Drucker, 1999). As a symbol of social development, information is seen as a new global power that enables social, economic, cultural and political integration through the assistance of information and communication technologies. With regard to the new conditions, today's global formation is frequently identified as *Information Society or Knowledge Society*<sup>4</sup>. As every social transformation had brought about new modes of production and economic consequences, Information Society has redefined economic policies and

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<sup>4</sup> The two concepts of *Information Society* and *Knowledge Society* are frequently used interchangeably in literature. However, Castells (2010) defines information as "communication of knowledge" (p. 21); in the sense that knowledge is based on facts, ideas, judgments and results that can be transferred to others via communication whereas information is considered as transmittable data. In this thesis, information will be used instead of knowledge.

there emerged a brand new understanding of information/knowledge economy. In the global and competitive information economy, organizations have to correspond to the demand for communication through new media technologies – mainly the Internet. In the organizational context, Internet provides a relatively low-cost and fast opportunity to communicate with various stakeholders regardless of time and space. Therefore, one of primary official channels of organizations has become organizational web sites which help to sustain competitive advantage and efforts of mutual communication. Through official web sites, organizations have also acquired a chance for openly communicating their organizational cultures to their stakeholders. Information and communication technologies have brought about significant changes to the organizational structures; therefore this chapter will introduce the concept of Information Society and its connection with communication, how World Wide Web have evolved worldwide and in Turkey, significance of official web sites as artifacts of organizational culture and what basic characteristics of official web sites are in terms of content and web appearance.

## 2.1. The Rise of Information Society

Information Society is a concept introduced by several scholars and writers following rapid developments of information and communication technologies. At the very base of this concept there lie basic computing technologies. Even though Internet and the World Wide Web have been the leading services of Information Society, the roots of this notion can be actually traced back until 1960s, when computing was a service limited to industrial, military and research purposes

(Hirst & Harrison, 2007). Indeed, it took approximately thirty years for the general use of Internet to take place worldwide and be realized as a cutting-edge phenomenon. In that sense, it is important to convey the historical process leading to today's Information Society through cultural, social, economic and political perspectives.

Beyond any doubt, it can be argued that today's all developed countries and many among developing countries have entered the level of post-industrial or information age. As this new era is defined, mainly two notions are taken into account; first one is cultural and social aspects of societies, the other one is new (cultural, political and economic) human capital and modes of production. In industrial societies, main source of capital was actual labor force of man power. Manuel Castells (2010) defines an industrial society as such:

“[An industrial society] is not just a society where there is industry, but a society where the social and technological forms of industrial organization permeate all spheres of activity, starting with the dominant activities, located in the economic system and in military technology, and reaching the objects and habits of everyday life” (p. 21).

In that sense, economic systems, technologies and (cultural) everyday life practices cannot be dissociated from industrial structures. For today's societies, there exist many denominations: post-Fordist society, post-industrial society, information society, knowledge society, post-capitalist society, network society and such.



Regardless of how this new notion is called, what is stressed in all definitions is that today's economic and cultural capital has become information itself. Given the pace of developments in microelectronics, information and communication systems, information has become a transferrable and shareable property. Another important aspect of this vision is that human mind has emerged as a new associate of this source of capital. Parallel to the rise of information as an active economic agent of production, members of this new era has become significant actors as well. Given that Marshall McLuhan (2004) has defined media technologies as "extensions of man" many years back from the rise of information and communication technologies, it can clearly be argued that today's cultural and social capital has evolved into a complex mix of human mind, knowledge and skills and transferrable information.

Identified by many scholars and writers, there are basic characteristics of Information Society. Even though information society as a concept recalls other rhetorics, mainly globalization and networking, it does not detach itself from locality. On the contrary, Information Society embraces the togetherness of similarities and differences. Thus, one of the key characteristics of Information Society is the networked relations between the local and the global (Castells, 2010). Hence, it can be argued that every nation-state and its related organizations go through different forms of informational societies; yet these societies show parallelisms with each other. Mainly, the leap from industrial society to information society was identified in many cases as the abandonment of material consumption and mass production and the embracement of human intellectual creativity

(Masuda, 1981). Similarly, Giddens (2006) argues that people of Information Society have gained a global outlook and assumed local cultural identities that are based on technological literacy and an eager perspective of integrating new technologies into their everyday lives. In this case, Information Age refers to a new social structure that is defined between net and the self (Castells, 2010).

The special reference and emphasis to human intellectual capacity and appreciation of individuality is one of the basic characteristics of members of Information Society. This stress on the individual has significant consequences on organizational structures. Both on the national levels and private or public organizations, members of the Information Age demand for knowledge and participation. As active citizens, people of the Information Society have adopted awareness for quality, price and speed rather than being unresponsive consumers (Sayimer, 2008). Within an age led by information and communication technologies, organizations on all levels have to adapt themselves to the interests of the general public, who have become more equipped with intellectual capacity and technological literacy more than ever. As people have become conscious about technologic innovations and management of information, both nation-states and global/local organizations have to correspond to the organizational change demanded by the Information Age; this will result in the superiority of organizations which are more susceptible to and compatible with new world order (Bengshir, 1996). In that sense, competitive advantage becomes one of the key points of this new social structure. The rising role of information as a strategic value drives both societies and organizations in the way of investing in service sector (education being

one of the fundamental units of demanded services) and research and development projects (Sayimer, 2008). As information has become strategically important and has affiliated itself with human intellectual capacity, within an age of constant development in information and communication technologies, there also arises the need for human capital that has been enhanced with qualified education. Combined with the impact of global competitiveness, higher education institutions among educational systems have been highly affected by the new 'quality' demand of Information Age. What is significant on the quality issue is that just as other organizations and sectors are affected by globalization of demands, education systems and institutions are also evaluated under the same structure of economic policies. In that sense, the anxiety for education and knowledge being reduced to a commodity of markets becomes central to debate. Changes in the organizational structures of universities on the political and economic base will be evaluated in the later chapters.

Information Society and globalization are two notions that have harmoniously infiltrated cultural, social, economic and political mindset. Networking logic of information and communication technologies have thus resulted in such consequences:

- Social transformation; the transition from industrial society to Information Society,
- Sectoral transformation; service sector gaining importance rather than production sector,

- Information becoming the most important power,
- Education taking on a new significance,
- Significance of the individual,
- Emergence of new occupational groups,
- Increasing global competitiveness,
- Nation-states losing power,
- Change and changing organizations (Akolaş, 2000, p. 38).

As it is described above, information and communication technologies have transformed societies in a pace that have never been encountered before. Considering that these technologies have been employed by developed countries such as United States, Japan and West European countries long ago in both industrial and service sectors, it is projected that developing countries such as Turkey will follow the lead and transform into information societies. As disseminators and producers of information, educational institutions will be highly affected from these rapid developments. It can clearly be observed that there is a steady increase of demand for higher education and educational institutions as public organizations are in a transition period in order to correspond to the requirements of Information Age and demands from the society. Indeed, universities have been the leading figures of computing and communication technology both worldwide and in Turkey. Thus, it is important to reveal the rise of internet and the role of higher education institutions in the acceleration of information and communication technologies in the process.

## 2.2. The Emergence of Internet and World Wide Web

Since 1990s, Internet has been a pervasive communication tool in our everyday lives. With the help of rapid developments in microelectronics, information and communication technologies are now dominating many fields of work and they have changed how information is handled and caused many social and economic changes. Even though today's relevant technologies of WWW and Web 2.0. are getting outdated with the debates of Web 3.0. (technologies that will converge virtuality and reality, highly dependent on personalization), the fast-shifting technologies should not divert attention to the roots of Internet and computing technologies. Emerging in the United States, networked communication and data transfer systems have been founded for the military research. Until 1990s, these technologies were not accessible to general public. Therefore, it is important to highlight the active agents that played a significant role in the dissemination and generalization of information and communication technologies as a civil service.

Internet as a term is defined as "a vast computer network linking smaller computer networks worldwide" (Dictionary.com, 2012). Through Internet, billions of users for different purposes are interconnected regardless of their locality. As a network, Internet serves for commercial, governmental, educational, military, private and public purposes and enables the transmission of data and information through computers and other devices of communication. The term is originated from the synthesis of *international* and *ARPANET*. The very first computer network ARPANET was founded by American military establishment ARPA (US Defense

Department's Advanced Research Projects Agency). Emerged as a circumstance of Cold War period, ARPA aimed to develop a communications system that would be immune to possible nuclear attacks. After experimental projects, ARPA transformed into a structure that funded research projects that aimed to interlink computer networks with the objectives of exchanging information between research centers that conducted ARPA projects and link users in the network to share computer resources (Slevin, 2003). After networking logic of communication systems and information storage was experimented in ARPA-funded research centers, ARPANET was finally launched in 1969. Four networking centers that constituted ARPANET were University of California, Los Angeles, Stanford Research Institute, University of California, Santa Barbara, and University of Utah; in which scientists of all fields also acquired access to conduct scientific communication (Castells, 2010). This open structure of ARPANET which was shared by military and scientific purposes was preserved until 1983. The backbone of network was then split into two separate branches, MILNET which would serve for military purposes and ARPANET continuing to serve scientific research needs. In 1986, National Science Foundation of United States (NSF) introduced a new backbone NSFNET. This plurality of networks redefined the use of networking communications and during 1980s it was called ARPA-INTERNET, later to be coined as the Internet (Castells, 2010). Meanwhile, growing demand for commercial use of Internet was discussed in various conferences conducted by NSF in 1988. Finally, by the ventures of computing and communication companies such as IBM, AT&T and MCI Communications, the privatization of networking backbones started. In 1990, ARPANET was taken out of service and in 1995, last governmentally operated backbone NSFNET was closed.

Since 1995, most of the internet traffic is carried by commercial enterprises (Slevin, 2003).

### 2.2.1. World Wide Web and Beyond

First users of the Internet were universities, research centers and libraries which were connected through Internet service providers and controlled by computers. Throughout the development of Internet and communication technologies, it can be observed that universities, research centers and commercial computing and communication enterprises have played a significant role. However, it is the World Wide Web (WWW) that enabled easy access and exchange of information. Even though the Internet and WWW is often used interchangeably, WWW is an Internet-based technology that enabled global distribution of text, images, sound and other informational resources. Developed in CERN (European Laboratory for Particle Physics) in 1990, WWW introduced a new technology that would later make it mainstream in the society; which simplified the location and retrieval of information through an easy content search system (Castells, 2010). Coined as the founders of the Internet, Tim Berners-Lee and Robert Cailliau of CERN developed a system for “storing, retrieving and communicating information based on a web of hyperlinks and hypertext” (Slevin, 2003, p. 37), that furthermore supported multiple users accessing and locating same information at the same time. Hyperlinking and hypertext required a global language of WWW, called as HTML (Hypertext Markup Language). Hypertexts can include texts, images, sounds, videos, animations and other informational data that can be stored in WWW and linked to

web pages. Hyperlinking can point out to hypertexts that are stored in WWW, regardless of its physical storage in a single computer. It consists of data related to the location of the hypertexts. This basic structure led to the emergence of text-based web pages that would later be coined as Web 1.0 technologies. Through browsing systems and computer hardware founded by enterprises such as Netscape and Microsoft, the use of WWW have increased in a rapid way. After WWW and the use of personal computers have pervasively entered everyday life, profit and non-profit organizations started to use web sites for advertising, communication and public relations purposes.

Web 1.0. technology was relatively long standing; with its networking of information storage and location it served as a global publishing tool. In 2004, Web 2.0 as a term was coined by Tim O'Reilly, indicating to a new understanding of the Internet as a tool for many- to-many communication, cooperation and participation (Fuchs, 2008). Today, Web 2.0 technologies that assist user interaction and communicatively generated content are disseminated not only through personal computers but also by many mobile devices such as laptops, smartphones and tablets. There are even emerging debates of Web 3.0 technologies that will enable artificial intelligence of computing systems. It is estimated that around 2015, today's semantic web insight that remembers personal tastes and preferences on the web will evolve into efficient reasoning and analyzing systems (Garland, 2011; Nations, 2012). However, these new technologies do not declare the end of basic web sites; instead, today's web sites are designed to incorporate both Web 1.0 and Web 2.0 technologies. Interactive, relevant, current and well-managed web content



and web appearance are crucial for today's modern web design. In that case, web sites still bare important aspects of study; therefore two main qualities of official web sites, web content and web appearance, will be dealt in later sections of this chapter.

### 2.2.2. The Evolution of Internet in Turkey

Turkey is one of the most interesting figures of Internet use and demand worldwide. In a period of transformation from industrial society to Information Society, Turkey has taken swift steps forward and information and communication technologies are pervasively entering our everyday lives day by day. First step taken towards the flourishing of Internet in Turkey is the establishment of the network TÜVAKA (Network of Turkish Universities and Research Institutions) in 1986. This wide area network was provided by European Academic and Research Network and BITNET (Because It's Time Network) and used by METU (Middle East Technical University). In the following years, the network was found insufficient in terms of capacity and advanced technology; therefore METU and TÜBİTAK (The Scientific and Technical Research Council of Turkey) started a cooperative project for a Turkish network (Sayımer, 2008). In April 12, 1993, first global connection to the Internet was established through METU network. In 1995, the initial Internet connection speed of 64 kbps was doubled to 128 kbps (Ulakbim, 2012). Sole connection of METU was followed by other state and foundation universities; Ege University in 1994, Bilkent University in 1995, Boğaziçi University in 1995, İstanbul Technical University in 1996, East Mediterranean University in 1997; by October 1997, 39

universities were incorporated within ULAKNET (Ulusal Akademik Ağ), that aimed to interconnect all education and research institutions (Sayımer, 2008; Ulakbim, 2012). In 1999, a new service provider named TNet was founded and Turkey had a two-tailed network of ULAKNET and TNet (İnternet Arşivi METU, 2012).

First Turkish internet web sites were METU and Bilkent University's web sites; on the other hand, profit organizations' and household reach was realized in 1996 (Sosyal Medya Türkiye, 2010). Today with the emergence of other private service providers and mobile internet service providers, %41.6 of Turkish households (average of urban and rural access) have access to the Internet through wired, wireless and mobile connection (DPT, 2011). In the case of organizations, as information and communication technologies have invaded everyday lives and economic processes, Internet presence has become a vital element of communication. Universities, as leading figures of the evolution of Internet both in Turkey and worldwide, need to provide their stakeholders with professionally designed and managed, interactive web sites. Basic characteristics of official web sites will be evaluated in the latter sections and significance of official web sites in the university context will be presented in Chapter 3.6.

### 2.3. Web Sites as Artifacts of Organizational Culture

Up to this point, this study dealt with the issues of culture, organization, organizational culture; its elements and levels and the rise of Internet. This section devotes special attention to one of the most important components of

organizational culture in today's highly networked and information-driven societies; web sites as artifacts of organizational culture. As organizational culture started to occupy an important position as an area of study for theorists and practitioners and became a commonplace within the society, its communication has also taken a new significance for the organizations. In today's information-driven societies, people want to reach information at any time, from any place within seconds. Web sites therefore serve as sources of information for all publics involved (or could possibly be involved) in the organizational structure. For example, web sites used to be targeted mainly at the end user since it was thought that for the most part, existing or prospective consumers of an organizational body use the Internet - organization's official web sites in particular - as a basis of information about products and services. Regarding organizational web content and design nowadays, other publics such as prospective employees are taken into account when generating specific content; Internet recruitment has therefore become an important phenomenon in organizational studies (Braddy, Thompson, Wuensch and Grossnickle, 2003; Braddy, Meade and Kroustalis, 2008; Walker, Feild, Giles, Bernerth and Short, 2011; Chen, Lin and Chen, 2012). When considered from this point of view, communicating the organizational culture to external and internal stakeholders of the organization is of vital importance. Official web sites of organizations therefore provide a space for representing the organization to external and internal publics and offer an opportunity for the organization to share and communicate their organizational cultures and the values attached to them, implementations, principles and philosophies, strategies, tactics and so on. (Uzunoglu, Onat, Alikılıç and Çakır, 2009) Official web sites, in accordance with the

area they provide products and/or services, should be designed with a professional eye and must be rich and relevant in content. This chapter will cover the basic characteristics of official web sites in terms of content and web appearance.

### 2.3.1. Basic Characteristics of an Official Web Site

Official web sites are one of the most important tools for displaying an organization's culture to internal and external publics. As they are externally communicated features of an organization, they must be managed in a professional manner. Even though web sites in different sectors vary in terms of content and design in relation to their purposes of existence, a professionally designed and communicated web site plays a key role in relationship building and maintaining with various publics (Sayimer, 2008). Ten to fifteen years earlier, using the Internet and official web sites as a channel for organizational communication was generally advised to organizations by futurists and counselors. Looking at the current situation, in today's World Wide Web, it seems as if there are no organizations *without* a web site. What becomes more of an issue nowadays is managing the content and creating distinguishable design. Web sites as distinctive artifacts of organizational culture are both crucial in communicating elements of culture to both internal and external stakeholders and gaining competitive advantage.

Upon these discussions, there arises the questions of; in what ways web sites are significant for the organization, and what the main aims of official web sites are. An earlier commentary on the aims of a web site explains the

phenomenon as (1) a means of communication between individuals and groups, (2) a tool for providing online access to members of organization internally; such as indexing and having directories, and (3) a tool for self-representing and marketing of an organization (Middleton, McConnell and Davidson, 1999). Indeed, Internet as a medium emerged from the need to establish communication between individuals and groups. The very first web sites provided useful information to internal units of organizations, serving as a database. As Internet technologies evolved in such great pace, individuals started to gain access to the Internet and eventually web sites needed to transform themselves into presentational and promotional tools of an organization.

Nearly ten years after this quite visionary article that foresaw the potential of web sites becoming primary sources of externally communicated information, main aims of organizational web sites were redefined as demands from the Internet by users on levels have changed. Through a fast transformation, the focus moved from having a web site as a provider of visibility and quality for an organization; to the need for creating and maintaining 'dialogic communication' via the web site (Kent and Taylor, 1998). Redefined aims of web sites are therefore (1) ease of interface, (2) usefulness of information to media publics, (3) usefulness of information to customers, (4) usefulness of information to investors, (5) usefulness of information to internal audiences, (6) conservation of visitors, (7) generation of return visits, and (8) dialogic loop (Park and Reber, 2008, p. 410). Thus, primary aims of a web site can be summarized as providing relevant and up-to-date information to stakeholders, attracting prospective visitors to the organizational

web site, creating and maintaining relationships with the current visitors and attaining returning visitors. Relationship building with visitors and having them visit the organizational web site multiple times increases the chances of generating positive opinion towards the organization. It is important to note that there is a direct linkage between the organization and the way of presentation of information on the organizational web site (Uzunoğlu, Onat, Alikılıç and Çakır, 2009). The better an organization presents itself via web, the more successful it will be at attracting the attention of the stakeholders (Middleton, McConnell and Davidson, 1999). Thus, content and web appearance of an organizational web site must be explained in detail.

#### 2.3.1.1 Official Web Site and Content

An official web site's content mainly reflects what is expected from the web site in general; content related to the products and services organization offers to provide, information on the organization and its founder(s), contact information, links to other useful web sites, infographics on the products and services and so on. In earlier stages of web technologies, generating content for the web site was thought to be an easy task just as preparing a flyer or brochure for the organization. Sayimer (2008) as well argues that establishing a web site only for the sake of competing with other organizations in terms of 'having one web site just like others do' and proceeding without any specific objectives is one of the worst things that can happen to an organization's reputation. Therefore, web site content ought to be generated in accordance with the organizational values and objectives. Official

web site and its content must be managed, monitored, controlled and updated by organizational communication departments or directors, who are as well responsible from the web site and its communication with the publics just as they are accountable for other organizational material such as flyers, catalogues, commercials, annual reports (van der Geest, 2001; Sayimer, 2008).

Levine (2004) has unfolded common characteristics of web site content in terms of organizations: (1) name of organization, address and other contact information, (2) presenting the organization's field of activity, (3) information and photos of products of a business enterprise, (4) information and graphics on services of an organization providing services, (5) links to other web sites regarding the field of activity or the sector, (6) a specifically placed box of purchasing order - if there is the opportunity for selling products online, (7) search box where the users can easily see it and search information within the web site, and (8) segmented information on organization's stakeholders - including the media in particular. Press releases, photos, contacts for media relations, an online newsroom are among the commonalities of organizational web sites. In addition, Hasan and Abuelrub (2011) proposes that content within a web site should be timely, relevant, accurate, objective; be available in different languages and be presented in a variety (image, sound, video, text and so forth) and be credible in the sense that it should provide visitors with the information on the organization and the opportunity to contact the organization. Consequently, it can be asserted that content within the official web sites of organizations must be organized professionally by communication specialists, presenting a vast amount of information in the most orderly way

possible. People who are responsible for the design of the web site must work in cooperation with people who create and manage the content.

#### 2.3.1.2. Official Web Site and Web Appearance

Web appearance refers to both the visible elements of a web site and the professionally created web design. Visible elements can also be related to web site content; but whenever the strategic selection and positioning of these elements become more of an issue, it is better to incorporate them into web appearance. Web content and web design must be aligned; therefore, web appearance is one of the junction points where content managers - who should be among communication specialists - have to work in cooperation with professional web designers. As web design requires technical knowledge and skills, organizations should consult to either professionals outside the organization or in-house information technologies specialists; moreover, producers of content should be public relations practitioners (Sayimer, 2008).

Even though there exists guides on how to create *ideal* web pages, it is very hard to identify standards and prerequisites for web page development; given the dynamic nature of web technologies (Robbins and Stylianou, 2003). The word *ideal* is redefined everyday in many online articles on Internet technologies, in books regarding web design and development and so on. Web sites are nowadays generally rated not on an ideal basis, but on some commonalities of appeal and quality. Regarding web appearance, Sayimer (2008) has compiled results of



research on official web sites and indicates the commonly accepted, basic characteristics to be taken into consideration while constructing an organizational web site. These are mainly (1) first impression, (2) speed and (3) navigation (p.91-2).

When typed into the address bar or into a search engine, the very first glimpse one gets of an organizational web site is the main page. The first impression is very much important to a new visitor of a web site because that is where and when one mainly decides to hit the close button or not. There are specialized analyses made on new visitors providing detailed information on how frequently visitors return to a web site within a time period and how many days it takes for them to visit the web site again (Google Analytics, 2012). These frequency and recency analyses indicate that either web site may be targeted at the wrong audiences, or content and design features may not be appealing and user-friendly enough to encourage returning visitors. The point where returning visitors are acquired mostly is the main page of the web site. In that case, main pages should be presented as professionally as possible; meanwhile it should be appealing to all stakeholders that may be prospective visitors. There is a challenge in designing a web site that equally subsumes the interest of each stakeholder. For example, approaching the case of university web sites, they should appeal to current and candidate students in all levels that the university provides education for; to its employees, both administrative and academic staff; to external publics such as other universities and their staff, legislative bodies, media and so on. It is essential for the web appearance, especially the main page, to be attractive at the first glance for a new visitor and to be built on a strategy that will increase visitors' interest in

other pages of the web site as well (Sayımer, 2008). In that case, web appearance, as well as content, must be strategically imagined and realized by a team of web and communication professionals.

