Interdisciplinary Perspectives
on Social Sciences
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This book is a collection of essays concerned with society and the relationships among individuals within the society. The essays are circumscribed to the fields of economics, political science, and sociology. Fifty-six researchers from ten countries and three continents present the results of their research in an interdisciplinary approach.

Chapter One is dedicated to the role of the human factor in the production, distribution, and consumption of wealth, at both micro- and macro-economic levels. Microeconomics, where the unit of analysis is the individual agent, is illustrated by essays on human resources (from a rhetorical perspective), on consumers’ behaviour in Romania and Turkey (from a marketing perspective—advertising, brand, global brand, new product development), on talent (from a management perspective), on taxpayers’ rights (from a biological psychology perspective), on employees’ personality (from a psychological perspective), on feedback (from a psychological perspective), and on the concept of leadership (from a historical perspective). Macro-economics, where the unit of analysis is an economy as a whole, is represented by essays on Turkish manufacturing companies, on economic (Kazuyiko Kurosawa) and financial (the Istanbul Stock Exchange) models, on privatisation policies in the global economy, on control mechanisms in Post-Fordism, on the evolution of the labour market in Georgia, on Turkish manufacturers, on enterprise competitiveness in Kazakhstan. Most essays can be ranged into the positive economics group (seeking to predict and interpret economic phenomena) while only a few essays fall in the class of normative economics – ordering choices and actions by some criterion (critical approaches to privatisation policies, control mechanisms).

Chapter Two contains essays in which political science is represented by one of its sub-disciplines—international relations. With the exception of two essays with a strong theoretical nature (tackling with comparative politics and diaspora), the essays in this chapter focus on the role of the sovereign State from different perspectives—historical, social, socio-political—in Egypt (the changing of social activities in Tahrir Square), France (the 2012 presidential elections), Germany (the origins of the totalitarian thought), Greece (the 2012 presidential elections), Serbia (the status of a minority), Thailand (the administrative reform), and Turkey
(accession to the European Union), and on the study of relationships among countries from different perspectives—cultural (the status of the Ruthenians in Serbia), historical (Kyrgyz epics), information technology (buzz marketing in Turkey), literary (Kyrgyz epics), sociological (Italian Renaissance-rooted totalitarian German thought).

Chapter Three deals with the sociology of culture (modernism and post-modernism, everyday life practices as tactics for German Turks, the post-modern feminine), sociology of the family (divorce in the Turkish society, family structure and family ties in Turkey), sociology of language (a diachronic approach of a Romanian word), sociology of law (legalisation of prostitution, a sociolinguistic approach of legal phraseology), sociology of religion (the gender issue of Moslem women in Turkey, Islam and women’s rights, legalisation of prostitution). Two essays focus on the role of social activity in the development of scientific knowledge (metaphor as methodology, translation as encounter space).

The Editors
CHAPTER ONE

THE HUMAN FACTOR
IN MANAGEMENT AND MARKETING
METAPHORS OF HUMAN RESOURCES:
COLOURS OF COLLARS

SÜMEYRA ALPASLAN-DANIŞMAN

Introduction

The goal of this paper is to draw the attention of researchers towards metaphors for human resources in the context of the economic transformation of societies. The term “blue collar,” which identifies manual labour workers, first appeared at the beginning of the 20th century. The use of this term has increased the popularity of the contrasting term “white collar,” referring to the class of administrative workers. With the development of the service industry came more stereotypical female jobs and the term “pink collar” has begun to be used. The growth of the knowledge economy has created new jobs such as knowledge engineering and information management, and the term “golden collar” has been coined with reference to knowledge workers. Furthermore, the development of environmental sectors of the economy has created “green collar” workers. In this paper I present a framework structured on economic evolution of the societal groups mentioned above and the effects of this evolution on the transformation of human resources. As a conceptual evaluation, I critically discuss whether the “collar” metaphors can be accepted as indicators of transformation of human-resources profiles in the context of the economic evaluation of those groups.