Speed is another issue in close connection with web appearance. In web-related terms, it refers to the amount of time visitors have to wait until the page of the web site they want to view is fully loaded. Speed was attributed to two different matters related to a user's experience; on the one hand it was about the speed of connection that users had, on the other it was associated with the actual load of the web page. Ever since broadband connections such as cable access, DSL, ADSL, VDSL and optical fiber systems became widespread all around most regions of the world, half of the problem about the user connection seems to be resolved. In today's insights, it is important not to overload the web design and content within the pages so that users can easily access and surf several pages of web sites. While making considerations about web appearance, it is essential to balance the appeal of the combination of images, graphics and texts with the loading speed of the pages. Among other pages, main page's speed is worth paying attention to, since speed of the main page is also important for the first impression of newly visiting users. For this reason, it is advised for the main page of official web sites to have minimal amount of texts and graphics that take too long to load (Sayımer, 2008).

Ease of navigation is one of the main qualities sought in professional web appearance. Navigation of a web site should be basic and simple for all users and should be functional. It should be based on a consistent system of outlook so that

visitors of the page can figure out the operation logic of each web page and the overall web site. Spending too much time and effort, going back and forth between pages in order to get information will drive away visitors from coming back to the web site. In order to keep the visitors interested in the web site, number of links used within the web site should be managed in number and through grouping them in categories; links should be clear and explanatory on where it will take the visitor to; links should be visible and functional in the sense that every web page has a specific link to it; minimal clicking should get the visitor to where he/she wants to reach; navigation should be consistent and visitors should easily find where they are, either through special markings or site maps that provides visitors with an inventory of pages within the web site and so on (Sayımer, 2008; Webpage Mistakes, 2012). Through consistency, coherence and repetition within the navigation system, official web sites gain the opportunity to be appealing to all stakeholders.

### 2.3.2. Official Web Site and Organizational Culture

Internet presence of an organization has become an essentiality for organizations in recent years. Organizational web sites provide a space for organizations that is unbound from time and actual space; moreover they fairly cost a lot less than other purchased spaces where organizations can present themselves. Web sites have become somewhat like an online business card that both provides stakeholders with organizational information such as corporate phone numbers, address, emails and so on; moreover just as a business card does, web sites have

been attributed to have certain stances that make them distinguishable among others. In that sense, web sites can be considered among artifacts of organizational culture since they also embed elements related with organizational identity, values and assumptions.

An organizational web site can be an organization's implicit potential for providing and sustaining competitive advantage in the eyes of stakeholders. Even though it is hard for an observer to describe organizational culture or its elements, culture is a phenomenon that can be felt or known unconsciously. When visiting a web site, one cannot fully figure out an organization's culture but he/she can sense the aspirations and values of the organization through web site content and web appearance. Even though there are no standards or rules defining how organizational web content and design should be, many Internet users have become web-literate in the sense that they are able to evaluate web content and design habitually. Customers, clients, current or prospective employees, managers or executives, other organizations and so on; people or groups who get into interaction with an organization have started to value and seek for the quality of content and design in organizational web sites. For that reason, organizations have to adopt creative strategies when creating and maintaining organizational web sites in order to be distinguishable among others (Sayimer, 2008). A recognizable web site layout and original content will provide added value for the organization and will be effective in communicating organizational culture as well as building and sustaining powerful and productive relationships.

## CHAPTER III

### UNIVERSITIES AS ORGANIZATIONS

Universities as organizational structures have been the subject of study in various fields of social sciences such as political science, public administration, management, educational sciences, communication and history. In order to fully understand universities and their organizational cultures, historical processes and both internal and external factors regarding these institutions must be explored. Universities, as any other organization, are in direct connection with national and global social, political and economic demands and transformations. This chapter will first put forth the emergence and transformations of higher education systems, provide a historical outlook on universities around the world and present how universities are strongly bound to the several conditions in which they flourish and develop. This chapter will furthermore associate Turkish universities with the neoliberal, global movements in which they find themselves into and attempts of reforms in the higher education system in Turkey since mid 70s/early 80s. Even though there are very significant implications of political and economic national and global factors on universities' transformation and there exists critical views on "neoliberal/global universities", as it exceeds the framework of this study they will

be mentioned briefly. For the purpose of this dissertation, universities and their peculiar organizational cultures will be reflected and the significance of official web sites for universities in particular will be stated.

### 3.1. Historical Development of Higher Education System

Educational institutions are one of the most vital organizations of modern societies; starting from Middle Ages to today's Information Societies. Universities, being at the top of the higher education system pyramid, have been the primary source of information generation and dissemination throughout ages. The study of universities has always been of interest since universities as organizations are heavily in connection with social, political and economic issues, policies and developments. As any dynamic organizational structure has to do, universities needed to address societal expectations (which have been growing rapidly especially since 80s) and to undergo transformations according to these expectations. Both negative and positive effects of these transformations on universities can be observed when analyzed within a historical perspective. The roots of university as an educational institution can be based upon as far back as 3000 B.C. to Sumerian traditions where intellectuals at the time were salaried academics that both educate courtiers and conduct research in their free time (Yavuz, 2012). As these educational units were not yet named as 'universities', it is more likely that church-centered universities of 11th and 12th centuries can be taken as origins of today's universities.

University as a word is originated from ‘universitas’ in Latin. Throughout its approximately 900 year old history, university as an educational institution have gone through significant changes in terms of educational system and understanding, organizational structure, managerial models, preference of language, validity, curriculum and supervision/assessment. According to these transformations, universities are categorized into three stages and: (1) Middle Age/Church-centered University, (2) Nation-State/Modern/Humboldt University and (3) Multiversity/Information Society/Entrepreneurial University<sup>5</sup> (Tekeli, 2003a; Yavuz, 2012). Each stage bears references to the dominant ideologies and forces of that age.

### 3.1.1. Universities in the Middle Age

The very first universities that convey similarities to today’s universities are Bologna University and Paris University; the first one being organized by students themselves and the latter organized by academics. However the structures of the universities as organizations were, university and higher education could not escape the confining pressures coming primarily from the church and secondarily from Roman Empire. Rising within a feudal system that was subject to the conflict of two powers (religious authorities and civil authorities); it was inevitable that higher education was bound to be church-centered in terms of effects on members, curriculum, educational understanding and supervision. In addition, universities

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<sup>5</sup> Multiversity as an idea of university transformed into Information Society/Entrepreneurial University after 1970’s with neoliberal policies in education system; therefore latter concepts will be studied separately in Chapter 3.2.

were mainly financed by students and church members without any contributions from the empire budget. In that case, universities had a negotiated curriculum under the supervision of the Vatican; that offered scientific, political and theological knowledge (Arap, 2010). As more and more students started to demand higher education from the church-centered universities, the number of academics educated from these universities increased and circulation of students from different nationalities started to emerge, universities had to be located elsewhere than churches and needed to be financed with contributions from principalities (Tekeli, 2003a). This resulted in the partial autonomy of universities since they were not fully bound to church authority in terms of location and financing but still there existed requirements to be met by the Vatican. The education was given in Latin and diplomas were valid for all Christian societies. Universities were responsible to city administrations in terms of being local institutions, but they could sustain circulation of students all around the Europe. It is of significant importance that, just as today, universities were organizations that were in constant interaction with other organizations such as church, principalities and city administrations. In addition, universities brought dynamism and made substantial contributions to regional (both economic and social) development just as it does contribute in similar ways to today's societies; that resulted in the approval and financial support of local administrative bodies within the Roman Empire (Yavuz, 2012). After Renaissance and Reform periods, universities started to open their doors to scientific knowledge rather than scholastic thought and the church decreasingly left its supervision position to modern nation-states.



### 3.1.2. Nation-state/Modern Universities

The salvation from the church-centered universities was actualized when Napoleon dissolved those universities in France and opened up 'elite' higher education institutions named *Grandes Ecoles* (Tekeli, 2003a). Napoleon continued with closing other European universities as well, during late 18th century and early 19th century; in order to enable higher education institutions in the way of raising elites in accordance with state ideologies (Arap, 2010). In the light of these significant developments within the understanding of how higher education should be and what it should provide students with, it is possible to remark that European universities started to reflect national objectives within higher education systems. Particularly after the rise of modern/nation-state universities, these institutions are highly criticized as being ideological state apparatuses of the nation states. It is argued that universities had taken on a new mission; that is to advocate the rise of nation states in terms of economics, politics and culture with the technical and ideological knowledge produced and disseminated via "highly nationalized" higher education institutions (Alpkaya et al., 1999). Furthermore, it is significant to note that at the time capitalism was nourishing with the economic and political organization of the nation states. Nation states were centralized political organizations that demanded a free market economy and sustained the hegemony of dominant classes and ideologies. In that case, universities could not be unconcerned with the demands of state authorities and became an integral part of the states rather than the church. Modern universities transformed into schools that raised administrators for the states and took national identities (Yavuz, 2012).

Modern universities were highly criticized for their ideological functions; nevertheless there were important developments paving way to the progress of scientific knowledge. Under the guidance of Van Humbolt who was a Prussian geographer; modern scientific knowledge was founded on the higher education level with Berlin University (1810). With the modernist views of this new university model (that will later be called as German model/Humbolt model), the need for integration of education and research was put forefront for the first time. Moreover, it is significant about Humbolt University model that nation states proposed that modern universities must undertake the mission of raising the students with the qualities of an elite, nation state citizen; who was endowed with a world view and high culture (Tekeli, 2003a). Universities should not only educate the citizens but also should “prepare people to life and provide them with the skills that will be needed in order to succeed” (Yavuz, 2012, p.31). In accordance with such requirements put forward by the nation state, languages of the modern universities became dependant to the national languages in which universities were located. What is promising about these universities was that nation states needed to provide its citizens with equal opportunities so that students who were from different classes could enroll to the universities and universities were financed with solely state sources (Tekeli, 2003a).

Models for modern universities are classified through the nation states they have raised within; such as German model, French model and England model. Among these models, Humboldt University model is arguably the most influential and this model can be considered as providing grounds for today’s understanding of

universities as educational and researching organizations. Another modern university model that intersects these European models is the American model; where first universities were established by England. After the Industrial Revolution, the idea of university had to transform once more in order to address the demands of the economic and political structure. American universities not only provided education and conducted research for the sake of science but also for the requirements and problems regarding the society (Tekeli, 2003) and as the need for qualified labor force within the industry emerged, these universities employed applied education as well as research (Yavuz, 2012). Within a capitalist conjuncture that enabled free selling of the labor force, qualification through higher education gained vital importance for the working class and demands for higher education increased rapidly. In order to address these demands, new American universities were founded; supported both by capital budget and by considerable amounts of donations from investors (Yavuz, 2012). American universities thus can be categorized into three main points:

- The University should have as a basic mission to service the community it belongs to,
- The University should make a clear distinction between undergraduate and graduate education,
- The University should be run by two categories of people, namely professional managers when organising the university as a business, and members of the faculty, i.e., those scholars responsible for study programmes and the organisation of research (Jonasson, 2008, p.54).

Under the main points, it is noteworthy that American universities feature the first model that expressed the need for “professionalism” within the management of universities. Up until then, universities were managed by higher ranking academics within the university scholars. In that sense, it is possible to argue that American universities laid the foundations of today’s organizational management understanding among many universities of the world.

### 3.1.3. Multiversity

Up until the World War II, the higher education structure proposed by German model reserved its validity. After WWII, American universities started to lead the field as “service universities” that separately treated education, research and community service as their primary insights (Tekeli, 2003a). Universities that carried these three fundamentals of university understanding are unique from other modern universities in terms of finance, standpoint to education and research and organizational structure. Harvard scholar Clark Kerr defined this new phenomenon as “multiversity” in 1963. Kerr argues that this new model of university is unique from all other higher education institutions around the world and states that “it is not really private and it is not really public; it is neither entirely of the world nor entirely apart from it” (Kerr, 2001, p.1). Furthermore, he asserts that multiversity needs governance; church-centered and other modern universities were singular organizations governed either by students themselves or the academics whereas multiversity is composed of multiple organizations (including students of all levels, academics and non-academics, administrators and so on) that

together serve to the society; multiversity “reaches out to alumni, legislators, farmers, businessmen, who are all related to one or more of these internal communities” (Kerr, 2001, p.14). University as an organization had thus become a complex structure of multiple academic and non-academic bodies. It is significant that multiversity needs (professional) governance in order to serve the society in the most effective way. Therefore, multiversity has to be governed by a rector that has the characteristics and qualities of a leader who is also entrepreneurial (Tekeli, 2003b).

Multiversity as an idea of university is still valid for today’s universities; nevertheless there are significant social, political and economic challenges starting with 70’s capitalist crisis and intensifying through 80’s and 90’s, arising discourses such as neoliberalism, post-Fordism, globalization and so on. Universities as organizations cannot be assessed outside these transformations; therefore multiversities that were approached as an extension of modern universities are treated with a new phenomenon: entrepreneurial university.

### 3.2. Entrepreneurial University: Neoliberalism, Globalization and Higher Education

Entrepreneurial university is another model for (post)modern universities that grounds its main arguments on information age and society. Just as modern universities as a model rose into prominence after the Industrial Revolution, a new era led by the rapid developments of information and communication technologies called for a new university understanding. Before the crisis of welfare state, it is

important to note that multiversity had faced a students' movement in 1968. Within the welfare state, universities were financed mainly by state budgets in accordance with the political and economic policies. After the WWII, there was an immense increase of the young population called as "Baby Boomers"; the generation born between 1946 and 1964. In total, this young population was 82.8 million, according to U.S. Census data and this generation is considered as the most educated generation in United States (University Business, 2008); with the pressures of industrialization and the need for qualified labor force, they demanded higher education from the state but universities at the time could not meet the demands from the society since they were not adequate in numbers and capacity. Fast-growing population and highly increasing expectations from the state and general welfare resulted in millions of students waiting at universities' doors (Alpkaya et al., 1999). Indeed, the number of students who were attending to universities was equal to 10% of people of the age (Tekeli, 2003b); which means higher education was still reserved to certain people among the society. 1968's students' movement accused universities of being inadequate to democratization process of the society and indifferent to criticism towards the society; moreover students wanted to be an active part of the university governance (Tekeli, 2003a). Even though this movement and other social movements of the time paved the way for pluralist, participatory democracy understanding and alternative, counter-argumentative studies (such as Cultural Studies, Feminist Studies, Black Studies and so on) within universities, they could not succeed as a permanent transformative force (Alpkaya et al. 1999; Tekeli, 2003).

Up until 1970s, capitalist understanding that supported industrial progress contributed to the West-centered development projects. Universities with their mission of serving to the society could gain a lot of investment both from capital budget and from foundations/investors that made donations to educational sector; however with the rise of neoliberal discourses among the Western societies, the focus of industrial production shifted towards Third World countries. The way and materials of production were shifting towards micro-electronics, information and communication technologies since there were major developments within these sectors; that is to say, qualified labor force no longer indicated industrial workers but labor that could operate in service sectors (Özbudun & Demirer, 2006). Hence, this new era is called post-Fordist era that located information technologies at the center of economy, dissolving nation states by both supranational forces and micro forces within the society in terms of politics and notions of individuality and entrepreneurship gaining popularity (Yüksel, 2008). Neoliberalism that offered minimal public expenditures by the state and supported privatization of fundamental 'welfare state' services; primarily education and health services was supported by other rhetorics such as globalization, post-Fordism, end of the nation state, privatization, deregulation, governance and so on (Aygül, 1998). The reflections of neoliberal policies on universities were both negative and positive. The idea of multiversity was enhanced with "entrepreneurial university" model. These entrepreneurial universities suggested that university and industry worked together for the benefit of serving the society in terms of both producing knowledge and putting it to use by industrial cooperation. Therefore, universities could claim the property of knowledge and generate income through produced

knowledge (Yavuz, 2012). Entrepreneurial universities therefore have the potential of becoming self-sufficient organizations in terms of finance and management. This solution brought to the higher education financing crisis has two different edges; states that adopted neoliberal policies no longer want to do big expenditures on education and entrepreneurial understanding within universities may become an alternative to generate income for the education and research in higher education institutions but on the other hand entrepreneurial universities are highly criticized for losing their positions as “centers of excellence” (Tekeli, 2003a, p.61) and transforming into ‘corporate bodies’ just as profit-seeking organizations.

The three-staged leap from modern university, to multiversity and to entrepreneurial university has resulted in the intertwined association of the academic world and the industry. According to Wissema (2009), universities that have opened their doors to industrial research and collaboration are “Third Generation” Universities (3GU). Therefore, the downward trend of second generation universities (2GU) can be explained with (1) increasing number of students demanding higher education since 1960s and the pressures on the quality of the education, (2) traditional way of university governance becoming outdated due to the increase of students and high involvement with governmental departments, (3) globalization that affects students, academics and research contracts, (4) the rise of interdisciplinary research, (5) increased costs for advanced research, (6) universities being challenged by specialized research institutions, (7) governmental requests on universities; demanding that they played a significant role in technology-based economic growth in the knowledge economy, (8) rise of



corporate research and the opportunities provided by academic-industrial collaboration and (9) rise of entrepreneurship; led by university driven IT companies in the United States (Wissema, 2009, p. XV). Indeed, globalization of education brought competitive market pressures on universities in terms of seeking for best students, best academics and best research projects amongst other universities (competitors). While evaluating the scope of globalization, it is important not to limit this understanding only to standardization of universities. Qualities sought from universities are similarity of qualified performance within diversity. Qualification is the main reason why both internal and external accreditation and self-assessments of universities are at the center of the globalization argument of education. Through accreditation, universities should first handedly determine their missions and externally they should be evaluated in order to examine the predetermined progress (Tekeli, 2003b). In addition, steps towards total quality management are taken in 3GU. Total quality management offers a management system that focuses on leadership, stakeholder orientation, achieving quality expectations, problem solving and process management through effective teamwork; have the characteristics of continuing progress and excellence; gives importance to organizational culture, people and information (Tekeli, 2003a). These managerial understandings integrated into universities and higher education systems are both glorified and rejected. While especially American corporate understanding relies heavily on market-centered management, adaptation of these basic principles and insights to public services such as education and health are at odds with the anti-neoliberal opinion. Universities are accused of being 'corporatized' in the sense that especially after 1980s, free market ideologies have

invaded universities through practices belonging to the corporate world such as high-level management, rectors taking on the roles of CEOs, deans being nominated rather than being elected, corporate terms such as accountability, privatization, performance indicators and so on (Kwiek, 2000).

Rising from the modernist American university model, entrepreneurial universities are considered as dynamic organizations that can address education, advanced research and self-finance; which can also adopt themselves to the increasing demand of education within global, informational societies. In a rapidly changing environment surrounded by information and communication technologies, educational system has to renew itself and be integrated to the society as an open system, introducing opportunities for 'enthusiastic learners' such as distance learning and lifelong learning (Tekeli, 2003a). Yet, it is not possible to say that all of today's universities have grown into 3GUs as this is an extensive process that incorporates transitions from one model to another. Wissema argues that some of today's universities are still 'modern' while some are in between modern and entrepreneurial models (2009). In addition, due to the competitive nature of globalization, existing and future universities will be competing with themselves and with each other; it is assumed that this will be beneficial for higher education governance in terms of professionalism. American entrepreneurship has become the leading force in university governance with slight differences and adaptations between different cultures; these differences in national higher education governance can be attributed to different modernization processes of nations (Yavuz, 2012).

### 3.3. A Historical Outlook on Turkish Universities until YÖK<sup>6</sup> System

The roots of Turkish higher education can be traced back to Ottoman Empire madrassahs (medrese in Turkish). Even though it is generally perceived that madrassahs are schools of theological thought, however, beyond theology these institutions had broader visions including education on medicine, Western and Islamic philosophy, dialectic and law (Türk Eğitim-Sen, 2009). Institutions that resemble today's universities in terms of organizational body and higher education mentality can be observed after Tanzimat reform era. Tanzimat edict suggested that reforms on primary and secondary school education should be made and a higher education institution should be established. Darülfünun, which was established in 1863, laid the foundations of university as an organization and higher education management. Darülfünun had three main branches; literature, science and law, and the institution would conduct an examination for candidates. The institution had an assembly that is the equivalent of today's university senates which was responsible from academic management and consultancy. Darülfünun was financed by student fees, donations and state funding. Even though Darülfünun was a highly organized body, it cannot be classified as a 'modern university' when looking at the progress of Western universities at the time but it has a symbolic significance for Turkish education history (Yavuz, 2012). Darülfünun was closed a year later because of the students' unqualification due to their primary and secondary level education. Ottoman Empire waited for approximately thirty years for another higher education institution; Darülfünun-u Şahane was established in 1900 that provided paid

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<sup>6</sup> The Council of Higher Education (en)

education to students other than candidate professionals that would serve to the empire (Tekeli, 2003a). Darülfünun-u Şahane was reformed after second constitutional period; having been heavily influenced by German/Humboldt model of universities and nationalist ideologies that makes the institution first modern university of Turkish history (Yavuz, 2012).

Darülfünun, taking on several names and being closed many times during its seventy-year history (Arap, 2010), served as a higher education institution Turkish republican period as well. In 1933, Darülfünun was abolished in accordance with republican reorganizations and İstanbul University was established. Republican authorities preferred using 'university' instead of 'Darülfünun' (Tekeli, 2003a, p. 75); as a symbol of disengagement from Ottoman tradition and as an evidence of Westernization. İstanbul University has significance for Turkish history since its academic members were German academics who had run away from Hitler regime and these academics stayed in the university until the end of WWII. As a great chance for the progress of Turkish higher education, Turkish academics and German academics that had acquaintance with modern universities worked together under the structure of İstanbul University. After German professors returned to their homeland, two more universities (İstanbul Technical University and Ankara University) were established in Turkey. As the number of universities increased, coordination of these three universities was deemed necessary; resulting in the foundation of ÜAK (The Council of Interuniversities). In addition, 'Law of Universities' was enacted in 1946 and according to the law number 4936, universities were formally defined as "associations of higher research and

education; that are in the form of faculties, institutes, schools and scientific institutions; that has autonomy and legal entity” (Yavuz, 2012, p.97). After these legal recognitions of universities, four more universities (Karadeniz Technical University, Ege University, Middle East Technical University, and Ataturk University) were established between 1955 and 1957. These universities were built on a campus as American universities and their constitutions bear resemblance to American university models rather than German model; but this progress cannot be evaluated as the leap to multiversity (Tekeli, 2003a). Among these new universities, Middle East Technical University was closest to the American model since it is the first university being governed by Board of Trustees and giving education in English; moreover while Board of Trustees was appointed by the consent of the president of the republic, the board had the privilege to appoint the Rector regardless of the candidate being an academician or not (Yavuz, 2012). This structure paves the way for professionalism in university governance, as proposed by American universities. Because of this innovative governance perception, rectors appointed by the Board of Trustees were foreign academicians or professionals until 1960. METU had gone through a difficult period beginning with the 1960 military coup. Adnan Menderes, Prime Minister of the time, was among the members of METU Board of Trustees and it raised considerations on whether abolishing METU or not. In August 1960, by the law number 43, Board of Trustees was dissolved and first Turkish rector of METU was appointed (ODTÜ 50. Yıl, 2006). Since then, state universities in Turkey are governed by senates, under the leadership of rector appointed by the consent of the president.

1961 constitution, formed after the 1960 military coup, noted that universities should be governed “in accordance with contemporary necessities of science and technology and principles of the development plan” (TBMM, 1961). In accordance with the objectives of the development plan, TÜBİTAK was founded in 1963. Primary duties of this institution were to promote academic research in basic and applied sciences and to support young researchers (TÜBİTAK, 2012). While Turkish higher education system taking substantial steps in terms of improvement, there were external pressures coming from other states. In accordance with the increasing demand for higher education all over the world, Turkish students were also demanding more opportunities from universities. Due to the growing demand, the government requested that universities should increase their student quotas, which was rejected by the (then-autonomous) universities; at the same time Turkish government did not establish new universities either (Tekeli, 2003a). In 1965, by the law number 625, establishment of private educational institutions were permitted; which would be revoked in 1971 (Yavuz, 2012).

One of the milestones of Turkish higher education system was students’ movement in 1968; which had taken all of the world’s students under its effect. Just as students in Europe and in United States, Turkish students were also complaining primarily about the costs of higher education, authoritarian relations between academic staff and students, education being irrelevant to Turkish societal issues and demanded participation to university administration (Bianet, 2008; Tekeli, 2003a). It was mentioned in the previous section that especially in Europe, students’ participation was realized in university governance; but in Turkey, reforms

on the issue of participation or education were not executed. Instead, a new controlling era on higher education became effective in 1973 with the establishment of two supra-university institutions; YÖK and ÜDK (The Council of University Supervision). Both institutions were highly dependent to the government, which aimed to audit higher education in terms of content, administration and finance. However in 1975, article related to the reason of being for YÖK, its function and authority was found contrary to democratic principles of university governance; therefore functionality of YÖK was ceased by the Constitutional Court (Tekeli, 2003a).

Taken into account within the framework of modern university models, it can be observed that Turkish higher education system had been behind the times in terms of university as a concept and in terms of higher education content. The history of Turkish universities reveals that university as an organization has always been in conflict with state authorities, mostly concerning how universities should be managed. The continuous struggle for self-governing, autonomous position of universities on administrative decisions can be observed during the course of higher education reforms in Turkey. In 1980, YÖK was restructured and as of today, this governance and supervision system is still at the center of a heated debate.

#### 3.4. YÖK System: 1980 and Beyond

1980 military coup had been one of the most effective acts in recent Turkish history that shaped the country's future. Eighth Higher Education Law, going into

effect before the acceptance of the 1982 Constitution that keeps its validity as of today and the constitutional reorganizations reestablished the YÖK system which would bring radical reforms to Turkish higher education. 1982 constitution defines universities as follows: “For the purpose of training manpower under a system of contemporary education and training principles and meeting the *needs of the nation and the country*, universities comprising several units will be established by the State and by law as *public corporations having autonomy in teaching*, assigned to educate, train at different levels after secondary education, and conduct research, to act as consultants, to issue publications and to serve the country and humanity.” [italics added] (Constitution.org, 2012). During 1946-1981, senates and other academic/administrative councils within universities were center to university governance and even though rectors were appointed by the president, their duties were drawn as “implementing the decisions and maintaining coordination between units” (Yavuz, 2012, p. 125). High points of the new organizations on universities and their management were that there was an emphasis on serving the nation and universities were no longer autonomous in the sense of self-governance. In addition, the Higher Education Law number 2547 gives rectors new responsibilities that disable senates’ position as decision-making units. Senates were degraded to ‘consultancy’ within the university governance and rectors were given the rights of (final) decision making and implementation (YÖK, 1981). There are also significant new regulations regarding university-state relationship in terms of supervision. Rectors were already appointed by the president; additionally the law number 2547 states that deans of faculties would be chosen and be appointed by YÖK (TBMM, 1982). Moreover, the president of the republic also has the authority to choose YÖK



president. YÖK is defined by the law as an institution that is autonomous within the framework of assigned position and authority. In the light of this reconstruction of YÖK system, it becomes apparent that universities are under high surveillance of state authorities, especially in terms of administration and finance. Granting privilege to YÖK as an autonomous public corporation; the law number 2547 and constitutional reorganizations in 1982 empowers YÖK as the central authority of higher education system and its management.

As YÖK system revived itself through an authoritarian atmosphere, it was inevitable that its very first actions for higher education system were nothing but pressuring. Reactions against YÖK were expressed as the council attempted “to standardize education programs within all universities, determine curriculum and courses, impose disciplinary punishments against criticism rising within universities” (Tekeli, 2003a, p.85); nevertheless the system was also paving way to ‘progressing’ university systems in accordance with multiversity. Providing the basis of argument for this dissertation, 1982 Constitution permitted the opening of universities by the hand of non-profit foundations. In 1984, the first foundation university of Turkey, Bilkent University, was founded by then-president İhsan Doğramacı. Establishment of many other foundation universities were later declared by YÖK by the law number 3837 in 1992 (YÖK, 1992). A remarkable point about foundation universities was that they were autonomous in finance and management unlike public universities (TBMM, 1982). Financially, they could get support from state budget just as other universities do; administratively they were managed by Board of Trustees and this board had the authority to choose and appoint university

rectors (YÖK, 1981). This system of foundation universities very much resembles American model of multiversity. Universities, as organizations that serve the society and in close connection with state authorities, cannot be evaluated apart from social, political and economic policies. It is not coincidental that increasing number of foundation universities occurred during the neoliberal Özal regime in 1990s. Following the global trends of mass education that provides practical skills and knowledge requested by the competitive markets and also neoliberal policies that had come into effect especially in the United States, establishment of foundation universities were attached particular importance. Not only they would respond to the educational demand by the masses, they would also decrease educational costs of the state. This understanding corresponds to neoliberal policies which promote privatization of public institutions and entrepreneurship. Since foundation universities increased in numbers, they have been subjected to a heated debate; however it is undeniable that they have brought significant transformations to higher education system.

Grounding the debate on the idea that public universities are not able to fulfill the increasing demand for higher education in terms of number, capacity and quality, foundation universities gained central importance to Turkish higher education. As of today, there are 103 public universities and 65 foundation universities (YÖK, 2012). Rise of foundation universities divided general opinion on the university system into two separate directions. While state authorities and YÖK emphasizes the need for privatization of higher education for the benefit of reaching global standards, corresponding to the progress in developed countries in

the way of entrepreneurial university and competing in scientific research on the global scale; parties which are critical of neoliberalism and its cooperating discourses insist that privatization of universities will lead to the decline of higher education system altogether. Neoliberal ideology that anticipates minimal intervention of governments into economy furthermore proposes that all universities should be privatized and be transferred to private corporations. Expressed under university-industry cooperation, demand-centered 'entrepreneurial' universities are accused of being a neoliberal project. Still, entrepreneurial universities continue to get support from both state authorities (government and YÖK) and from industrial organizations such as TÜSİAD (Turkish Industry and Business Association); suggesting that Turkish universities should be governed by Board of Trustees in the light of institutionalization and universities that provide solutions to social and economic problems by scientific research should be supported by extra funding (Özbudun & Demirel, 2006).

Having acquired such influential forces promoting entrepreneurial understanding, the idea of privately held higher education strengthens its position as an 'opportunity' for civil society. Both university rectors and state authorities have verbalized their future projections on higher education management. Even though there are strong criticisms on universities becoming 'corporations', rectors have suggested that Turkey should develop a paid/private education model, that public universities should be enabled to compete on the global arena by financially transferring them to entrepreneurship or foundations if possible; moreover Prime Minister Erdoğan have stated that their desire as a government is to withdraw from

education expenditures altogether, end financial state intervention and completely transfer higher education management to private sector (Özbudun & Demirel, 2006). Within such an atmosphere, there also exist extreme opinions estimating that Turkish higher education will be privatized, sooner or later, just as it is conducted in developed capitalist countries under the leadership of United States (Özüğurlu, 2003). Even though this transformation of Turkish universities is frequently approached under the notion of privatization, it is not convenient to express that state universities in Turkey will evaporate and foundation universities (along with fully 'private' universities which are projected to be permitted) will take over the education system. Instead, it can be discussed that education as a public service has become a market commodity and it has been reduced to the interest of capital. Nevertheless, the majority of students worldwide are still enrolled to state universities and in Turkish context it can be observed that greater number of undergraduate candidates still demand education from state universities. While it is significant that foundation universities have rapidly increased in number and in terms of activity in the education sector, state universities still preserve their position as long-established institutions. The bottom line of the argument indicates a need for investigating similarities and differences between state and foundation universities in Turkey in terms of organizational culture. Focusing on the rationale of the dissertation, criticisms to YÖK strategies on significant issues such as education system, autonomy, public/foundation university distinction, academic life, and student-academics relationship are partially left out of discussion as it exceeds the scope of the study. For this study, it is important to approach YÖK strategies in order to explore universities and higher education administration in terms of

management and communication; emphasizing the position of universities as organizational bodies.

### 3.5. Universities and Organizational Culture

In the general overview of organizational culture, it was discussed that organizations face two main issues during culture formation and maintenance; those were external adaptation and internal integration (Schein, 2004). Universities as organizations are open systems that interact continuously with its various internal and external stakeholders. This study centers mainly on external stakeholders and external adaptation issues of universities in terms of dealing with national and supra-national managerial forces. Higher education systems on a global scale have been subjected to a transformational process both internally and externally: (1) changes produced in the social sphere (stratification); (2) economy (neo-liberalism); (3) cultural (enormous access to the educational system); (4) market (globalization); (5) institutional (corporative); (6) administration (quality and efficiency); (7) demography (a huge decrease in the school age population); and (8) progress and opportunities that have been brought about by information and communication technologies (Tomas-Folch & Ion, 2009, p.143-144). According to these processes that have highly affected universities as organizational bodies, both internal and external stakeholders of universities should take measures to adapt to the new global understanding of higher education. Since some of the above mentioned issues were addressed in earlier sections of this chapter; this section will focus mainly on administrative and institutional developments within university

cultures, particularly emphasizing YÖK's globally derived strategies regarding Turkish higher education.

In relation to organizational artifacts, values and assumptions, Schein (2004) has explained the steps of external adaptation and survival in five major points; (1) mission and strategy, (2) goals, (3) means, (4) measurement and (5) correction (p. 88). These major points affect the outlook of both internal and external stakeholders of organizations. In terms of universities as organizational bodies, these major points are all interrelated; determined and audited by global scaled institutions. In Turkish higher education system, YÖK as the coordinating and regulating institution of both public and foundation universities reflect and incorporate these globally accepted values and strategies into its own strategy. Even though establishment and increase of foundation universities within YÖK strategies are highly criticized as transforming higher education system in Turkey into corporate understandings; on the other hand foundation universities have brought about professional insights to higher education system with its management and communication functions and innovations. Within a global, competitive, market-based education environment, public universities had to change and adapt their organizational cultures and understandings in order to both reach global standards and to compete with foundation universities that are supported by governmental, educational and industrial national and global forces. Approximately 80 million students worldwide are still enrolled at public universities (Özüğurlu, 2003); on the other hand foundation universities with their

entrepreneurial insight and professional management are persistently becoming important figures in the education sector.

According to the most recent strategic report of YÖK, new tendencies and expectations from higher education systems worldwide are identified as such: (1) massification, (2) internationalization, (3) financing, (4) privatization, (5) autonomy and accountability, (6) assurance of quality and accreditation, (7) management/governance and entrepreneurial universities (YÖK, 2007). These expectations indeed signalize and justify the need for new, professionally managed, entrepreneurial model of universities; that are maintained mainly by foundation universities as of today. Within these global tendencies, governance as a new paradigm has significant position in organizational cultures of universities. In political science and public administration fields, governance refers to new *interactive* relationships between state and society (Aygül, 1998). In terms of university governance, the relations are more complex since universities are organizations that are responsible to various stakeholders. Governance is a fairly new concept introduced to Turkish higher education system with the progression of multiversity model. YÖK in its strategic report reveals its tendency towards entrepreneurial universities that are governed by Board of Trustees; which include non-academics from external stakeholders of universities. YÖK justifies this vision with the predisposition worldwide; allocating fewer resources to higher education by the state but granting institutions with administrative and financial autonomy (p. 26). Considering that foundation universities already have administrative and partial

financial autonomy, it is apparent that there is a projection on public universities to be privatized in the future.

Within a new system that “gives credence to entrepreneurial mindset, responsive to the market, believes in academic competitiveness, contributes to the society and the locality, realized the importance of research; is focused on learning rather than teaching, open to social participation, founded on performance evaluation and able to take risks” (Vardar, 2004, p.1), universities are expected to be self-governing, self-evaluating organizations and to execute strategies in accordance with this new higher education system acclaimed worldwide. In order to specify strategies and objectives, universities as organizational bodies have to internalize these new values and expectations proposed by the global system. Governance as an umbrella term for administrative and communicative perspectives of universities furthermore involves principles such as autonomy, performance and quality accreditation, accountability, (internal and external) participation, (professional) leadership of the rector, strategic planning, creating a ‘quality’ culture by ‘good governance’ (Vardar, 2003). Rethinking Schein’s (2004) external adaptation issues, it is apparent that these principles should be reflected to and inscribed within organizational cultures of universities in order to exist in a competitive global market.



### 3.6. Significance of Official Web Sites for Universities

Just as any organization has to make use of official web sites in order to communicate, to provide useful information and to effectively represent and promote itself to internal and external stakeholders (Middleton, McConnell and Davidson, 1999), universities also have to invest in their organizational web sites. For public relations purposes, web sites are essential tools to increase awareness among publics (Park and Reber, 2008), and to present the perspective of organizations through content such as mission and vision statements, strategic plans, objectives, values and beliefs and so on. In addition, for reaching global standards on university governance, content related to organizational culture should be accessible to anyone who wants to get information about the university. As transparency has become an integral part of 'good governance', including other insights such as clarity, accountability, accuracy, accessibility and truthfulness (Weber, 2008); universities as organizational bodies should make use of the potential of web sites in order to maintain and sustain a strong organizational culture and organizational image.

However, only making use of the web technologies and 'being there' on the Internet, is not sufficient enough for any organization that wants to create and maintain a strong Internet presence. In the case of universities, strategic and successful use of university web sites in terms of quality content and appealing web appearance, help to provide good impressions on stakeholders (Yoo and Jin, 2004). University web sites are a rich source of information for both internal and external

stakeholders of the university, such as academic and administrative staff, students, parents, prospective partnerships, media and so on. Accessibility and efficiency of university web sites therefore increase the chances of returning visitors (Kang and Norton, 2006), which in return helps to build, maintain and improve relationships with publics.

As relevant and up-to-date information is crucial for a university web site in terms of content, features regarding web appearance such as outlook, navigation, speed and functionality are also very important. University web sites have to, just as other organizational web sites do, present information without letting the visitor be overwhelmed with irrelevant or poorly ordered content. Otherwise, web sites become a tool of storage, not a provider of information (Middleton, McConnell and Davidson, 1999). Navigation should be consistent throughout the university web site, starting with the homepage. Homepages are usually the first point where visitors start to interact with the university while seeking information online (Yoo and Jin, 2004). Therefore, homepages should be rich in content but be navigable; and they should be appealing in terms of appearance in order to acquire returning visitors. In sum, university web sites should be satisfying the informational needs of stakeholders while presenting a pleasant representation of the university. Moreover, universities should fully use the potential of web sites in terms of reflecting organizational culture and sustaining good governance through relevant, current and transparent content. Organizational elements of web sites chosen for analysis and justifications for each category of content analysis will be explained in detail in Chapter 4.2.

## CHAPTER IV

### RESEARCH METHODOLOGY AND DATA ANALYSIS

#### 4.1 Aim of Analysis, Hypotheses and Research Questions

The ways of measuring organizational culture varies among researchers. Many researchers working on organizational culture support an internal perspective, referring to the perceptions of organizational members on elements regarding organizational culture or analyzing internal documents of the organization including information on organizational goals and objectives, strategic plans, mission statement and core values and so on (Overbeeke & Snizek, 2005). What can be observed in today's society is that having Internet presence is of vital importance for an organization to present itself to its stakeholders. In our day, as members of the information society show the characteristics of being "investigative, entrepreneurial, able to make use of new information and communication technologies, objective and open to creative thinking fast decision-makers" (Sayimer, 2008, p.9), demands from an organization have changed rapidly, and organizations through their official channels, have to respond to this increasing demand for information and communication. As new media technologies also

provide the opportunity to make analyses on online accessible information, researchers have become able to benefit from externally communicated information regarding organizational culture rather than internally collected and distributed data (Overbeeke & Snizek, 2005). In this sense, as organizations started to publicly expose information regarding their own cultures, the study of organizational culture has evolved from being a closed book to an immense phenomenon yet to be explored.

Universities as organizations had to address the increasing demand for publicly declared information and reciprocal communication as well. Universities, categorized as non-profit organizations, also have to represent themselves in the Internet in order to provide detailed and orderly information to its internal and external stakeholders. Internal members of universities mainly include academic and administrative staff, and students. External stakeholders are much more extensive, including prospective students and staff, other academics, business people, alumni, news media, donors and benefactors, legislators and others such as community groups (Middleton, McConnell and Davidson, 1999). The most convenient and accessible way of informing these internal and external stakeholders, and communicating organizational values and practices to them is by establishing and maintaining a professional web site in terms of content and appearance.

This study focuses on organizational culture and its reflections through official web sites of organizations. It aims to provide an insight on how organizations

use their official web sites, centering upon the case of universities. The sample for analysis consists of both state and foundation universities in Turkey. In regard to the changes and transformations in the educational system in Turkey; with special reference to driving forces of globally accepted standardization processes presented by institutions such as EUA (European University Association) on building a “European Higher Education Area” by Bologna Process, internationalization of higher education and research, enhancing the quality of European web sites, governance and autonomy issues in education and so on (European University Association, 2012), state and foundation universities in Turkey has gone, and still goes through, important changes that bring them closer in the sense of educational systems and managerial understanding as organizations. These changes and transformations are also reflected to the organizational web sites of universities. Serving to this purpose, the research will discuss how universities as organizations use their official communication channels and how elements and approaches regarding their organizational culture are reflected through them. The main research questions for this study are:

*RQ1: What are the main characteristics of official university web sites in terms of content and web appearance?*

*RQ2: Is there a difference between Turkish state and foundation universities’ web sites in terms of content and web appearance features regarding organizational culture?*

*RQ3: Do Turkish universities meet the requirements of reflecting organizational culture through official web sites?*

Therefore, the hypotheses of this study can be stated as such:

*H1: Universities use their official web sites in order to communicate their organizational cultures to internal and external stakeholders.*

*H2: There are no significant, observable differences between the official web sites of Turkish state and foundation universities regarding reflections of organizational culture; in terms of content and web appearance.*

Regarding that there are distinctive features of state and foundation universities, a comparative content analysis will shed light on uses of their official web sites and organizational cultures. Within the context of URAP's (University Ranking by Academic Performance) latest list of top state and foundation universities which was publicly announced at September 2011, top fifteen universities in each category are taken as a sample and analyzed in terms of web content and web appearance related to organizational culture.

#### 4.2 Method of Analysis

In order to analyze the reflections of organizational culture and its elements through official web sites, content analysis is used. The preference of content analysis as a quantitative approach to web analysis can be observed in fields such as media and communication, information management, education, tourism, library database systems and so on (Esrock and Leichty, 1999; Gibson, Margolis, Resnick and Ward, 2003; Yoo and Jin, 2004; Kang and Norton, 2006; Park and Reber, 2008;

Gordon and Berhow, 2009; Usunier and Roulin, 2010). Content analysis has been a widely used method since the rise of mass media in 19th century and electronic media in 20th century; it is a valid way of analyzing many media texts and messages inscribed within them such as newspaper and magazine articles, various genres in television programming such as talk shows, reality shows, TV series; conversations, and printed advertisements and commercials (Weare and Lin, 2000). In a similar fashion, Internet technologies offer an opportunity for creating descriptive categories on content and design features of web sites as a complex medium; comprised of texts, pictures, graphics and infographics, video and audio and so on. However, this study not only deals with quantitative data but also provides a qualitative perspective. Qualitative content analysis is defined as “a research method for the subjective interpretation of the content of text data through the systematic classification process of coding and identifying themes or patterns” (Hsieh & Shannon, 2005). Correspondingly, this study is partly subjective in the interpretation of data and seeks for similarities and differences of themes and patterns in Turkish state and foundation universities; therefore this study can be categorized under qualitative content analysis.

In this study, universities as organizations are analyzed by a mixture of content analysis categories based on the original researches of Overbeeke and Snizek’s (2005) article titled as “Web Sites and Corporate Culture: A Research Note”; Robbins and Stylianou’s (2003) article named as “Global Corporate Web Sites: An Empirical Investigation of Content and Design”; and Gibson, Margolis, Resnick and Ward’s (2003) article titled as “Election Campaigning on the WWW in the USA and

UK: A Comparative Analysis” ; in which all three articles analyze how organizations make use of content and web appearance features of their official web sites in order to present and communicate values and practices related to their organizational cultures.

Through comparative content analysis of Turkish state and foundation university web sites, this study will attempt to reveal if there are any observable differences between these web sites in terms of content and web appearance regarding organizational culture and its elements. Content analysis categories of this study are mainly divided into two sections: content and web appearance. The division *content* mainly refers to organizational practices, values, communication, organization and society, and organizational culture; whereas the division *web appearance* is associated with organizational and technical features of web sites. In total, the content analysis is composed of two divisions, 7 main categories and 34 subcategories.