Economic Transformation of Societies

Large scaled factories were one of the metaphors for the socio-economic structure of industrial society (Toffler, 1984) which were raised from these forms (Harvey, 1975). Industrial society is defined by Raymond Aron (1968) as a society that implies two important features. The first is as an enterprise separating work from family (Grint, 1999) and the second is the development of a complex technological division of labour through large-scale industrial production (Harvey, 1975). Jobs were formalized as more rational systems (Grint, 1999). Harvey (1975) underlines the unique features
of industrial societies, such as generation of complex, technologically based structures of labour and increases of industrial activities in urban centres. Modern industrial society has a high-level of anxiety about making money but also has financial worries. Tocqueville summarizes industrial society with the key words industry, trade and money (Aron, 1997). Conflicts and wars between classes (Drucker, 1994) became one of the main features of industrial society. The owners of the instruments of production and workers were on opposite sides, struggling with each other (Aron, 1997). Because of industrialization, unity of production and consumption was destroyed. While producers focused on high profitability, wages and incomes, low prices became the main issue for consumers (Toffler, 1984).

People do not only produce as individuals but also behave as members of a society (Giddens, 1971). Change in societies based on increased knowledge and globalization is sufficiently social, cultural and political to cause lifestyles to evolve (Qureshi, 2006). Through the effects of new dynamics in economy, social structure and dynamics, societies change rapidly (Drucker, 1994). The main indicators of the transfer to a knowledge society are developments in computer technology, production and application of information (Hatch, 1997). Today, knowledge is the most significant resource. In a knowledge society, the important issue is the productivity of the non-manual workers, which requires the application of stored knowledge (Drucker, 1994). According to Blumberg (1974), the views of theories on post-industrial societies are generally similar and they point out individual choices, new opportunities for personal interests and high levels of education. The importance of information, books and methodology instead of experience, apprenticeship and confidence has increased and a transformation has been experienced on the aspect of knowledge (idem, ibid.). Kumar claims that the core of the industrial society is production; on the other hand, post-industrial society is based on information (Kumar, 2004).

**Metaphors of Human Resources: From Blue to Green**

The scope of this study is based on the role of metaphors in social life. It can be possible for people to understand and believe in linkages with the new and unfamiliar and to have the ability of envisioning the world in a new way by using metaphors (Kendall & Kendall, 2006). Metaphors gain meaning by context and it is possible to analyse social phenomena by investigating metaphors (Addleson, 1998). In this paper, metaphors are understood as cognitive lenses used to make sense of situations (Kendall & Kendall, 1993). The metaphors of human resources are both subject and
medium in this discussion (Schmitt, 2000). It is discussed that colours of collars can be accepted as indicators of the transformation of human resource profiles. Collars as metaphors are seen as a phenomenon for evaluation and for the interpretation of the mentioned transformation, and in this way this paper may contribute to the functionality and importance of metaphors on human resource literature. The aim of this study is to shed light on the colours of collars as defining specific human resource profiles. The colours of blue, white, pink, gold and green are the most popular ones used to emphasize different socio-economic contexts:

1. Blue Collar as a Metaphor of Physical Labour: In the industrial society, one of the main requirements for employees was technical ability. In the organizational structure, the importance of administrative ability increased towards the top positions while the importance of technical ability increased towards the bottom. Weber used the machine metaphor for defining organizational structuring in which employees were the cogs of this mechanism (Weber, 2005; Fayol, 2005). The story of colours of collars starts with the special protective clothing, coloured blue (Halle, 1984), of manual labourers. The blue collar metaphor was first used in reference to trade jobs in 1924 in an Alden, Iowa newspaper, appearing in the New York Times for the first time in 1945 (Wickman, 2012.) According to Wickman, the meaning of blue colour was working class. It was underlined particularly by etymologist Popik (in Kohn & Schooler, 1983) that blue-collar workers were mentioned in contrast to white colour workers as early as 1924. Hence, the blue collar has been the symbol of trades since, experiencing a growth of popularity after World War II. Blue-collar workers work above all with substances or materials, machines, tools, equipment or products (Kohn & Schooler, 1983), and the jobs involve physical, dirty and often dangerous characteristics, tending to be closely supervised with limited opportunities for development, growth and upward mobility (Halle, 1984).

2. White Collar as a Metaphor of Professionalism: The role of service sectors in employment has increased in the new social structure (Castells, 2000). Professionalism fundamentally began with industrial societies (Toffler, 1984), and white collar has been used to describe office positions. Hence, blue collar is the symbol of trades and white collar of professionals, being defined as the work done or the people who work in an office or another professional environment (Oxford Dictionary, 2013). The term was first used for clerical, administrative and management workers during the 1930s. In contrast to demanding blue-collar jobs, white-collar workers principally work with data such as numbers, words, symbols, ideas, concepts, information and knowledge. White-collar
workers are generally employed in resourceful jobs with challenging work and more control (Van den Broeck et al., 2009).