It is important to note that there are slight omissions and changes in original categories and subcategories of these three articles. The content analysis categories used in this study and the reasons for omissions and changes are proposed below:



<u>Content</u>	<u>Web Appearance</u>
<p><i>Organizational Practices:</i></p> <p>Logo (0=none, 1=letter or name, 2=picture)  Mention founder / history (*)  Mention employee awards  Mention organization awards  Mention heroic figure  Press releases (*)  Organizational charts (*)  Job openings (*)</p> <p><i>Organizational Values:</i></p> <p>Mention mission statement  Mention vision statement (*)  Mention values  Mention beliefs  Mention strategy  Mention objectives</p> <p><i>Communication:</i></p> <p>Organizational phone number (*)  E-mail opportunity (*)  User-response opportunity (☒)</p> <p><i>Organization and Society:</i></p> <p>Mention code of conduct  Organization is environmentally aware  Emphasis on public needs  Organization contributes to society  Language translation (*)</p> <p><i>Organizational Culture:</i></p> <p>Mention organizational culture  Mention elements of organizational culture</p>	<p><i>Organizational Features:</i></p> <p>Promotional audio-visual material  Relevance of logo colors and general web design  Official social media links</p> <p><i>Technical Features:</i></p> <p>Logo linking to homepage  Web Map Service (Google, Yahoo, Bing etc.)  Currency - last updated indicator  Site Map / Index  Search Engine (0=none, 1=external search tool, 2= internal search tool)  Download time of homepage (developers.google.com)  Number of indexed pages in search engines</p>

**Table 2.** Comparative content analysis categories

Robbins and Stylianou's (2003) article divides categories into two sections as 'content' and 'design'; this study uses Overbeeke and Snizek's (2005) division as a basis, with regard to the discussion in Chapter 2.4.1.2. that suggests web appearance is more comprehensive than design; in the sense that it covers both the actual design of a web site and the strategic selection and positioning of web site content. Furthermore, as all three articles are slightly outdated considering the rapid change in web and information technologies, categories related to web appearance are redefined in relation to the main arguments of Gibson, Margolis, Resnick and Ward's (2003) article. Their sub-categories (1) glitz/multimedia, (2) access in principle, (3) navigation, and (4) freshness under the main category titled as *style and delivery* are associated with this study's sub-categories of technical features.

All main categories within the division titled as *content* within the comparative content analysis are based on the original main categories of Overbeeke and Snizek's (2005) article, with the exception of *communication*. The category *web appearance*, featured in their article, is omitted from the content part and redesigned as another division with new sub-categories. Subcategories of *professionalism* and *corporate culture as part of corporation* are also omitted from the research design as not to propose subjective evaluations that may lead to grading web sites towards an idealistic approach. Subcategories proposed by Robbins and Stylianou (2003), which are marked with an asterisk in Table 2, are added to the content division of the comparative content analysis. *User-response opportunity*, marked with a label in Table 2, is an adscititious subcategory as well. It

was proposed that user-friendly web sites should provide a chance for feedback between user and the web site, either by email, chat, online communities, suggested forms and so on (Hasan and Abuelrub, 2011).

Justifications for each subcategory of content analysis are as follows:

*Logos* are unique symbols of organizations that make reference to organizational culture and organizational identity. Logos help stimulate positive reactions in stakeholders of organizations by creating meaning. Organizational logos can feature letters, words or numbers (logo only); graphical symbols (organizational symbol) or logos and symbols together (Okay, 2003). For the analysis, logos are coded as such: 0 for organizations with no logos, 1 for logos in the form of signifying letters or organization name only and 2 for logos in pictorial form (logo+symbol).

*Mentioning founder and/or history* is an important category for reflecting organizational culture. Founders and history of an organization are highly related to each other since founders play a significant role in creation of organizational cultures; influencing members of the organization in the light of personal beliefs, values and assumptions. Mentioning founder was a category in Overbeeke and Snizek's article; history was added by the researcher from Robbins and Stylianou's article. Most of the state universities in Turkey do not have founding figures but all organizations have a history; therefore mentioning founders and/or history are coded with 1.

*Mentioning employee awards* promotes productivity, loyalty and commitment among organizational members and fosters a competitive work atmosphere (Meyer et al., 2010). On the other hand, *mentioning organizational awards* manifests organizational performance. Within a competitive global market, universities are expected to mention their awards within their web sites.

Heroic figures can indicate to leaders of organizations or other influential figures that are attained special importance for the organization. As heroes are role models for organizational members that personalizes values of an organization (Vural, 2012), *mention of heroic figures* are also important to organizational culture.

*Press releases* are important for organizations as they provide background information of the organization and its members (Robbins & Stylianou, 2003); moreover as they incorporate certain language related to the organization and generally include designs and logos of the organization, they are one of the visible artifacts of organizational culture within official web sites. Similarly, *organizational charts* are among the artifacts of culture since they provide stakeholders with organizational structures and members assigned to each position. These two categories were added by the researcher from Robbins and Stylianou's research article.

*Job openings* for both academic and administrative staff are included within the main category of organizational practices since Internet recruitment has become a common way for efficient perception of person-organization and person-

job fit (Chen, Lin & Chen, 2012). Candidate members of an organization can infer organizational culture and its practices through information provided by an official web site. Ease of navigation within the web site is also important for job seekers.

Stating *mission* and *vision statements* openly provides a picture for both organizational members and the general public. Mission statements are clear articulations of organizational goals, values and practices (Goodman, 1998) whereas vision statements represents or reflects shared values to which the organization should aspire (Kirkpatrick, Wofford & Baum, 2002). *Values* and *beliefs* are also articulated by organizations within official web sites. Values and beliefs, once deemed intrinsic to the organization, have become visible in the form of written statements. Furthermore, *strategies* and *objectives* are related directly to mission statements; strategies are 'big ideas' on how to reach the mission of organization, whereas objectives "concretize the mission and facilitate the decision on means" (Schein, 2004, p.93). Among these subcategories, mentioning vision statement was added from Robbins and Stylianou's article since initial observation of organizational web sites revealed that organizations tend to articulate mission and vision statements separately.

*Organizational phone number* and *e-mail* gives an opportunity to communicate with the organization in a formal way. This indicates to openness of organizational culture towards stakeholders. *User-response opportunity* as a subcategory was added by the researcher, referring to reciprocal communication between organization and stakeholders. Within this subcategory, online forms of

feedback, opinions and suggestions and online Information Request Form (Bilgi Edinme Hakkı Formu) are taken for evaluation. Information request forms can be interpreted as a reflection of 'good governance', since the related law suggests that people have the right to request information from legal personalities; "in accordance with principles of equality, impartiality and openness which are necessities of democratic and transparent management" (Resmi Gazete, 2003).

Within organization and society category, mentions of *code of conduct*, *environmental awareness*, *public needs* and *organization's contributions to society* help measure interaction between organization and the general public (Overbeeke & Snizek, 2005); furthermore they reflect on ethical principles and priorities of an organization. Peculiar to universities, contributions to society covers realizations of social projects, voluntary work and existence of lifelong education centers. *Language translation* subcategory was added from Robbins and Stylianou's article as it provides global access to non-native publics as well.

Overbeeke and Snizek (2005) argue that the distinction between particularly referencing the phrase 'organizational culture' and mentioning elements of organizational culture has not been discussed specifically in the literature. Indeed, differentiating these two forms of use enable reflections on the organization's understanding of its own culture. Within web sites, *mention of organizational culture* as a phrase was searched in organizational statements and reports; artifacts regarding organizational culture are gathered under the subcategory *mention of organizational elements*. These two subcategories indicate to self-awareness of

universities which stress the need for taking measures in the way of institutionalization.

Features of web appearance enable organizations to “develop an attractive, fully functional site” (Robbins & Stylianou, 2003). Some features of web appearance are in direct connection with organizational culture while other features are technical properties that should be considered while designing an official web site. For this reason, the division of web appearance is divided into two main categories as organizational features and technical features.

*Promotional audio-visual material* covers official promotional videos of universities, promotional catalogues, photo galleries and interactive features such as virtual tours of campuses. These materials enhance general attractiveness of organizational web sites and increase chances of returning visitors. *Relevance of logo colors and general web design* creates coherence and brings uniqueness to organizational web site. Additionally, social media integration of organizations is a new phenomenon that is central to organizational culture. It is advised that organizations should have official (and active) profiles in social media and incorporate social networking into relationship-building strategies (Waters et al., 2009). Therefore, placement of *official social media links* in university web sites is added to organizational features of web appearance.

Navigation is an important issue for user-friendly web designs. Organizational logos that direct users to the homepage is a simple but yet effective

way for ease of navigation. As users should not waste time on figuring out where they are within a web site, clickable *logo that links to homepage* of the web site provides a basic solution for organizational web sites (Nielsen & Tahir, 2001).

*Web map services* are among today's common occurrences of organizational web design. Search engines such as Google, Yahoo, Bing and Yandex offer free web mapping services to organizations that enable visitors to locate the organization and search for places nearby. Accessibility and actuality of web mapping services (van Elzakker et al., 2005) prevent the possibility of providing users with outdated information. As currency of information on the organizational web site is of vital importance, existence of *last updated indicator* is also included within the subcategories. However, as web sites are responsible for providing current content, last updated indicators are deemed as irrelevant especially for homepages of university web sites that are updated frequently.

*Site map or indexes* that order web pages within a web site from A to Z are one of the most important technical features of web appearance. Not only they ease navigation for visitors and create shorter paths for web pages but also they provide means for indexing every single page of a web site (Webpage Mistakes, 2012). *Number of indexed pages in search engines* indicates to the richness of web sites; in that case organizations should invest in indexing every single page of their official web sites in order not to leave out any content. Additionally, organizational web sites should include *internal or external search engines*. External search engine refers to searches conducted by search engines such as Google, Yahoo, MSN and so



on, whereas internal search engine indicates to an internal search tool that catches related words and phrases. Using an internal search tool draws attention to professionalism of an organizational web site since quality of search tool should match quality of information contained within a web site (Rudman, 2012). For analysis, web sites that have no search tools are marked with 0, external search tools with 1 and internal search tools with 2.

Last but not least, download time of homepage is important for returning visits and for affirmative perception of the organization. For objectively analyzing university web sites in terms of speed, Google Developers tool PageSpeed Insights<sup>7</sup> are used. PageSpeed Insights is a service that provides webmasters with a detailed analysis of errors and optimization problems within web sites and grades the web sites out of 100. High grades indicate well-optimized web pages.

There are two methodological problems identified with Overbeeke and Snizek's (2005) research article. Overbeeke and Snizek's method of grading web sites for professionalism is found methodologically incorrect for objective analysis and therefore not included within the scales for this analysis. In addition, they have taken the average of results that were coded in 0, 1 and 2s. For example, in their analysis of European Union food companies, the subcategory *logo* takes the value of 1.33. In order not to adjust these values, this study will both reveal number of codifications and their values in percentages.

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<sup>7</sup> For Google PageSpeed Insights, visit <https://developers.google.com/speed/pagespeed/> (Accessed on August 10, 2012).

### 4.3. Sample of Analysis

For the selection of state and foundation universities to be analyzed, to ensure a fair comparison across web sites; among URAP's (University Ranking by Academic Performance) ranking of top Turkish state and foundation universities, the latest lists (September 2011) which was declared by the institution in September 21, 2011 is taken into account (University Ranking by Academic Performance, 2011). URAP Research Laboratory was established in 2009 within the structure of Informatics Institute of Middle East Technical University. With an objective of developing a ranking system for the world universities based on academic performances (number of articles, citations, total documents, journal impact total, journal citation impact total, and international collaborations), URAP has organized a team consisting of a project team, an advisory board and a technical team and have announced two world rankings (categorized also under fields, countries and regions) and three Turkish university rankings so far. As of today, there exists no other valid list of universities in Turkey as there are commonly accepted lists on corporations; such as annual ranking of Fortune 500 (Fortune Magazine, 2011) in the global arena or Capital 500 (Capital Magazine, 2011) in Turkey. URAP listings are furthermore relevant with performativity of universities as institutions. Along with other criteria that assess performance and quality of education, URAP aims to evaluate higher education institutions on academic success, enable these universities to compare themselves with other institutions in terms of performance, help them to realize their sides which are open to improvement and openly share results of the rankings with the public

(University Ranking by Academic Performance, 2012). In that sense, it can be argued that URAP criteria are in line with other performance indicators that are directed towards enhancing the quality of educational output.

Among the separate lists of state and foundation universities in Turkey, top fifteen universities in each list are taken as sample of analysis. These universities are shown in Table 3 and Table 4 below.

Ranking	Institution	Ranking	Institution
1	HACETTEPE UNIVERSITY	1	SABANCI UNIVERSITY
2	MIDDLE EAST TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY	2	BILKENT UNIVERSITY
3	ISTANBUL UNIVERSITY	3	KOC UNIVERSITY
4	ANKARA UNIVERSITY	4	BASKENT UNIVERSITY
5	EGE UNIVERSITY	5	FATIH UNIVERSITY
6	ISTANBUL TECHNICAL UNIVERSITY	6	TOBB ECONOMICS AND TECHNOLOGY UNIVERSITY
7	GEBZE INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	7	YEDITEPE UNIVERSITY
8	GAZI UNIVERSITY	8	CANKAYA UNIVERSITY
9	IZMIR INSTITUTE OF TECHNOLOGY	9	ATILIM UNIVERSITY
10	BOGAZICI UNIVERSITY	10	DOGUS UNIVERSITY
11	ERCIYES UNIVERSITY	11	IZMIR UNIVERSITY OF ECONOMICS
12	ATATURK UNIVERSITY	12	ISTANBUL BILIM UNIVERSITY
13	ONDOKUZ MAYIS UNIVERSITY	13	KADIR HAS UNIVERSITY
14	CUKUROVA UNIVERSITY	14	OZYEGIN UNIVERSITY
15	DOKUZ EYLUL UNIVERSITY	15	ISTANBUL KULTUR UNIVERSITY

**Table 3.** Top 15 State Universities in URAP September 2011

**Table 4.** Top 15 Foundation Universities in URAP September 2011

For the comparative content analysis, thirty web sites shown in the above tables were visited for codification between May 2, 2012 and August 2, 2012. Screenshots of homepages of each web site, taken on August 2, 2012 can be found in the appendix.

For the analysis of the comparative tables and testing the hypotheses, data entries and test were conducted by SPSS 17.0. Provided that Hypothesis 2 will be tested in terms of significant differences, independent samples t-test will be conducted in order to check the hypothesis. The independent samples t-test establishes whether the means of two independent variables differ by correlating the difference between the two means; paying attention to their standard error in means of the different variables (Acton & Miller, 2009). Results of independent samples t-test therefore validate if there exists a statistically significant difference between two variables or not.<sup>8</sup> Additionally, cross tabulation is employed in order to reveal numeric and percentaged values of state and foundation universities. For the analysis, test outputs from SPSS are reproduced in Microsoft Word tables and further relevant data are added.

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<sup>8</sup> In independent samples t-test, similarities of variances between two groups are tested by “Levine’s Test for Equality of Variances”. The row “sig.” reveals the significance of variance. If the variances are equal in both groups then sig. will be greater than 0.05. If the value is less than 0.05, it represents inequality of variances. Therefore, if sig. indicates to unequal variances then the “Equal variances not assumed” column is used; otherwise the “Equal variances assumed” column is taken into account. Sig. (2-tailed) value will be the indicator of statistical significance. In any case, if sig. (2-tailed) value is less than 0.05, it can be concluded that there exists a statistically significant difference between two variances (Acton & Miller, 2009; Laerd Statistics, 2012). On independent samples t-test tables, related rows will be marked with bold font.

#### 4.4. Limitations

This study uses comparative content analysis as its method and focuses on web sites as artifacts of organizational culture. As also discussed in Chapter 1.3.1., Schein's (2004) preferred method of research is "clinical research", in which the subjects are motivated to reveal themselves and he claims that this only occurs when they perceive the benefit of this process. According to Schein, in order to fully explain an organization's culture, researchers should conduct clinical research in order to get into deeper levels of culture; artifacts are hard to decipher for an observer and they can only answer the question "What is going on here?" whereas by investigating deeper levels of culture, response to the question "Why are you doing what you are doing?" can be elicited. Still, Schein (2004) proposes that "Some cultural artifacts can be gathered by purely demographic methods or by observation at a distance, such as photographing buildings, observing action in the organization without getting involved..." (p.205). Web sites are therefore observable artifacts that can be studied as an outsider of an organization and are worth studying. In addition, making efficient use of social media is very beneficial for dynamic organizations such as universities. This study only offers data on whether universities in the sample have official social media accounts or not; further studies may also focus on social media uses of state and foundation universities in Turkey. The sample of study covers top 15 universities in each ranking of URAP; more comprehensive studies that qualitatively analyze all Turkish state and foundation universities can be conducted.

This study may elicit subjectivity since it deals with artifacts of organizational culture. Schein (2004) proposes that it is hard to reach conclusions for deeper levels of culture (values and assumptions) by studying artifacts only and that interpretations of artifacts may be biased; even though this study does not interpret artifacts in order to make deductions for organizational values and assumptions, there may be discussions and comments that are partially subjective in accordance with the nature of qualitative content analysis. On the other hand, the study aims to be as objective as possible by avoiding to rate web sites to reach an “ideal model” of university web site.

#### 4.5. Data Analysis and Discussion

In terms of content, web sites were analyzed by 5 main categories and 24 subcategories. Throughout this section, results of coded data are presented individually in terms of state and foundation universities’ scores in the analysis subcategories. Each table feature one main category and its subcategories. Independent samples t-test results are propounded subsequently.

Table 5 below presents individual scores of state and foundation universities in terms of *organizational practices*.

University	Logo	Mention founder/hist.	Mention emp. awards	Mention org. awards	Mention heroic fig.	Press rel.	Org. charts	Job openings
Hacettepe	2	1	1	0	1	0	0	1
METU	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
Istanbul	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Ankara	2	1	1	1	1	0	1	1
Ege	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
İTÜ	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
Gebze Y.T.E.	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
Gazi	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
İYTE	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
Boğaziçi	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Erciyes	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
Atatürk	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	0
On Dokuz Mayıs	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Çukurova	2	1	1	0	0	0	1	1
Dokuz Eylül	2	1	1	1	0	1	1	1
Sabancı	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
Bilkent	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Koç	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
Başkent	2	1	1	1	1	0	0	1
Fatih	2	1	0	1	0	1	0	1
TOBB	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
Yeditepe	2	1	1	0	0	1	1	1
Çankaya	2	1	0	0	0	0	0	1
Atılım	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1
Doğuş	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
İEU	2	1	1	1	0	0	1	1
Istanbul Bilim	2	1	0	0	0	0	1	1
Kadir Has	2	1	1	1	1	1	0	1
Özyeğin	2	1	1	1	0	1	0	1
Istanbul Kültür	2	1	1	1	0	0	0	1

**Table 5.** Organizational Practices of State and Foundation Universities

Universities	Logo						Total (n)	
	none		Letter/name		pictorial		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 6.** Universities and Logo Use

Comparative content analysis of thirty universities in total reveals that all universities have logos in pictorial format. Logos which establish associations and positive feelings with the organization are essential to modern web design and both state and foundation universities have adopted the contemporary professional tendency on logo designs that combines letters or words with pictorial elements.

Universities	Mention founder/history				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 7.** Mention of founder or history

Table 7 indicates that all universities have mentioned either their founder or history background of the organization within the web site. History of an organization resonates a strong organizational culture (Dal & Ceviz, 2010) and provides insights for basic assumptions and values of founders. It was furthermore observed that generally state universities included histories whereas most of foundation



universities featured both history of the organization and its founding figures. At rare occurrences in which state universities have included both history and founder(s), founding figures mostly corresponded to heroic figures as well.

Universities	Mention employee awards				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	3	20	12	80	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 8.** Mention of employee awards

When looking at mentioning of employee awards, 90% of all universities have revealed employee awards (only 3 foundation universities did not). Mention of employee awards plays an important role for organizational culture of universities both for internal and external stakeholders of the organization. Acts and behavior that reinforce core values and beliefs of an organization should be recognized by the organization and rewards should be widely publicized in order to sustain a strong organizational culture, to motivate members of the organization and to communicate cultural priorities (Deal & Kennedy, 2000). Official web sites serve as an effective channel that publicize and communicate cultural values and objectives through both employee and organization awards.

Universities	Mention organization awards				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	2	13	13	87	15	100
Foundation	3	20	12	80	15	100
Total	5	17	25	83	30	100

**Table 9.** Mention of organization awards

Table 9 reveals that 83% of thirty universities (25 out of 30) feature organizational awards within their websites. 2 of the state universities and 3 of the foundation universities did not present their organizational awards. Mention of organizational awards furthermore signifies prestige and a strong organizational culture. This potential of communicating organizational culture through mentioning employee and organization awards are put into use by both state and foundation universities. All state universities declared employee awards within their web sites and 80% (12 out of 15) of foundation universities did as well. Similarly, organization awards are featured in 13 of the state universities and 12 of the foundation universities. The difference observed between the portrayals of these types of awards is that organizational awards are mainly found in homepages of university web sites whereas employee awards are announced in news or within departmental sub-pages.

Universities	Mention heroic figure				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(% )
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	8	53	7	47	15	100
Foundation	11	73	4	27	15	100
Total	19	63	11	37	30	100

**Table 10.** Mention of heroic figure

The majority of the universities did not mention *heroic figures* (19 out of 30). Interestingly, only 4 out of 15 foundation universities have proposed heroic figures central to their organizational culture whereas 53% of state universities (8 out of 15) have introduced heroic personalities. On university web pages, it was observed that only founders of the university or Atatürk as Turkey's leader are mentioned as heroic figures. For example, Hacettepe University indicated İhsan Doğramacı as its founder. Similarly, Istanbul University grounded its history to Ottoman Empire as first university of Turkey and stated its founding figures from Ottoman emperors. On the other hand, among foundation universities Bilkent University made the most visible special reference to its founder as a heroic figure. The web site of Bilkent University includes a micro web site devoted to the founder İhsan Doğramacı. Initial expectations from university web sites by the researcher were that foundation universities would tend to highlight presidents of their foundation trusts due to differences in governance understanding between state and foundation universities; but in fact while 7 out of 15 state universities put forward heroic figures, only 4 of foundation universities did.

Universities	Press releases				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	12	80	3	20	15	100
Foundation	9	60	6	40	15	100
Total	21	70	9	30	30	100

**Table 11.** Presence of press releases

Press releases were absent in official university web sites by 70% (21 out of 30). Press releases are among effective organizational material that provides relationships between (mainly) external stakeholders. Even though many profit organizations include press releases within their organizational web sites, both state and foundation universities do not frequently distribute press releases. 80% of state universities and 60% of foundation universities did not have press releases within web sites during the period of analysis. Many of the universities had e-bulletins instead of press releases but bulletins were not coded within the category of press releases. Additionally, it was observed that state universities that had press releases within their web sites would not attain a specific category to press releases. On the other hand, in 5 of 6 foundation universities that had press releases, there were sub-categories for press releases under 'media', 'press room', 'media and public relations' or 'organizational communication'. Designing web content for specific stakeholders adds value to organizational communication and culture.

Universities	Organizational charts				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	7	47	8	53	15	100
Foundation	12	80	3	20	15	100
Total	19	63	11	37	30	100

**Table 12.** Presence of organizational charts

Likewise, 19 out of 30 universities did not reveal their organizational charts. Organizational charts are also among material artifacts of organizational culture (Brown, 1998) that provide insights to the structure of an organization. Whereas 53% of state universities revealed their organizational structure by organizational charts, only 20% of foundation universities did. Even though state universities tend to present organizational charts more than foundation universities do, it was observed that finding organizational charts within state university web sites were a lot harder compared to foundation universities. Foundation universities, if provided, put forward their organizational charts under the category of the same name or under categories named as 'administration'.

Universities	Job openings				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	1	3	29	97	30	100

**Table 13.** Presence of job openings

Table 13 indicates that 29 universities have featured job openings with the one exception from state universities (Atatürk University). Publicly declaring job openings through official web sites has become an important part of organizational understanding since Internet has made significant contributions to recruitment. In the case of universities, both academic and administrative job openings for candidate members of the organization were taken into consideration for the analysis. Results indicated that both state and foundation universities make use of the Internet for organizational recruitment; scoring 93% and 100% respectively. The difference between state and foundation universities in terms of announcing job opportunities was that foundation universities generally tend to devote special categories or links on the homepage. For example, job opportunities for Sabancı University can be found in 'Staff' category on the homepage, Koç University offers a link as 'Open Positions', Kadir Has University and Özyeğin University both have clickable tabs on the homepage that direct visitors to job opportunities.

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Mention employee awards	Equal variances assumed	24,889	<b>,000</b>	1,871	28	,072	,200	,107	-,019	,419
	Equal variances not assumed			1,871	14,000	<b>,082</b>	,200	,107	-,029	,429
Mention organization awards	Equal variances assumed	,924	<b>,345</b>	,475	28	<b>,638</b>	,067	,140	-,221	,354
	Equal variances not assumed			,475	27,290	,638	,067	,140	-,221	,354
Mention heroic figure	Equal variances assumed	3,646	<b>,067</b>	1,122	28	<b>,271</b>	,200	,178	-,165	,565
	Equal variances not assumed			1,122	27,603	,271	,200	,178	-,165	,565
Press releases	Equal variances assumed	5,333	<b>,029</b>	-1,183	28	,247	-,200	,169	-,546	,146
	Equal variances not assumed			-1,183	26,923	<b>,247</b>	-,200	,169	-,547	,147

Organizational charts	Equal variances assumed	7,537	<b>,010</b>	1,950	28	,061	,333	,171	-,017	,683
	Equal variances not assumed			1,950	26,736	<b>,062</b>	,333	,171	-,017	,684
Job openings	Equal variances assumed	4,639	<b>,040</b>	- 1,000	28	,326	-,067	,067	-,203	,070
	Equal variances not assumed			- 1,000	14,000	<b>,334</b>	-,067	,067	-,210	,076

**Table 14.** Independent Samples T-Test for Organizational Practices<sup>9</sup>

In order to test the main hypothesis of this study (H2: *There are no significant, observable differences between the official web sites of Turkish state and foundation universities regarding reflections of organizational culture; in terms of content and web appearance.*), each subcategory of the analysis is tested by independent samples t-test in SPSS. As all universities have pictorial logos and mentioned their founders or history, there exists no statistical difference between state and foundation universities; thus their results were omitted from the t-test.

In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 14, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of employee awards (0,082>0,05).

<sup>9</sup> Results for *logo* and *mention founder/history* subcategories cannot be computed since their standard deviations are 0.



- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of organizational awards ( $0,638 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of heroic figures ( $0,271 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of presence of press releases ( $0,247 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of presence of organizational charts ( $0,062 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of presence of job openings ( $0,334 > 0,05$ ).

As it is observed in Table 14, there are no observable, significant differences between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of *organizational practices*.

Table 15 below indicates the individual scores for the main category of *organization values*.

University	Mention mission statement	Mention vision statement	Mention values	Mention beliefs	Mention strategy	Mention objectives
Hacettepe	1	1	1	0	1	1
METU	1	0	0	0	1	1
Istanbul	1	1	1	0	1	1
Ankara	1	1	1	0	1	1
Ege	1	1	1	0	1	1
İTÜ	1	1	1	0	1	1
Gebze Y.T.E.	1	1	1	0	1	1
Gazi	1	1	1	0	1	1
İYTE	1	1	1	0	1	1
Boğaziçi	1	1	1	0	1	1
Erciyes	1	1	1	0	1	1
Atatürk	1	1	0	0	0	0
On Dokuz Mayıs	1	1	1	0	1	1
Çukurova	1	1	0	0	1	1
Dokuz Eylül	1	1	1	0	1	1
Sabancı	1	1	0	0	1	1
Bilkent	1	0	0	0	0	1
Koç	1	1	0	0	0	1
Başkent	1	1	1	0	1	1
Fatih	1	1	0	0	0	1
TOBB	1	1	0	0	0	1
Yeditepe	1	1	1	0	1	1
Çankaya	1	1	1	0	0	0
Atılım	1	1	1	0	1	1
Doğuş	1	1	0	0	1	1
IEU	1	1	1	0	1	1
Istanbul Bilim	1	1	1	0	0	1
Kadir Has	0	0	0	0	1	1
Özyeğin	1	1	1	0	0	0
Istanbul Kültür	1	1	1	0	1	1

**Table 15.** Organizational Values of State and Foundation Universities

Universities	Mention mission statement				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	1	7	14	93	15	100
Total	1	3	29	97	30	100

**Table 16.** Mention of mission statement

With the exception of one foundation university (Kadir Has University), all organizational web sites had separate articulations of mission statement.

Universities	Mention vision statement				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	2	13	13	87	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 17.** Mention of vision statement

Similarly, 27 out of 30 universities had articulated their *vision statements*. Only one of the state universities (METU) and two of the foundation universities (Bilkent University and Kadir Has University) have not proposed their vision.

Universities	Mention values				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	3	20	12	80	15	100
Foundation	7	47	8	53	15	100
Total	10	33	20	67	30	100

**Table 18.** Mention of values

Mention of core values of universities was present in 20 universities. In regard to comparison of state and foundation universities, 80% of state universities (12 out of 15) have mentioned their values whereas 53% of foundation universities (8 out of 15) have articulated values.

Universities	Mention beliefs				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	15	100	0	0	15	100
Foundation	15	100	0	0	15	100
Total	30	100	0	0	30	100

**Table 19.** Mention of beliefs

Table 19 reveals that none of thirty universities address their beliefs in their official web sites.

Universities	Mention strategy				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	7	47	8	53	15	100
Total	8	27	22	73	30	100

**Table 20.** Mention of strategy

73% of universities put forward their *strategies* (22 out of 30) either through mentioning them or publicly declaring strategic plans. Only one of the public universities (Atatürk University) did not stress its strategies whereas in 47% of foundation universities (7 out of 15) strategic plans or mention of strategy were present.

Universities	Mention objectives				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	2	13	13	87	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 21.** Mention of objectives

90% of the universities (27 out of 30) openly specify *objectives*. 14 out of 15 state universities have indicated their objectives with the exception of Atatürk University whereas 13 out of 15 foundation universities (except Çankaya University and Özyeğin University) have put forward objectives.

The main category of organizational values indicates that there are similarities between state and foundation universities in terms of mentioning mission and vision statements. State universities tend to express core values of the organization more than foundation universities and they made use of strategies more than foundation universities. It was observed that strategies and objectives are mostly expressed through strategic plans of organizations in both state and foundation universities. In some cases, values are also mentioned only in strategic plans. In most of the web sites, it was observed that mission and vision statements are repeated in strategic plans. (Only Kadir Has University does not devote a web page for mission, vision and values; including them only in strategic plan.) Beliefs are not mentioned in any of the university web sites. In addition to mission, vision and values; some universities include terms such as basic principles, philosophy, policies for depicting organizational insights. Additionally, two state universities (Istanbul Technical University and Erciyes University) mentioned their basic assumptions. These basic assumptions provide projections for Turkey's higher education system in the process of adaptation to global standards and expectations in social, political and economic global trends. A significance of the presence of values and basic assumptions can be noted; these two levels of organizational culture that were deemed as intrinsic and covert to the observer are publicly declared through official channels of organizations. In the context of universities, transparency of values was observed in 67% of state and foundation university web sites. In that sense, through official web sites it can be observed that values and basic assumptions once considered as partly unconscious (Schein, 2004) are open to the public and to opportunities of research.

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Mention mission statement	Equal variances assumed	4,639	<b>,040</b>	1,000	28	,326	,067	,067	-,070	,203
	Equal variances not assumed			1,000	14,000	<b>,334</b>	,067	,067	-,076	,210
Mention vision statement	Equal variances assumed	1,463	<b>,237</b>	,592	28	<b>,559</b>	,067	,113	-,164	,297
	Equal variances not assumed			,592	25,688	,559	,067	,113	-,165	,298
Mention values	Equal variances assumed	7,537	<b>,010</b>	1,560	28	,130	,267	,171	-,083	,617
	Equal variances not assumed			1,560	26,736	<b>,130</b>	,267	,171	-,084	,617
Mention strategy	Equal variances assumed	40,786	<b>,000</b>	2,683	28	,012	,400	,149	,095	,705
	Equal variances not assumed			2,683	20,588	<b>,014</b>	,400	,149	,090	,710

Mention objectives	Equal variances assumed	1,463	<b>,237</b>	,592	28	<b>,559</b>	,067	,113	-,164	,297
	Equal variances not assumed			,592	25,688	,559	,067	,113	-,165	,298

**Table 22.** Independent Samples T-Test for Organizational Values<sup>10</sup>

As none of the university web sites featured beliefs of the organization, beliefs subcategory was omitted from t-test. In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 22, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of mission statements ( $0,334 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning vision statements ( $0,559 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of values ( $0,130 > 0,05$ ).
- There exists a statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of strategies ( $0,014 < 0,05$ ).

<sup>10</sup> Results for *mention beliefs* subcategory cannot be computed since its standard deviation is 0.



- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their mentioning of objectives (0,559>0,05).

As it is observed in Table 22, there exists a significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of the subcategory *mention strategy*. (%93 of state universities mentioned strategies whereas only %53 of foundation universities did.) In other subcategories of *organizational values*, there were no statistically significant differences between state and foundation universities.

Table 23 below shows individual scores of Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of *communication*.

University	Organizational phone number	E-mail opportunity	User-response opportunity
Hacettepe	1	1	1
METU	1	1	1
Istanbul	1	1	0
Ankara	1	1	1
Ege	1	1	0
İTÜ	1	1	0
Gebze Y.T.E.	1	1	0
Gazi	1	1	1
İYTE	1	1	1
Boğaziçi	1	1	1
Erciyes	1	1	1
Atatürk	1	1	1
On Dokuz Mayıs	1	1	1
Çukurova	1	1	1
Dokuz Eylül	1	1	1
Sabancı	1	1	1
Bilkent	1	1	1
Koç	1	1	0

Başkent	1	1	1
Fatih	1	1	1
TOBB	1	1	0
Yeditepe	1	1	0
Çankaya	1	1	1
Atılım	1	1	0
Doğuş	1	1	0
IEU	1	1	1
Istanbul Bilim	1	1	1
Kadir Has	1	1	0
Özyeğin	1	1	1
Istanbul Kültür	1	1	0

**Table 23.** Communication results for state and foundation universities

Universities	Organizational phone number				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 24.** Presence of organizational phone number

Table 24 reveals that all universities have organizational phone numbers presented in their official web sites.

Universities	E-mail opportunity				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 25.** Presence of e-mail opportunity

Similarly, all universities have e-mail opportunities provided within their organizational web sites.

Universities	User-response opportunity				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	4	27	11	73	15	100
Foundation	7	47	8	53	15	100
Total	11	37	19	63	30	100

**Table 26.** Presence of user-response opportunity

Table 26 shows that 11 out of 15 state universities (73%) have enabled user-response opportunity whereas 8 of the foundation universities (53%) have incorporated user-response feature.

Under communication main category, existence of organizational phone number, e-mail and user-response opportunity were coded for analysis. Communicative aspects of the analysis reveal that relatively traditional methods of communication are fully adapted to organizational web sites whereas reciprocal communication is not properly maintained yet. Both organizational phone number and organizational e-mail have come to be accepted as ‘traditional’ modes of communication in an age of technological progress. Still, they are effective tools in reaching an organization to get information and provide feedback. Both state and foundation universities have organizational phone numbers and e-mail opportunity within their web sites. An additional category as user-response opportunity was not

fully explored by either types of universities yet. However, it was observed that state universities have made more use of user-response opportunity by providing online forms of feedback and information request; paving the way for reciprocal communication. The actual performance of user-response opportunities provided by universities should be central to another research.

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
								95% Confidence Interval of the Difference		
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
User-response opportunity	Equal variances assumed	3,646	<b>,067</b>	1,122	28	<b>,271</b>	,200	,178	-,165	,565
	Equal variances not assumed			1,122	27,603	,271	,200	,178	-,165	,565

**Table 27.** Independent Samples T-Test for Communication<sup>11</sup>

As both state and foundation universities have organizational phone numbers and e-mail opportunity, these subcategories were omitted from the t-test. In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 27, results of the hypothesis are such:

<sup>11</sup> Results for *organizational phone number* and *e-mail opportunity* subcategories cannot be computed since their standard deviations are 0.

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of their employment of user-response opportunity ( $0,271 > 0,05$ ).

As it is tested in Table 27, there are no significant, observable differences between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of *communication*.

Table 28 below presents individual scores for state and foundation universities in *Organization and Society* main category.

University	Mention code of conduct	Organization is environmentally aware	Emphasis on public needs	Organization contributes to society	Language translation
Hacettepe	1	1	1	1	1
METU	1	1	1	1	1
Istanbul	1	1	1	1	0
Ankara	1	1	1	1	1
Ege	1	1	1	1	1
İTÜ	1	1	1	1	1
Gebze Y.T.E.	1	1	1	1	1
Gazi	1	1	1	1	1
İYTE	1	1	1	1	1
Boğaziçi	1	1	1	1	1
Erciyes	1	1	1	1	1
Atatürk	1	1	1	1	1
On Dokuz Mayıs	1	1	1	1	1
Çukurova	1	1	1	1	1
Dokuz Eylül	1	1	1	1	1
Sabancı	1	1	1	1	1
Bilkent	1	1	1	1	1
Koç	1	1	1	1	1
Başkent	1	1	1	1	1
Fatih	1	1	1	1	1
TOBB	0	0	1	1	1
Yeditepe	1	0	1	1	1
Çankaya	0	0	1	1	1
Atılım	1	1	1	1	1
Doğuş	1	1	1	1	1
IEU	1	1	1	1	1

Istanbul Bilim	1	1	1	1	1
Kadir Has	1	1	1	1	1
Özyeğin	0	1	1	1	1
Istanbul Kültür	1	1	1	1	1

**Table 28.** Results for state and foundation universities in terms of Organization and Society

Universities	Mention code of conduct				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	3	20	12	80	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 29.** Mention of code of conduct

27 out of 30 universities in total have mentioned code of conduct. Table 29 indicates that all state universities in the sample have pointed out to ethical codes and responsibilities whereas 12 out of 15 foundation universities have stressed their codes of conduct.

Universities	Organization is environmentally aware				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	3	20	12	80	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 30.** Presence of emphasis on environmental awareness of universities

Similarly, Table 30 reveals that 90% of state and foundation universities (27 out of 30) have emphasized environmental awareness. All state universities have stressed environmental awareness whereas 3 of foundation universities did not.

Universities	Emphasis on public needs				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 31.** Presence of emphasis on public needs

Table 31 reveals that all universities emphasized their concern for public needs.

Universities	Organization contributes to society				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	30	100	30	100

**Table 32.** Mention of organizational contributions to society

Likewise, all universities in the sample have specified their organizational contributions to the society.

Universities	Language translation				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	1	3	29	97	30	100

**Table 33.** Presence of language translation

29 out of 30 universities have provided visitors with language translation, with the exception of Istanbul University.

In the division *Organization and Society*, there are similar tendencies within the mentioning of each subcategory. This category includes important demands of civil society and addresses ethical and social responsibility issues. It is observed that state universities have carefully implemented these issues into their priorities and all of them mentioned code of conduct, their environmental awareness as a social organization, public needs and necessity of making contributions to society. Foundation universities as well addressed these issues within their web sites. It is essential for organizations to become a responsible and significant member of its community (Goodman, 1998); therefore corporate citizenship plays an important role in sustaining a strong organizational culture. Universities as organizations which are responsible members of its global and surrounding community should live up to the expectations of the society and serve to the publics. Mentions of these ethical and social issues within mission, vision or values are actualized by ethical councils, voluntary projects, social facilities, philanthropic activities and so on. Additionally,



language translation is an important feature provided in web sites in order to make strong connections between organization and the society. Only one state university does not have language option to its web site; other universities have English translations of web sites while three of foundation universities have more than one language option. Atılım, Özyeğin and İstanbul Kültür universities have multiple language options for their different target stakeholders.

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Mention code of conduct	Equal variances assumed	24,889	<b>,000</b>	1,871	28	,072	,200	,107	-,019	,419
	Equal variances not assumed			1,871	14,000	<b>,082</b>	,200	,107	-,029	,429
Organization is environmentally aware	Equal variances assumed	24,889	<b>,000</b>	1,871	28	,072	,200	,107	-,019	,419
	Equal variances not assumed			1,871	14,000	<b>,082</b>	,200	,107	-,029	,429

Language translation	Equal variances assumed	4,639	,040	-	28	,326	-,067	,067	-,203	,070
	Equal variances not assumed			1,000	-14,000	,334	-,067	,067	-,210	,076

**Table 34.** Independent Samples T-Test for Organization and Society<sup>12</sup>

As all universities expressed their concern for public needs and emphasized their contributions to society, these subcategories were omitted from the independent samples t-test. In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 34, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of mentioning code of conduct (0,082>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of mentioning environmental awareness (0,082>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of providing users with language translation (0,334>0,05).

As it is observed in Table 34, there are no statistically significant differences between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of *organization and society* main category.

<sup>12</sup> Results for *emphasis on public needs* and *organization contributes to society* subcategories cannot be computed since their standard deviations are 0.

Table 35 below presents individual scores for the category *Organizational Culture*.

University	Mention organizational culture	Mention elements of organizational culture
Hacettepe	1	1
METU	0	1
Istanbul	0	1
Ankara	1	1
Ege	1	1
İTÜ	0	1
Gebze Y.T.E.	0	1
Gazi	1	1
İYTE	0	1
Boğaziçi	1	1
Erciyes	0	1
Atatürk	0	1
On Dokuz Mayıs	0	1
Çukurova	0	1
Dokuz Eylül	0	1
Sabancı	1	1
Bilkent	1	1
Koç	0	1
Başkent	1	1
Fatih	0	1
TOBB	0	1
Yeditepe	0	1
Çankaya	0	1
Atılım	0	1
Doğuş	1	1
IEU	1	1
Istanbul Bilim	0	1
Kadir Has	1	1
Özyeğin	1	1
Istanbul Kültür	1	1

**Table 35.** Organizational culture subcategory results of state and foundation universities

Universities	Mention organizational culture				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	10	67	5	33	15	100
Foundation	7	47	8	53	15	100
Total	17	57	13	43	30	100

**Table 36.** Mention of organizational culture

Table 36 shows that only 33% of state universities (5 out of 15) and 53% of foundation universities (8 out of 15) have made special references to organizational culture as a term.

Universities	Mention elements of organizational culture				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	0	0	15	100	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	0	0	15	100	30	100

**Table 37.** Mention of elements of organizational culture

All universities have mentioned elements of organizational culture; usually more than one element was mentioned in many of the web sites.

Interestingly, even though all universities have mentioned *elements of organizational culture*, 17 out of 30 universities have not made specific reference to *organizational culture*. Only 33% of state universities (5 out of 15) have specifically

mentioned organizational culture whereas 53% of foundation universities (8 out of 15) addressed the concept of organizational culture. The differentiation between specially referencing organizational culture and mentioning elements of organizational culture was put forward in Overbeeke and Snizek's (2005) research note. Their analysis provided the insight that elements of organizational culture are frequently used within organizational web sites but organizational culture was not addressed directly. Similarly, analysis of university web sites reveal that each of state and foundation university web sites mentions elements of organizational culture whereas organizational culture is openly referenced only in 5 state universities and 8 foundation universities. These specific mentions of organizational culture were found in strategic plans, vision statements and within the statements of human resources departments.

Independent Samples Test										
		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Mention organizational culture	Equal variances assumed	1,544	,224	-1,090	28	,285	-,200	,183	-,576	,176
	Equal variances not assumed			-27,911	1,090	,285	-,200	,183	-,576	,176

**Table 38.** Independent Samples T-Test for Organizational Culture<sup>13</sup>

As all universities have mentioned elements of organizational culture, the subcategory was omitted from the t-test. In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 38, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of mentioning organizational culture (0,285>0,05).

<sup>13</sup> Results for *mention elements of organizational culture* subcategory cannot be computed since its standard deviation is 0.

As it is presented in Table 38, there are no significant differences between state and foundation universities analyzed in the sample, regarding the main category of *organizational culture*.

Table 39 below indicates individual scores for *organizational features of web appearance*.

University	Promotional audio-visual material	Relevance of logo colors and general web design	Official social media links
Hacettepe	1	1	1
METU	1	1	1
Istanbul	1	1	1
Ankara	1	1	0
Ege	1	1	1
İTÜ	1	1	1
Gebze Y.T.E.	1	0	1
Gazi	1	1	1
İYTE	1	1	1
Boğaziçi	1	1	1
Erciyes	1	0	0
Atatürk	1	0	1
On Dokuz Mayıs	1	1	1
Çukurova	0	1	0
Dokuz Eylül	1	1	0
Sabancı	1	0	1
Bilkent	1	1	1
Koç	1	1	1
Başkent	1	0	1
Fatih	1	1	1
TOBB	1	0	1
Yeditepe	1	1	1
Çankaya	0	0	1
Atılım	1	1	1
Doğuş	1	1	1
IEU	1	1	1
Istanbul Bilim	1	1	1
Kadir Has	1	1	1
Özyeğin	1	0	1
Istanbul Kültür	1	1	1

**Table 39.** Organizational features of state and foundation university web sites

Universities	Promotional audio-visual material				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	1	7	14	93	15	100
Foundation	1	7	14	93	15	100
Total	2	7	28	93	30	100

**Table 40.** Presence of promotional audio-visual material

28 out of 30 universities have used *promotional audio-visual material* to enhance attractiveness of organizational web site; with the exceptions of one from each classification of universities (Çukurova University among state, Çankaya University among foundation) respectively.

Universities	Relevance of logo colors and general web design				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	3	20	12	80	15	100
Foundation	5	33	10	67	15	100
Total	8	27	22	73	30	100

**Table 41.** Relevance of logo colors and general web design

Analysis reveals that 73% of universities (22 out of 30) have paid attention to the relevance of logo colors and general web design. 80% of state universities (12 out of 15) have their official web sites designed in accordance with logo colors whereas 67% of foundation universities (10 out of 15) feature relevant web designs.



Universities	Official social media links				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	4	27	11	73	15	100
Foundation	0	0	15	100	15	100
Total	4	13	26	87	30	100

**Table 42.** Presence of official social media links

26 university web sites have working links to their official social media profiles. All foundation universities have official social media links whereas 73% of state universities (11 out of 15) have connected their official web sites with their official social media profiles.

Web appearance of official university web sites are examined by two main categories as organizational features and technical features, having 10 subcategories. Web appearance is of equal importance to web content for organizations since professionally created content and appearance create integrity. Among organizational features related to web appearance, web sites offer opportunities for promotional audio-visual materials that bear traces and clues of organizational culture. Effective use of audio-visual materials also provides interactivity and attractiveness for organizational web sites. 93% of both state and foundation universities makes use of promotional audio-visual materials such as promotional videos, promotional catalogues, photo galleries and virtual tours. It was observed foundation universities tend to use these features more animatedly. In terms of relevance between general web design and logo colors, state

universities had a percentage of 80 whereas 67% of foundation universities addressed this issue. In modern web design, users expect catchiness and coherence between logo of the organization and other elements of visual communication (Yalçın, 2012). Consequently, relevance of organizational design and logo provides an insight for professionalism and therefore must be considered while visualizing web appearance. Lastly, existence of working, official social media links was searched within university web sites. It was found out that all foundation universities within the sample of analysis have official social profiles within social media channels while 73% of state universities have them. Targeting a global and dynamic audience, universities should make use of official social media channels together with official web sites. Social media use as a new phenomenon can be analyzed for universities in particular through further research.

**Independent Samples Test**

	Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
	F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
								Lower	Upper
Promotional audio-visual material	,000	<b>1,000</b>	,000	28	<b>1,000</b>	,000	,094	-,193	,193
Equal variances assumed			,000	28,000	1,000	,000	,094	-,193	,193
Equal variances not assumed									

Relevance of logo colors and general web design	Equal variances assumed	2,635	<b>,116</b>	,807	28	<b>,426</b>	,133	,165	-,205	,472
	Equal variances not assumed			,807	27,277	,427	,133	,165	-,206	,472
Official social media links	Equal variances assumed	50,286	<b>,000</b>	-2,256	28	,032	-,267	,118	-,509	-,025
	Equal variances not assumed			-2,256	14,000	<b>,041</b>	-,267	,118	-,520	-,013

**Table 43.** Independent Samples T-Test for Organizational Features

In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 43, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of employing promotional audio-visual materials within official websites ( $1,000 > 0,05$ ).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of relevance of logo colors and general web design ( $0,426 > 0,05$ ).
- There exists a statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of having official social media links on organizational web sites ( $0,041 < 0,05$ ).

As Table 43 reveals, there exists a significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in the sample in terms of existence of official social media

links. While all foundation universities have official social media profiles, 4 out of 15 state universities did not.

Table 44 presents individual scores of Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of *technical features* of web appearance.

University	Logo linking to homepage	Web Map Service	Currency/last updated indicator	Site Map/Index	Search engine (0=none, 1=external search tool, 2=internal search tool)	Download time of homepage	Number of indexed pages in search engines
Hacettepe	1	0	0	1	2	74	113000
METU	1	1	0	1	1	82	265000
Istanbul	1	1	1	0	2	63	351000
Ankara	1	0	0	1	1	41	335000
Ege	1	1	0	0	0	54	147000
İTÜ	1	1	0	0	0	58	162000
Gebze Y.T.E.	1	1	0	1	2	63	22400
Gazi	1	1	0	0	1	94	162000
İYTE	1	1	1	1	2	73	81200
Boğaziçi	1	1	0	1	2	64	115000
Erciyes	1	1	1	1	1	79	85900
Atatürk	1	1	0	0	2	55	66600
On Dokuz Mayıs	1	0	0	1	2	51	46600
Çukurova	0	0	0	1	1	61	101000
Dokuz Eylül	0	1	1	0	0	39	143000
Sabancı	1	1	0	1	1	69	122000
Bilkent	0	0	0	1	1	58	160000
Koç	1	1	0	0	1	54	52700
Başkent	1	0	0	1	1	63	38100
Fatih	1	1	1	1	1	34	86900
TOBB	1	1	0	1	2	80	22500
Yeditepe	1	0	0	0	1	90	18900
Çankaya	1	1	0	1	1	74	47500
Atılım	1	0	0	0	2	66	34800

Doğuş	1	1	0	0	0	76	16100
IEU	1	1	0	0	0	71	49800
Istanbul Bilim	1	1	0	1	0	32	1690
Kadir Has	1	0	0	1	2	72	9110
Özyeğin	1	1	0	0	2	87	18300
Istanbul Kültür	1	1	0	1	1	59	47200

**Table 44.** Technical features of state and foundation university web sites

Universities	Logo linking to homepage				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	2	13	13	87	15	100
Foundation	1	7	14	93	15	100
Total	3	10	27	90	30	100

**Table 45.** Logo linking to homepage

In terms of technical features, 90% of universities (27 out of 30) enabled *logo linking to homepage* for ease of navigation. 13 of state universities and 14 of foundation universities have successfully linked their organizational logos to every occurrence within their web sites.

Universities	Web map service				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	4	27	11	73	15	100
Foundation	5	33	10	67	15	100
Total	9	30	21	70	30	100

**Table 46.** Presence of web map service

21 university web sites have incorporated online web mapping services. Figures are similar within state-foundation university comparison; 11 state universities and 10 foundation universities have web map services.

Universities	Currency / last updated indicator				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	11	73	4	27	15	100
Foundation	14	93	1	7	15	100
Total	25	83	5	17	30	100

**Table 47.** Presence of currency indicator

Only 17% of the universities (5 out of 30) have signaled that they offer up-to-date content by the use of last updated indicator. With the exception of one from foundation universities (Başkent University) and four from state universities, university web sites do not have currency indicators.

Universities	Site Map / Index				Total	
	absent		present		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	6	40	9	60	15	100
Foundation	6	40	9	60	15	100
Total	12	40	18	60	30	100

**Table 48.** Presence of site map or indexing

12 universities not having *site map or indexing* feature within their web sites provide an interesting insight. 60% of both state and foundation universities (6 out of each 15) do not feature site maps or indexes.

Universities	Search engine						Total (n)	
	none		external		internal		(n)	(%)
	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)	(n)	(%)		
State	3	20	5	33	7	47	15	100
Foundation	3	20	8	53	4	27	15	100
Total	6	20	13	43	11	37	30	100

**Table 49.** Search engine use of universities

Table 49 related to the use of search engines reveals that 6 universities either do not have search bars or their search options are not working properly, whereas 13 university websites have external search tools and 11 of them have internal search engines powered by their own databases. Among both state and foundation universities, 3 in each division do not have search option. 7 out of 15 state universities have integrated internal search optimization to their official web sites whereas only 4 foundation universities have made use of internal search tools.

Technical features regarding web appearance are related to ease of navigation, speed and positive web experience. Logo featured on every page of web site that directs the user to the homepage is a simple but effective way to ease navigation. Likewise, site mapping, indexing and search options provide visitors with a better experience in terms of navigability and reaching content. Results show that many of the university web sites have enabled logos as a link to homepage (13 of state universities and 14 of foundation universities). 67% of foundation universities

and 73% of state universities have integrated web mapping services to their web sites; usually found under campus information or communication. Last updated indicators are used only in 4 of state university web sites and 1 in foundation university web sites. As organizations are expected to provide current and relevant information, the existence of such indicators on official web sites are noted negatively.

Many of the state and foundation universities make use of either internal or external search tools (80% in total for both types of universities) but there exists problems with the actual operation of search tools, as mentioned earlier in this section. Additionally, it was observed that search bars are hard to recognize in some university web sites (e.g.: Başkent University's search bar is placed vertically in between the page) and some of university web sites' search bars are not functional (e.g.: Ege University and Dokuz Eylül University).

Comparisons for download time of homepages and number of indexed pages are not shown in percentages in the detailed table of analysis. According to Google PageSpeed Insights, the highest value is 94 out of 100 whereas the lowest is only 32. Between state universities, Gazi University got the best result (94) and Dokuz Eylül University scored poorly with 39. Among foundation universities, Yeditepe University scored 90 and Istanbul Bilim University got the score of 32 which is the lowest in total. On average, scores for state universities range between 50 and 60 whereas foundation universities range between 60 and 70. On the other hand, Google in-site search reveals that Istanbul University has the most indexed



pages within search engines by the vast number of 351.000 whereas Istanbul Bilim University has 1.690 indexed pages. Lowest indexing among state universities was 46.600 (On Dokuz Mayıs University) and Bilkent had the highest indexing number among foundation universities with 160.000 indexes. Many of the state universities have more than 100.000 indexed pages whereas many of the foundation universities fall below the range of 50.000. Technically, it is observed that official web sites of universities are not professionally designed well enough in terms of speed and navigation. Many of the university websites scored under 70-75 range which indicates to technical errors and optimization problems within web sites. Download speed of homepage in particular is important for user first impression and returning visits (Sayımer, 2008). Considering that one of the biggest web sites of today, Facebook.com, gets a score of 99 in PageSpeed Insights, organizational web sites should at least get scores between 85 and 90 in order to generate interest. Finally, number of indexed pages in search engines provides insights for richness of content within a web site. Numbers can vary due to two main reasons; one is the total period of organizational presence on the Internet and second is fine optimization. In terms of universities, it can be observed that most of state universities have more than 100.000 pages indexed whereas only two of the foundation universities have reached that much content. Founded in 2006, Istanbul Bilim University has the least amount of indexed pages; in that case it can be inferred that as the Internet presence is prolonged, indexed pages are expected to increase in numbers.

**Independent Samples Test**

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means						
									95% Confidence Interval of the Difference	
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Error Difference	Lower	Upper
Logo linking to homepage	Equal variances assumed	1,463	<b>,237</b>	-,592	28	<b>,559</b>	-,067	,113	-,297	,164
	Equal variances not assumed			-,592	25,688	,559	-,067	,113	-,298	,165
Web Map Service	Equal variances assumed	,592	<b>,448</b>	,386	28	<b>,702</b>	,067	,173	-,287	,421
	Equal variances not assumed			,386	27,886	,702	,067	,173	-,287	,421
Currency - last updated indicator	Equal variances assumed	11,146	<b>,002</b>	1,474	28	,152	,200	,136	-,078	,478
	Equal variances not assumed			1,474	22,090	<b>,155</b>	,200	,136	-,081	,481
Site Map / Index	Equal variances assumed	,000	<b>1,000</b>	,000	28	<b>1,000</b>	,000	,185	-,379	,379
	Equal variances not assumed			,000	28,000	1,000	,000	,185	-,379	,379

Search Engine	Equal variances assumed	1,428	<b>,242</b>	,728	28	<b>,473</b>	,200	,275	-,363	,763
	Equal variances not assumed			,728	27,562	,473	,200	,275	-,363	,763

**Table 50.** Independent Samples T-Test for Technical Features<sup>14</sup>

In accordance with the sig (2-tailed) values marked in Table 50, results of the hypothesis are such:

- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of employing logo linking to homepage (0,559>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of including web map service (0,702>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of currency (0,155>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of employing site maps or indexing (1,000>0,05).
- There is no statistically significant difference between Turkish state and foundation universities in terms of uses of search engine (0,473>0,05).

<sup>14</sup> Results for *download time of homepage* and *number of indexed pages in search engines* subcategories are not computed in independent samples t-test since the two subcategories were not coded in SPSS.

As it is observed in Table 50, there are no observable, significant differences between state and foundation universities in terms of *technical features* of web appearance.

Upon careful analysis of content and web appearance features of Turkish state and foundation universities, comparative content analysis of official web sites offers insights into organizational cultures of universities. Evaluation of university web sites reveals that many universities do not have fully-professional web sites in terms of both content and web design. While investigating organizational web sites, one of the most important obstacles for researchers observed is that web content is not designed well enough to produce ease of navigation. Even though most university web sites featured internal or external search tools, site maps or indexes, these supportive features do not operate well enough to meet user-friendliness expectations. Some of the main pages and sub-pages are not included within site maps or indexes of web sites; or they are not optimized well enough to appear in searches. Additionally, some content related to organizational culture are classified within single pages (e.g.: mission, vision, values in one long page) or important announcements such as job opportunities and awards are not visible enough for first-time visitors. It is noteworthy that the research process took long enough than expected because of navigational problems. Many of the content related to organizational culture were found out by searching key words in search engines. This is a serious problem for universities as organizations that are considered as centers of excellence and professionalism in today's highly competitive education system. Visitors, who are each stakeholders of the organization, should not be

spending a lot of time trying to find relevant information. Universities as professional organizations should therefore design well-optimized web pages in order to reflect their organizational cultures.

Comparative content analysis of thirty Turkish state and foundation universities revealed that global trends in higher education governance do influence organizational cultures of universities. Global expectations of professionalism, transparency, accountability, accuracy and accessibility are met through official web sites of universities by communicating organizational values and practices to both internal and external stakeholders. Additionally, corporate citizenship as an ideal for organizational cultures directs universities towards being an open, socially responsible member of the community. It is observed that analyzing organizational web sites provides new and exciting insights into universities' organizational cultures (Overbeeke & Snizek, 2005). The analysis revealed that there are no significant, observable differences in many aspects of official university web sites in terms of content and web appearance; however it was further observed that both Turkish state and foundation universities are not using the full potential and possibilities offered by web sites. There are problems related to speed and navigation that directly affects user experience and there are some features embedded within the web site which are not working. Inactive links conflict with the idea of professionalism; therefore it is suggested that organizations should carefully review content and web appearance that feature on the Internet. Download speed of web sites, especially the homepage, is very important for first impression and returning visits to be generated. In that sense, universities should

optimize their homepages and check for errors in coding and design. In today's highly networked society, managing official social network profiles for universities have become an important part of organizational strategy. Universities as part of their organizational identity should manage official profiles to communicate with external stakeholders in particular. Not only the presence of official profiles but also the comprehensive management of such profiles is significant. Even though it was not under the scope of the analysis, it was observed that mission and vision statements; strategies and objectives of organizations are misused or confused frequently. These statements should be clearly articulated in order to effectively reflect organizational culture. In sum, with its dynamic and ever-changing qualities, study of organizational culture and official presence on the Internet provides indefinite opportunities for organizational research.

## CONCLUSION

Universities are organizations that take active roles on many aspects such as providing education, conducting scientific research that would contribute to the society, raising manpower that will serve both to its nation and the global community. Furthermore, universities are open systems that interact with many stakeholders; including both internal parties such as academic and administrative members, students and graduates and external institutions such as government, legislative bodies, local, national and global communities, research institutions, other universities, media and so on. In today's societies, universities as an active producer and disseminator of information have gained vital importance more than ever. Information has become common denominator of global social, political and economic policies as information and communication technologies rapidly developed since 1970's. Resulting in the interdependence of the world societies, the new phenomenon that is defined as Information Society rules and heavily influences social, cultural and economic aspects of modern living; having increased its intensity especially since 1990's after Internet has become accessible to general use.

Retrospectively, it can be observed that organizations had been highly affected by modes of production, political conceptions that follow economic policies and social notions and expectations that shape themselves accordingly. In the case of universities, three distinguished models of organization and management come forward. These are chronologically Middle Age University (feudal systems, Church authority and scholastic thought), Modern University (capitalism, modernization, nation-state empowerment and industrialization) and Entrepreneurial University (post-Fordism, Information Age and Society, globalization, neoliberalism, and entrepreneurship). Universities as organizations had to address the need for a new model; in today's highly networked societies that operate within a competitive global market of information and services, universities are expected to make specific contributions to the society. These contributions are mainly conducting scientific research that can be put into use by (entrepreneurial) universities themselves or provide practical solutions for the industry, giving *qualified, mass education* that will endow members of the society with necessary skills and knowledge to compete in a global market, catching up with the pace of information and communication technologies and provide diversified, interdisciplinary and multidisciplinary education and research, supporting national, local and global communities and building transparent, reciprocal relationships with its stakeholders by *good governance and accountability*; however, using fewer state-funded resources while meeting these expectations (YÖK, 2007). Global expectations, tendencies and policies have a direct effect on universities as competitive agents of the Information Age. Global and national demands canalize



organizational values, assumptions, goals and strategies; universities are therefore expected to have been influenced by global trends in higher education governance.

Entrepreneurial universities, aiming to respond to requirements of Informational Age, ought to be governed professionally by a combination of academics in charge of academic decision-making and administrators performing financial management and sustaining good governance. In that sense, it is projected that universities should operate within the framework of corporate governance and adopt professional management insights; resulting in governments having minimal intervention in financial and administrative issues of universities (Yavuz, 2012). Even though there are strong criticisms on the promotion of this new model on the global scale, it is an undeniable occurrence that entrepreneurial model of universities, originated in the United States, is persistently becoming the widespread model for higher education system. Transition from modern universities to an understanding of entrepreneurship in education, starting from 1980's and intensifying in 1990's, can be traced back in recent history of Turkish higher education system. Defined as an "agent of privatization" (Özbudun & Demirer, 2006), YÖK system has been criticized for promoting foundation universities against state universities. Surfacing with a soul of entrepreneurship that aims to provide university-industry cooperation, foundation universities have become favorable for Turkish governments that followed global neoliberal policies. Established by foundations that have direct connections with family-run businesses, local chambers of commerce or individual entrepreneurs, these universities not only ease the burden of state-funded expenditures on education but also provide both the

civil society and the state with desired model of higher education. As foundation universities are governed by Board of Trustees which is mainly management professionals, they brought about new principles and values to higher education arena such as corporate governance, accountability, transparency, excellence, total quality management, standardization and being open to external evaluation. Coexisting in a global market, state universities were driven to meet the new requirements proposed by entrepreneurial model.

Within an age that is highly dependent on information production, management and sharing, transparency has become an important issue for organizations. Universities, as institutions that serve to public interests, need to prioritize main principles of transparency in governance and decisions; therefore their organizational cultures and their elements should be in line with these principles (Erkip, 2003). In a demand-centric environment, systematic study of organizational web sites can provide insights to organizational culture and its dynamic elements. As technological developments have directed organizations to take new measures for communicating with various stakeholders that actively seek information combined with the global pressures for transparency in communication and management, official web sites of organizations have become an external source of information for organizational research. Therefore, this study aimed at revealing reflections of organizational culture through official university web sites. Fifteen state universities and fifteen foundation universities in Turkey were analyzed by comparative, qualitative content analysis to see if there were observable differences between official web sites of state and foundation

universities in terms of content and web appearance related to organizational culture. Organizational practices, organizational values, communicational elements, organization-society relationships and organizational culture as a particular concept were categorized under *content* features whereas basic organizational and technical qualities of an organizational web site were listed under *web appearance*. Results of analysis revealed that influences of global trends in higher education system can be traced by organizational artifacts on university web sites. Rising value of serving the society is approached by nearly all universities; code of conduct, environmental awareness, public needs and contributions to society are all addressed in statements of universities; moreover these articulations are supported by actualization of these contributions by voluntary projects, lifelong learning centers, ethical research, environmental sustainability projects and so on. Another point to consider is that many of the elements under the category of organizational values are present within university web sites. Mission and vision statements are clearly articulated in most of the web sites whereas 20 out of 30 universities expressed their fundamental values. Surprisingly, some of the university web sites even featured basic assumptions of universities. In the name of transparency, it is observed that values and basic assumptions that were deemed as intrinsic to organization's culture and its group dynamics are publicly declared in written statements in accordance with the demands of Information Society. However, it was observed that both state and foundation universities have problems in terms of ease of navigation and speed. Additionally, there are some inactive links and buttons found within web sites. These features that indicate professionalism in web appearance should be treated cautiously by Turkish universities. In total of 24

subcategories of analysis, only in two instances there exist statistically significant differences between Turkish state and foundation universities (mention of strategy and presence of official social media links). In mentioning strategy, state universities scored higher than foundation universities (93% to 53%) whereas in terms of presence of official social media links, all foundation universities were observed to have social media accounts and 4 out of 15 state universities either did not have official accounts or links to their accounts were not working. As there were no analyses on reflections of organizational culture through university web sites in literature, this study aims to provide an insight for future studies and research. Further analyses could be designed more comprehensively; including all state and foundation universities in Turkey and not only Web 1.0 technologies employed in the university web sites but also social media use of universities can be measured.

In conclusion, it can be observed that information and communication technologies provide great opportunities for organizations in the way of communicating their organizational cultures effectively. Through systematic analysis of web sites, researchers can find organizational information on any level of organizational culture; from manifest to deeper values (if declared by organizations). The results of analysis revealed that both state and foundation universities in Turkey do not fully make use of the potential of official web sites in terms of reflecting and communicating elements related to their organizational cultures; however it is clear that Turkish universities have begun to approach the issues of transparency and information sharing through their official channels. When designing official web sites, organizations should bear in mind that content

management and web appearance ought to complement each other in order to produce affirmative conceptions of organizational culture. If organizations seek for quality and excellence in their organizational actions, they should show ultimate attention to their official web sites as a unified artifact of organizational culture.

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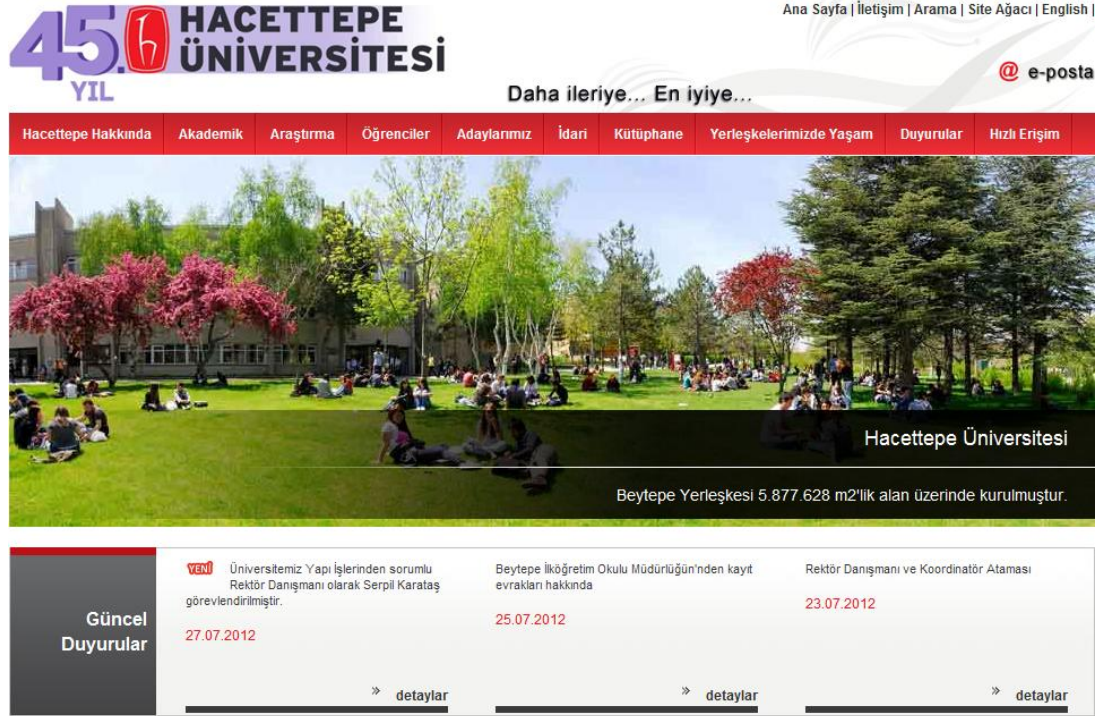
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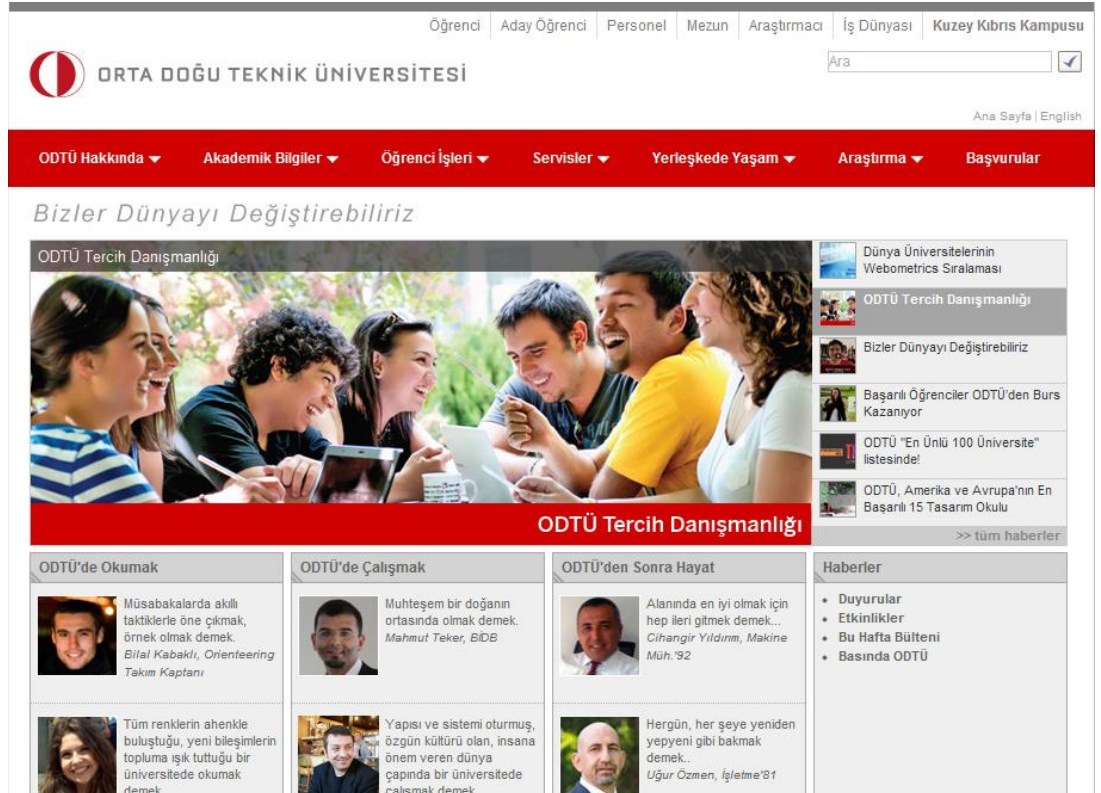
## APPENDIX A. Homepages of Turkish State Universities



The screenshot shows the homepage of Hacettepe University. At the top left, there is a logo for the 45th anniversary (45. YIL) and the text 'HACETTEPE ÜNİVERSİTESİ'. To the right, there are links for 'Ana Sayfa | İletişim | Arama | Site Ağacı | English |' and an '@ e-posta' icon. Below the logo, there is a navigation menu with items: 'Hacettepe Hakkında', 'Akademik', 'Araştırma', 'Öğrenciler', 'Adaylarımız', 'İdari', 'Kütüphane', 'Yerleşkelerimizde Yaşam', 'Duyurular', and 'Hızlı Erişim'. The main banner features a large image of a green lawn with many people sitting on it, surrounded by trees. Below the image, the text reads 'Hacettepe Üniversitesi' and 'BeYTEPE Yerleşkesi 5.877.628 m2'lik alan üzerinde kurulmuştur.'. Below the banner, there is a section for 'Güncel Duyurular' (Recent Announcements) with three items:

Güncel Duyurular	Üniversitemiz Yapı İşlerinden sorumlu Rektör Danışmanı olarak Serpil Karataş görevlendirilmiştir.	BeYTEPE İKÖğretim Okulu Müdürlüğü'nden kayıt evrakları hakkında	Rektör Danışmanı ve Koordinatör Ataması
	27.07.2012	25.07.2012	23.07.2012
	<a href="#">» detaylar</a>	<a href="#">» detaylar</a>	<a href="#">» detaylar</a>

Figure 4. Hacettepe University



The screenshot shows the homepage of Middle East Technical University (ODTÜ). At the top, there is a navigation menu with items: 'Öğrenci', 'Aday Öğrenci', 'Personel', 'Mezun', 'Araştırmacı', 'İş Dünyası', and 'Kuzey Kıbrıs Kampusu'. Below the menu, there is a search bar with the text 'Ara' and a search icon. The main banner features a large image of a group of students sitting around a table, looking at a laptop. Below the image, the text reads 'Bizler Dünyayı Değiştirebiliriz' and 'ODTÜ Tercih Danışmanlığı'. Below the banner, there is a section for 'ODTÜ Tercih Danışmanlığı' with a list of news items:

- Dünya Üniversitelerinin Webometrics Sıralaması
- ODTÜ Tercih Danışmanlığı
- Bizler Dünyayı Değiştirebiliriz
- Başarılı Öğrenciler ODTÜ'den Burs Kazanıyor
- ODTÜ "En Ünlü 100 Üniversite" listesinde!
- ODTÜ, Amerika ve Avrupa'nın En Başarılı 15 Tasarım Okulu

Below the news items, there is a section for 'ODTÜ'de Okumak' with a list of articles:

- Müsabakalarda akıllı taktiklerle öne çıkmak, örnek olmak demek. Bilal Kabaklı, Orienteering Takım Kaptanı
- Tüm renklerin ahenkle buluştuğu, yeni bileşimlerin topluma ışık tuttuğu bir üniversitede okumak demek.

Below the articles, there is a section for 'ODTÜ'de Çalışmak' with a list of articles:

- Muhteşem bir doğanın ortasında olmak demek. Mahmut Teker, BİDB
- Yapısı ve sistemi oturmuş, özgün kültürü olan, insana önem veren dünya çapında bir üniversitede çalışmak demek.

Below the articles, there is a section for 'ODTÜ'den Sonra Hayat' with a list of articles:

- Alanında en iyi olmak için hep ileri gitmek demek... Cihangir Yıldırım, Makine Müh. '92
- Hergün, her şeye yeniden yepyeni gibi bakmak demek... Uğur Özmen, İşletme '81

Below the articles, there is a section for 'Haberler' with a list of items:

- Duyurular
- Etkinlikler
- Bu Hafta Bülteni
- Basında ODTÜ

Figure 5. Middle East Technical University



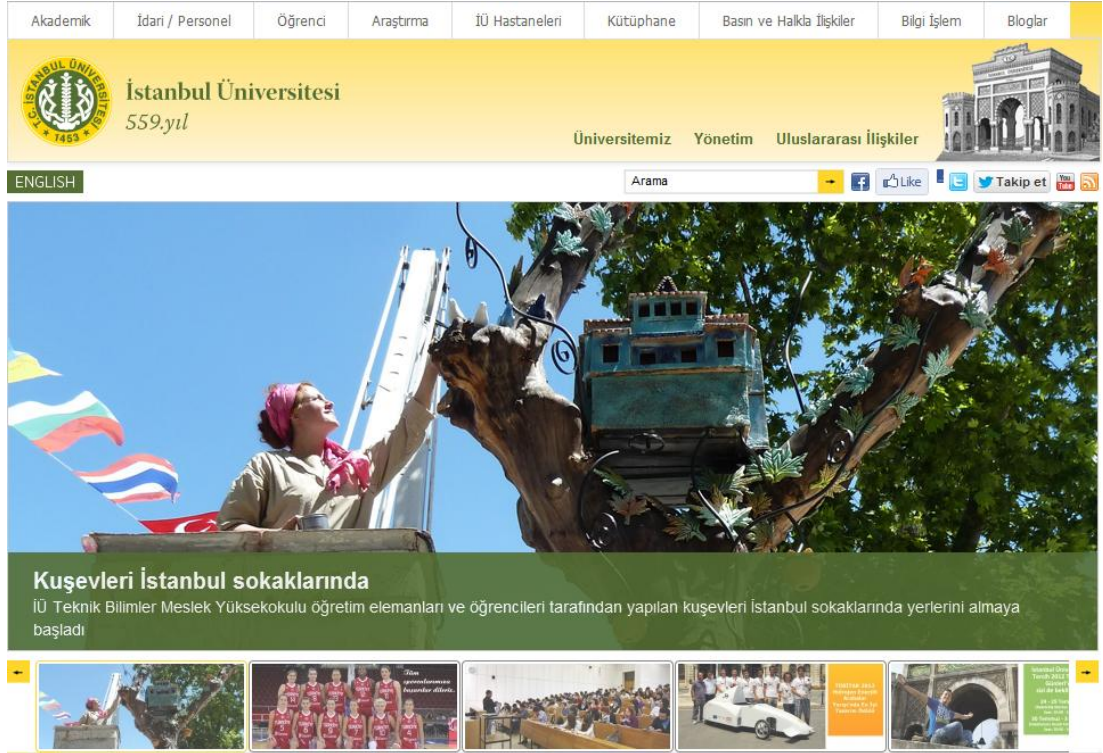


Figure 6. Istanbul University



Figure 7. Ankara University



# Ege Üniversitesi

ENGLISH 



**Güncel** 

- E.Ü.Rektörlüğü Personel Daire Başkanlığından; Hukuk Müşaviri kadrosu Görevde Yükselme Eğitimi İlanı
- EÜ Rektörlüğü Personel Daire Başkanlığı'ndan "Ege Üniversitesinde"



**Egeduyuru**

Ağustos 2012						
Pt	Sa	Ça	Pa	Cu	Cl	Pz
			1	2	3	4
5	6	7	8	9	10	11
12	13	14	15	16	17	18
19	20	21	22	23	24	25
26	27	28	29	30	31	

GENEL TANITIM | YÖNETİM | AKADEMİK YAPI | ÖĞRENCİ İŞLERİ | KÜTÜPHANE | KAMPÜS YAŞAMI | İNTERNET HİZMETLERİ | EĞİTİM PROGRAMLARI

**Egposta**

**Egetel**

**Ege'de Sağlık**

**Egeburada**

**Ara**

**Linkler**

2018 Kamu Mali Yönetimi ve Denetimi Sempozyumu Kitabı **Yeni** Bilgi Edinme Birimi

**Üniversitemizde**

Bugün Bu hafta Bu ay

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EÜ Yabancı Diller Bölümü Konferans Salonu

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Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü

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E.Ü. Konukevi

**Ege Üniversitesi Lokali Ramazan Ayı Özel Menüsü**  
E.Ü. Lokali

**Hemşireler için Kan ve Kan Ürünleri Uygulama Kursu - 1**  
EÜ Hemşirelik Fakültesi Amfisi

**2012 Yaz Dönemi Tenis Kursları 7-11 Yaş ve 12-15 Yaş Grupları için**  
EÜ Açık ve Kapalı Tenis Kortları

2011 yılında Ege Üniversitesi, dünyanın en iyi 500 Üniversitesi arasında yer aldı.

**Ege Bilgi Paketi Ders Kataloğu**

**ECTS Label 2011 - 2014**  
Awarded by the European Commission to **EGE ÜNİVERSİTESİ**


**Bilimsel Etkinlik**

**Proje Destek Ofisi**

Figure 8. Ege University

## İSTANBUL TEKNİK ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Asırlardır Çağdaş



İTÜ HAKKINDA

AKADEMİK

KAMPÜSLERDE YAŞAM

ARAŞTIRMA

İLETİŞİM

İTÜ KKTC

Kurumsal Kimlik


Basında İTÜ

İletişim

Rehber

English

HIZLI BAĞLANTILAR



**ADAY ÖĞRENCİLER**

Üniversite hakkında detaylı bilgiler alabilir, ortak lisans programlarını tanıyabilir ve galerileri gezebilirsiniz.

**İTÜ ÖĞRENCİLERİ**

İTÜ öğrencilerinin faydalandıkları akademik, kültürel ve çevrimiçi hizmetlere ulaşabilirsiniz.

**MEZUNLAR**

İTÜ ve İTÜ mezunları arasındaki ilişkileri sürdürmeye yönelik faaliyetlere ulaşabilirsiniz.

**PERSONEL**

Üniversite personelinin sıklıkla kullandığı hizmetlere ulaşabilirsiniz.

**HABERLER**

02 Ağustos 2012

**DUYURULAR**

06 Ağustos 2012

**ETKİNLİKLER**

**AĞU** The 10th International FLINS

Figure 9. Istanbul Technical University

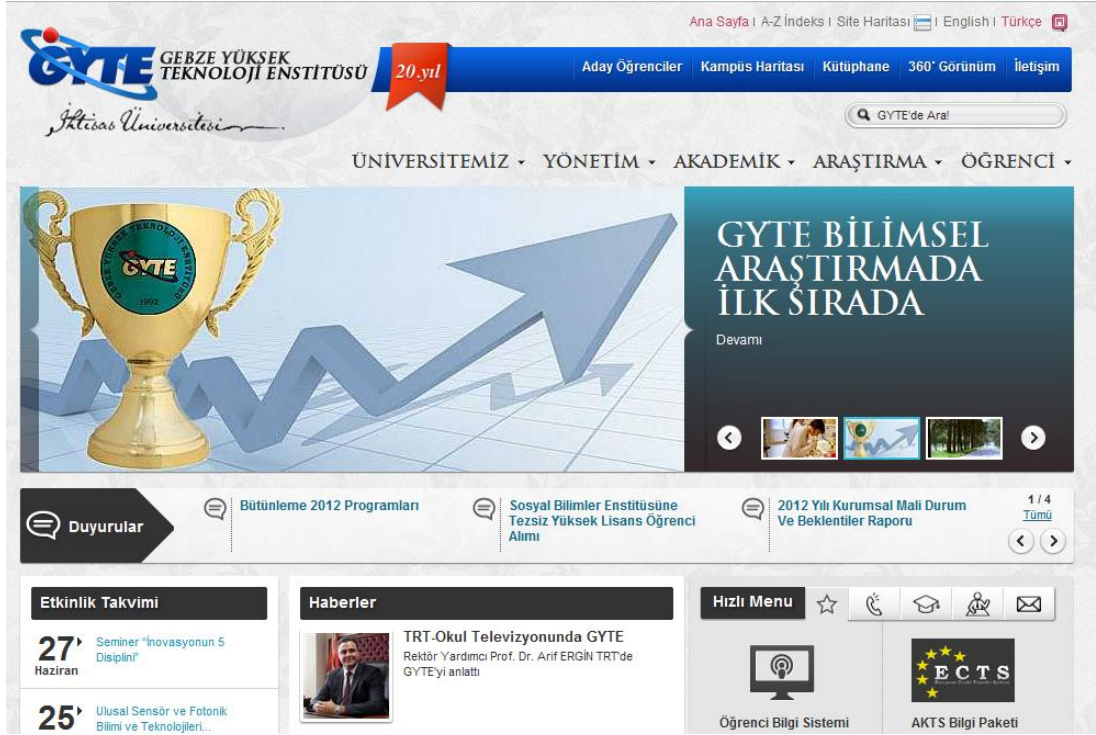


Figure 10. Gebze Institute of Technology



Figure 11. Gazi University

**İZMİR YÜKSEK TEKNOLOJİ ENSTİTÜSÜ**  
Türkiye'nin Teknoloji Vitesi

www.iyte.edu.tr

**Sadece internette değil...**

**Kolay Erişim**

- Kütüphane
- ÖBS
- Lisansüstü Başvuru
- Web Mail
- Uluslararası Ofis
- Aday Öğrenciler

**Etkinlikler**

**2. Proje ve Yapım Yönetimi Kongresi**

2. Proje ve Yapım Yönetimi Ulusal Kongresi, İYTE'nin ev sahipliğinde, 13-16 Eylül 2012 tarihleri arasında gerçekleştirilecektir. Kongrenin amacı, akademisyenler, profesyoneller ve araştırmacılarla birlikte, ulusal ortak bir paydada bir araya gelerek, proje ve yapım yönetimi alanındaki fikir ve son bulguların paylaşılmasını sağlamaktır.

**Haberler**

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İYTE'de Mimarlık Bölümünü merak edenler için, İYTE Mimarlık Fakültesi online tanıtım toplantısı yapılacaktır. Mimarlık Fakültesi Öğretim Görevlisi Tonguç AKIŞ'ın konuşmacı olarak katılacağı toplantı, Mimarlık Bölümü'nü tercih edecek adaylar için hazırlandı. İYTE'de Mimarlık Bölümüne dair soruların online olarak da cevaplanacağı toplantı, 1 Ağustos

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31.07.2012 | Personel Görevde Yükselme Eğitimi Son Başvuru Tarihi 17 Ağustos 2012 Mesai Bitimine Kadar Yapılacaktır.

30.07.2012 | Öğrenci Yabancı Diller Yüksekokulu 25.07.2012 Tarihli Seviye Belirleme Sınav Sonuçları

30.07.2012 | Öğrenci Mühendislik ve Fen Bilimleri

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Figure 12. Izmir Institute of Technology

**BOĞAZIÇI ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

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Boğaziçi Üniversitesi Yelken Takımı, 1-3 Haziran 2012 tarihlerinde İstanbul'da düzenlenen "Bosphorus Cup American Express Sailing Regatta'12" yarışını IRC4

**AKADEMİK**

Fakülte, Yüksekokul ve Enstitüler, Kütüphane, Bilgi İşlem Merkezi (BİM), Lisans Kataloğu, ...

**ARAŞTIRMA**

BÜ'de Araştırma, Sanayi ile İlişkiler, Döner Sermaye, Fikri Mülkiyet Hattarı

**KAMPÜS HAYATI**

Sanat, Spor, Sağlık Hizmetleri, Öğrenci Danışmanlığı, Engelli Öğrenciler, Öğrenci Kulüpleri, ...

**Hızlı Erişim**

- Adaylar
- Öğrenciler
- Çalışanlar
- Mezunlar

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Figure 13. Boğaziçi University



Figure 14. Erciyes University



Figure 15. Atatürk University



Figure 16. Ondokuz Mayıs University

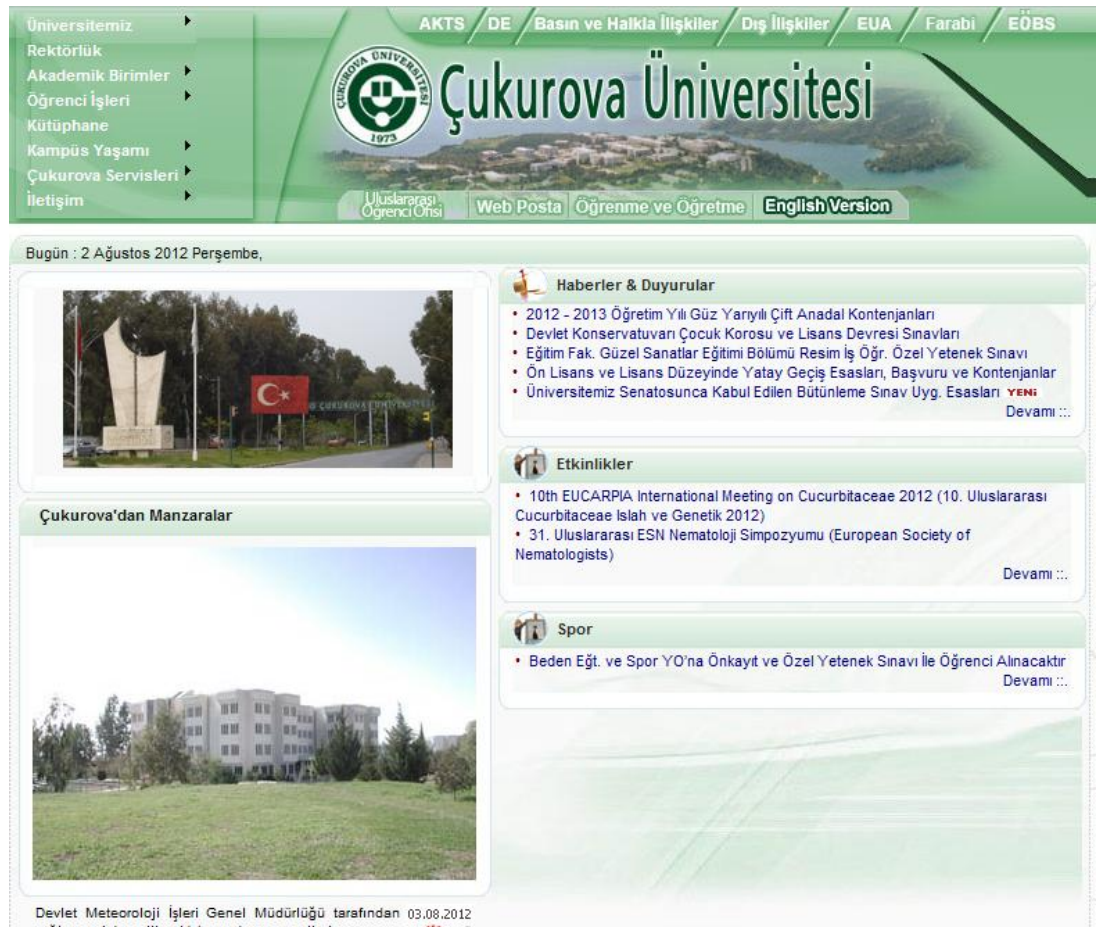


Figure 17. Çukurova University

DEÜ Rektörü Prof.Dr. Mehmet FÖZÜN  
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Dokuz Eylül Üniversitesi  
Tanıtım filmi

Üniversitemiz Yönetim

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- Kişisel Sayfalar
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İZMİR 1982

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- Deprem Bilgilendirme
- DEU-ADEK
- Diploma Eki
- Engelsiz Dokuz Eylül
- Erasmus/Farabi (International Office)
- Kariyer Planlama Koordinatörlüğü
- Kütüphane
- İç Kontrol Standartları Uyum Eylem Planı
- PRODEB
- OĞEB (Olumsuz Geri Bildirim)
- Öğretim Elemanı Bilgi Bankası
- Öğrenci İşleri
- Öğretim Üyesi Yetiştirme Programı **Yeni**
- Süreki Eğitim Merkezi (DESEM)
- 2012-2013 Yabancı Uyruklu Öğrenci Sınavı (DEYÖS) Sınav Sonuçları **Yeni**
- 2011-2012 Öğretim Yılı Bütünleme Sınavları **Yeni**
- YÖK-Bilgi Paylaşım Forumu

Figure 18. Dokuz Eylul University

## APPENDIX B. Homepages of Turkish Foundation Universities

**SoruSU Olan?**  
susocial.sabanciuniv.edu

Her yıl düzenlenen **800** Etkinlikten, **150**'si Sanat ve Sosyal Bilimler Fakültesi'ndeki sergi ve konferanslardır...

Sabancı Üniversitesi hakkında merak ettiğiniz herşeyi ona sorun...

**Sabancı Üniversitesi**

ADAY ÖĞRENCİLER  
AİLELER  
MEZUNLAR  
ARAŞTIRMACILAR  
ÇALIŞANLAR

HAKKIMIZDA FAKÜLTE VE PROGRAMLAR BİLGİ MERKEZİ KAMPÜS HAYATI İLETİŞİM ULAŞIM

Türkiye 'nano' trenine bindi  
Lise öğrencileri nanoteknoloji ile...  
Veri analizinde uluslararası başarı  
Gözde İnce ile bilim üzerine  
Sabancı Üniversitesi BTS Bakanlığı...

**HABERLER**

**2012 Girişli EMBA Öğrencileri İçin Güz Dönemi Ödemeleri**  
2012 girişli yeni öğrenciler için EMBA Güz dönemi ödemeleri 6 - 13 Ağustos 2012 tarihleri arasındadır. Ödeme tablosu için aşağıdaki linkten yararlanabilirsiniz.

**Diller Okulu Bütünleme Sınavı Hakkında 28 Ağustos 2012**  
TGYY seviyesinde sunulan ENG 001, ENG 002, ENG 003 derslerinden "U" notu alarak başansız olan öğrenciler için final bütünleme sınavı 28 Ağustos'ta

**ETKİNLİKLER**

**Tem 16** Lisans Tanıtım Günleri Başladı  
**Tem 07** Rektörümüz Nihat Berker, sizi SU Okuma Kulübü Etkinliğine davet ediyor!

Figure 19. Sabancı University

**Bilkent Üniversitesi**

| STARS | E-posta | İletişim | Ara | **ENGLISH** |

Hızlı Erişim

Bilkent Hakkında  
Akademik  
Öğrenci İşleri  
İdari Birimler  
Kampüste Yaşam  
Bilgi Teknolojileri  
Bilkent Senfoni Orkestrası  
Bilkent Kütüphanesi  
Uluslararası Öğrenciler  
Değişim Programları

**Rehber**  
A - Z Dizin

**Girişler:**  
Bilkent Öğrencileri  
Akademik ve İdari Personel  
Mezunlar  
Ziyaretçiler

**Üniversite Adaylarına Bilgi**

**Haberler, Duyurular ve Etkinlikler**  
Üniversite adayları ve aileleri için haftasonları dahil her gün Tanıtım Turları düzenleniyor: 11 Temmuz - 3 Ağustos

2012 - 2013 Kesin Kayıt Bilgileri  
Güzel Sanatlar, Tasarım ve Mimarlık Fakültesi Ön kayıt ve Yetenek Sınavı Bilgileri  
Müzik ve Sahne Sanatları Fakültesi Ön kayıt ve Yetenek Sınavı Bilgileri

Bilkent, Times Higher Education ve Thomson Reuters Tarafından Yayımlanan Dünyanın En İyi Genç Üniversiteleri Sıralamasında 32. Oldu

2012 Yılı TÜBİTAK Ödülü'nü Kazanan Öğretim Üyelerimiz  
Bütünleme Sınavları Uygulama Esasları  
Eylül 2012 COPE Sınavına Girecek Öğrenciler  
COPE Sınavlarıyla İlgili Duyuru

**Adresinize Kitapçık Gönderelim**

**@bilkent**

- Sanal Tur
- Bilkent Film Arşivi
- Bilkent Gazetesi
- Dergi Bilkent
- Basında Bilkent
- Radyo Bilkent
- BSO - Konserler
- Öğrenci Kulüpleri
- Bilkent Erzurum

Ara

f t You Tube g+

Figure 20. Bilkent University



**BİLGİ İÇİN**

- > KOÇ ÖĞRENCİSİ
- > ÖĞRETİM ÜYESİ
- > KU ÇALIŞANI
- > ADAY ÖĞRENCİ
- > KU MEZUNU
- > LİSANSÜSTÜ
- > AİLELER
- > KARIYER MERKEZİ
- > ULUSLARARASI PROGRAM
- > BASIN ODASI
- > SOSYAL MEDYA
- > İŞ DÜNYASI
- > KOÇTA YAZ
- > KOÇTA 24 SAAT

**BAĞLANTILAR**

- > KÜTÜPHANE
- > KÜLTÜR MERKEZİ
- > KU YAYINLARI
- > KUAİS
- > MY KU
- > TRACKIT
- > AÇIK POZİSYONLAR

**ÜNİVERSİTEMİZİN AĞUSTOS 2012 ETKİNLİKLERİ**

10. Ulusal Kimya Mühendisliği Kongresi 3-6 Eylül 2012 tarihleri arasında Koç Üniversitesinde yapılacaktır.

YER / SALON  
Koç University

ETKİNLİK TARİHİ  
Eylül 3, 2012 Pazartesi - 15:00

TÜMÜ

**ÜNİVERSİTEMİZİN AĞUSTOS 2012 HABERLERİ**

24 Ziya Oniş receives 2012 TUBİTAK Temmuz Science Award

5 Koç Üniversitesi Tanıtım Günleri Temmuz

TÜMÜ

Figure 21. Koç University

**BAŞKENT HAKKINDA**

Tarihçe, Genel Bilgiler, Yönetim, Engeliz Başkent, Bilgi Edinme, İletişim...

**AKADEMİK BİRİMLER**

Fakülteler, Meslek Yüksek Okulları, Enstitüler, Devlet Konservatuarı...

**İDARİ BİRİMLER**

Daire Başkanlıkları, Koordinatörlükler, Merkezler, Diğer Birimler...

**BAĞLI BİRİMLER**

Sağlık Kuruluşları, İlk ve Ortaöğretim Okulları, Başkent Medya Grubu...

**DUYURULAR**

- İngilizce Okutmanlık Başvuruları
- Öğretim Elemanı Kadro İlanı
- Yatay Geçiş Başvuruları Başlamıştır
- 6363 Sayılı Kanunla Belirtilen Öğrenci Atfı
- Yeni Açılan Programlar (Lisans ve Lisansüstü)
- Lisansüstü Program Başvuruları

Devamı için tıklayınız...>

**ETKİNLİKLER**

- 16 Temmuz Tanıtım Günleri Başladı

Devamı için tıklayınız...>

[ webmaster@baskent.edu.tr ]

Figure 22. Başkent University

FAFİH ÜNİVERSİTESİ

ÜNİVERSİTE HAKKINDA AKADEMİK İDARİ ÖĞRENCİ KABUL KAMPÜSTE HAYAT ARAŞTIRMA KÜTÜPHANE

HABER ve DUYURULAR

MAY 04 YGS ve LYS'de İlk 750'ye Giren Adaylara Duyuru

TEM 04 Lisansüstü Eğitim programlarına öğrenci alınacaktır

TEM 12 Türk Müziği Bölümüne Özel Yetenek Sınavı ile öğrenci alınacaktır

YGS - LYS'de İlk 750'ye Giren Öğrenciler....

detaylı bilgi için tıklayınız...

EĞİTİMLER

CNC Torna Operatör Eğitimi  
http://tomer.fatih.edu.tr

A1 TEMEL SEVİYE - 1  
http://tomer.fatih.edu.tr

A1 - Temel Seviye-1  
http://tomer.fatih.edu.tr

ADAY ÖĞRENCİLER

Uluslararası Değişim Prog.  
Sanat / Kültür / Spor  
Dergiler / Yayınlar  
Eğitim / Araştırma  
ECTS / Erasmus / Katalog  
Medya  
Kariyer / Mezunlar

1

> Puanlar ve Kontenjanlar  
> Burslar  
> Uluslararası Programlar  
> Öğretim Ücretleri  
> Kampüs Ziyaret Talep Formu...

2 3 4 5 6 7 8

EĞİTİM EĞİTİM

Figure 23. Fatih University

TOBB ETÜ TOBB Ekonomi ve Teknoloji Üniversitesi

öğrenci | akademik personel | mezun | iş dünyası

AKADEMİK ARAŞTIRMA ÖĞRENCİ İŞLERİ İDARİ KAMPÜS HAYATI TOBB ETÜ HAKKINDA English

Prof. Dr. Sadık Kakaç

Prof. Dr. Ümit ÖZLALE,

'Mühendislik Eğitimi ve Araştırma Liderliği' ve 'Sosyal Bilimler' Alanındaki 2012 Yılı TÜBİTAK Teşvik Ödülü'nü Kazandı

1 2 3 4 5 6 7 8 9

Ara Site Haritası E-Posta Akademik Takvim Kütüphane Telefon Rehberi

ETKİNLİKLER

HABERLER

ADAY ÖĞRENCİ

ORTAK EĞİTİM

24 Tem 24/07/2012 LYS'de İlk 1.000 İçinde Dereceniz Varsa Sizi Üniversitemize Konuk Edelim!

9 Tem 09/07/2012 TOBB ETÜ Teknoloji Merkezi'nin Temeli Atıldı

6 Tem 06/07/2012 Mühendislik Fakültesi Mekatronik Mühendisliği Yandal Programı Açıldı

Tanıtım Günlerimiz Başlamıştır 15 Temmuz - 15 Ağustos 2012

Prof. Dr. Sadık Kakaç, 'Mühendislik Eğitimi ve Araştırma Liderliği' Ödülünü Kazandı

Figure 24. TOBB University of Economics and Technology



- Yeditepe Hakkında**
  - Genel Bilgiler
  - Yönetim
  - İdari Ofisler
  - Bağlı Kurumlar
  - İSTEK Vakfı
  - İSTEK Okulları
- Kampüs Hayatı**
  - Sanal Tur / Foto Galeri
  - Konaklama
  - Sosyal Tesisler
  - Sosyal Çevre
  - Öğrenci Kulüpleri
  - Sağlık
  - ...
- Öğrenim**
  - Lisans
  - Lisans Üstü
  - On Lisans
  - Yabancı Dil, Yük. Ok.
  - Akademik Takvim
  - Uluslararası Ofis
  - ...
- Öğrenci Kabul**
  - Ücretler
  - Başvuru Koşulları
  - Kayıt
  - Kayıt Yenileme
  - Aday Öğrenciler
  - Burslar
- Araştırma**
  - Bilgi Merkezi
  - Kozmetik Arg.ve Ürt.Birimi
  - Akademik Yayın Teşviki
  - Araştırma Altyapımız
  - Araştırma Çıktıları

Figure 25. Yeditepe University

|| webmail || telefon rehberi || 2 Ağustos 2012, Perşembe 27°C ara english

**ÇANKAYA ÜNİVERSİTESİ**

- ▶ ÜNİVERSİTE HAKKINDA
- ▶ ÜNİVERSİTE YÖNETİMİ
- ▶ AKADEMİK BİRİMLER
- ▶ İDARİ BİRİMLER
- ▶ ÖĞRENCİ
- ▶ ADAY ÖĞRENCİ
- ▶ PERSONEL
- ▶ MEZUN
- ▶ KONFERANSLAR
- ▶ BASINDA ÇANKAYA
- ▶ ÜNİVERSİTEMİZ YAYINLARI
- ▶ ARAŞTIRMA MERKEZLERİ

www.cankaya.edu.tr

**Üniversitemiz Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü bünyesinde Özel Hukuk ve Kamu Hukuku Doktora Programlarının açılması**

**Yükseköğretim Kurulu Başkanlığı tarafından uygun görülmüştür.**

**DUYURULAR**

[Malzeme Bilimi ve Mühendisliği Bölümü Uzman \(Kimya Alanı\) Yazılı Giriş Sınavı Sonuçları](#)


[Bilgisayar Mühendisliği Bölümü Uzman Kadrosu Yazılı Sınav Sonuçları](#)

**ETKİNLİKLER**

**Cuma, Ağustos 3, 2012**

10:00 ["Tercih Danışmanlığı ve Rehberlik Hizmeti"](#)

Figure 26. Cankaya University



# ATILIM ÜNİVERSİTESİ

ENG AZE PYC ARB

ARA

[Ana Sayfa](#) | [Üniversitemiz](#) | [Akademik Birimler](#) | [İdari Birimler](#) | [Öğrenci İşleri](#) | [Kütüphane](#) | [Kampüste Yaşam](#) | [Üniversite Adayları](#) | [İletişim](#)

ATILIM ÜNİVERSİTESİ GÜZEL SANATLAR TASARIM VE MİMARLIK FAKÜLTESİ

## ÖZEL YETENEK SINAVLARI

# 14 AĞUSTO

**Başvurular: 23 Temmuz**

Endüstri Ürünleri Tasarımı Bölümü  
Grafik Tasarımı Bölümü  
İç Mimarlık ve Çevre Tasarımı Bölümü  
Moda ve Tekstil Tasarımı Bölümü

DAVETLİSİNİZ!

Uzman Rehberlerden Tercih  
Danışmanlığı ve Tanıtım Günleri

18 Temmuz - 3 Ağustos  
Saat: 9:30 - 17:30  
(Hafta sonu dâhil her gün)

**Duyurular**

Öğretim Üyesi Dışındaki Öğretim Elemanları Sınav Sonuçları Duyurusu İçin Lütfen Buraya Tıklayınız

Lisans Programlarında Öğrenimlerine Devam Eden Öğrencilerimizin 2012-2013 Akademik Yılı Öğretim Ücretlerine İlişkin Duyuru

Kredi Kartıyla Öğretim Ücreti Ödemeleri

Bütünleme Sınav Duyurusu

**Haberler**

FABED Eser Tümen Üstün Başarı Ödülü Kimya Dalında Doç. Dr. Atilla Cihaner'e Verildi

Öğrencimiz Kerem Göğüş Yılın En Başarılı Genç İşadamı Seçildi

15. Yılıımızda Sekiz Yüz Yirmi Dokuz Mezun Verdik

Arjantin Tango Dans Topluluğumuz Dans Festivallerinde Hünelerini Sergilediler

95 LABORATUVAR




Figure 27. Atılım University



## DOĞUŞ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

ENGLISH  
BİZİ TAKİP EDİN  
 

[DOĞUŞ HAKKINDA](#) | [AKADEMİK](#) | [ÖĞRENCİ İŞLERİ](#) | [DOĞUŞTA YAŞAM](#) | [İDARI BİRİMLER](#) | [BASIN ODASI](#) | [İLETİŞİM](#)

Öğretim Üyesi İlanı

Öğretim Elemanı İlanı

Uluslararası BİGİ, Ekonomi ve Yönetim Kongresi

Sanat Tasarım Fakültesi Ücretli Kontenjanlara Kayıt Hakkı Kazanan 4. Yedek Liste

2011-2012 Akademik Yılı Bütünleme Sınavları Hakkında

2012 Yaz Öğretimi Final ve Bütünleme Takvimi

BÜTÜN HABERLER

## Eğitimde Fırsat Eşitliğine DOĞUŞ'tan Destek!

# 19 Tür Burs

## 4 Tür Yerleştirme Bursu

## 3 Tür Tercih Bursu

Etkinlik Takvimi

Ağustos 2012

Pt	Sa	Çş	Pş	Cu	Ct	Pz
		1	2	3	4	5
6	7	8	9	10	11	12
13	14	15	16	17	18	19



Figure 28. Doğuş University



Figure 29. Izmir University of Economics



Figure 30. Istanbul Bilim University

KADIR HAS ÜNİVERSİTESİ  
15 YIL

Ana Sayfa | Site Haritası | İletişim

ENGLISH

Site içi arama...

Bilgi Merkezi | Bilgi Yönetim Sistemi | Blackboard | E-Posta

ÜNİVERSİTE HAKKINDA | EĞİTİM | ARAŞTIRMA | ÖĞRENCİLER İÇİN | ULUSLARARASI | ÜNİVERSİTEDE YAŞAM

YAZAM BOYU EĞİTİM MERKEZİ

**BAŞLAMAK, BAŞARMANIN YARISIDIR.**

Başarıya giden yolu yarımamak, kişisel ve profesyonel gelişiminize katkı sağlamak için doğru yerden başlamak! Yaşam Boyu Eğitim Merkezi, akademik birimleri ve sektörlerin ihtiyaçlarına göre hazırlanmış sertifika programlarıyla geleceğinize yön vermek için sizleri bekliyor.

RHM Rezan Has Müzesi

Uluslararası İşbirliği ve Programlar

Lisansüstü Eğitim

Yaşam Boyu Eğitim Merkezi

Sanın farkın Kariyerin. Kariyer Merkezi

PANORAMA BİLİM-SANAT-KÜLTÜR DERGİSİ

Khas-2012 Tanıtım Filmi

Cibali Postası  
Cibali'nin üniversite gazetesi

Güncel

Güney Kafkasya ve Karadeniz Bölgesinde Güncellik, Sorunlar ve Çözümler

Rektörün Mesajı

Akademik kadrosu, imkanları,

Figure 31. Kadir Has University

ÖZYEGİN ÜNİVERSİTESİ

Akademik Takvim | CMS | Kütüphane | Öğrenci Hizmetleri | Webmail

English | Русский

Ara

ADAY ÖĞRENCİLER  
Keşfet, Deneyimle, Bağlan, Rektörden Mesaj

AKADEMİK PROGRAMLAR  
Fakülteler, Enstitüler, Yükseköğuller

ARAŞTIRMA  
Araştırma Merkezleri, Laboratuvarlar, Yayınlar

ULUSLARARASI  
Değişim Öğrencileri, Yurtdışından Öğrenci Kabulü

ÖZÜ'DE YAŞAM  
Çekmeköy Kampüsü, Öğrenci Etkinlikleri, Spor, Sağlık

HAKKIMIZDA  
Kuruluş Oyküsü, Felsefe, Yönetim

**İşte Mezun, İşte Kampüs!**  
Akademik hayatına 2008 yılında başlayan üniversitemiz, 19 Temmuz Perşembe akşamı Çekmeköy Kampüsü'nde düzenlenen törenle ilk mezunlarını verdi.

Devamı

**ETKİNLİKLER**

03 AGU '12  
2012 Tanıtım Günleri  
2012 Tanıtım Günleri ile ilgili detaylı bilgiye...

13 TEM '12  
Hayatın Oyunu  
Gençlerin üniversitemizde nasıl farklı bir gele...

25 HAZ '12  
Robokamp 2012 Finali C...  
Final heyecanını izlemek için tıklayınız.

Tüm Etkinlikler

**HABERLER**

Doç Dr. Ekrem Duman Middle East Banking Innovation Summit'e Konuşmacı Olarak ...  
01/08/2012

Özü'de İhale Hukuku Seminer Programı  
01/08/2012

Alman-Türk İdare Hukukunun Güncel Sorunları

06 Temmuz 2012 Tarihli YÖK İlanı-İngilizce Dil Öğretim Okulu Giriş Sınavını ...  
31/07/2012

Hukuk Yüksek Lisans Programları  
30/07/2012

21. Uluslararası VLSI-SoC Konferansı'nın başkanlığını Yard. Doç. Dr. ...

Çekmeköy Kampüs Sanal Tur

Figure 32. Özyegin University

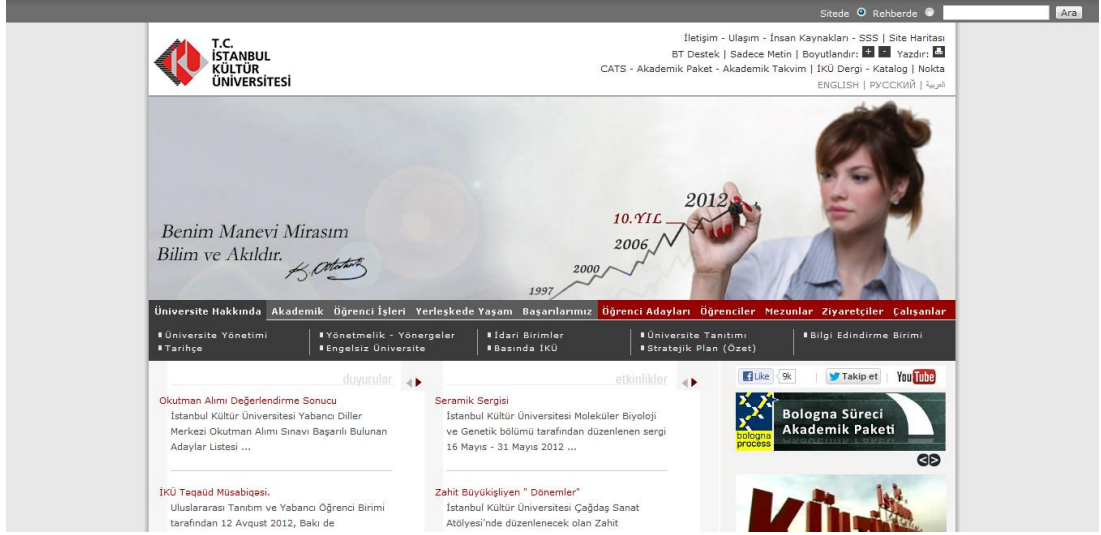


Figure 33. Istanbul Kültür University