3. Pink Collar as a Metaphor for the Female Workforce: Because of the increased number of organizations, the employment of women has increased and their roles in societies have changed (Toffler, 1984). In general, the number of women entering the paid working population has continued to increase since the post-war period. Theoretical questioning on the basis and nature of women’s social positions may have begun earlier, but issues about female contributions to working life began in the late 1960s and early 1970s (Bose & Rossi, 1983). According to Beneria and Sen (1981), the role of women in economic development had been largely ignored, but in 1970 Boserup attracted attention to a variety of subjects that were systematically related to the role of women in economies. Tzannatos (1999) underlines the significant adverse effects of inequalities on welfare, suggesting the greater access of women to education and training, equal pay and employment opportunities legislation, and a taxation and benefit structure. Wickman (2012) underlines that in the late 1970s the term pink collar was popularized by the writer and social critic Louise Kappe Howe. The term was used for jobs perceived to be feminine, such as nurses, secretaries and elementary school teachers. In addition, Quinion (2013) claimed that the term was invented to describe the female equivalent of blue-collar workers. McLaughlin (1983) defined offices as a world of pink and white-collar workers because of expanding economies and the rapidly growing service sector segment. In 1994, it was discussed that women’s work trips were shorter than men’s were and their labour market areas were smaller and their employment opportunities more limited (Hanson & Pratt, 1994).

4. Gold Collar as a Metaphor of Knowledge: The version of human labour in the new era comprises communication technology and knowledge. Although Darwin and Marx improved their perspective from the view of competition and struggle, today transformation in human life must be evaluated from the view of communication, knowledge and technology (Warner, 1999). Offices have become the new workplaces of those categorized as working on more abstract issues, being the main classification of knowledge workers (Toffler, 1984). Although countries such as the US and the UK were based on labour for many years, today the main dynamic of such developed countries is knowledge (Beniger, 1988). The most permanent characteristic of information societies is their organization around knowledge instead of the coordination of workers and machines for production. The quality of the production and services is more important than quantity. Actors of the new knowledge-economy era
are scientists, professionals and engineers (Stehr, 1994). The heroes of the new era are neither managers nor blue-collar workers, but those who innovate and invent (Toffler, 1992). The term gold-collar was first used by Robert Earl Kelley (1985) to describe knowledge workers at peak performance, who demanded special benefits along with high payment. Gold collars are defined by Wonacott (2007) as being experts in problem-solving abilities, creativity, talent and intelligence, performing non-repetitive and complex works. The reason for applying the term “gold” to these workers is their feature of being highly skilled, which means knowing several areas of a company’s work that are crucial to its continuing profitability. In addition, the term “gold collar manager” is used for those who supervise gold collar workers. Other terms for gold collar are knowledge worker, new economy worker and professional eclectics (Quinion, 2013).

5. Green Collar as a Metaphor for the Environment: The global financial crisis caused a greater need to find a new economic growth model for consumption and production practices. Intelligent and innovative thinking identifies policies, measures and strategies for future green growth. The paradigm of green growth has been catalyzed by the efforts made within science and technology as well as by community and environmental groups (Martinez-Fernandez et al., 2010). A green economy is suggested as a cure for the current economic problems and a way to address the issues of global warming. From this perspective, new investments can be encouraged to create millions of new green jobs (Michaels & Murphy, 2009). Green jobs are discussed by Jacobs (1994) as the employment implications of an environmental policy. The term green collar was first used in 1976 by Patrick Heffernan, and is defined as those involved in the work of installing solar panels, weatherizing homes, brewing biofuels, building hybrid cars and erecting giant wind turbines. Lucy Blake (the chief executive of the Apollo Alliance) argued that the green collar job is in essence a blue-collar job that has been upgraded to address environmental challenges (Greenhouse, 2008). There are key industries (renewable energy, energy efficiency, sustainable water systems, biomaterials, green buildings and waste recycling) which promise strong prospects of growth in numbers of green-collars (Pearce & Stilwell, 2008). There is no doubt that green-collar jobs are increasing (Greenhouse, 2008). According to Pinderhughers (2006), moving away from work which pollutes the environment, towards more restorative work, will bring significant changes and immediate benefits to workers, communities and societies.
Conclusion

In this paper, blue, white, pink, gold and green collars are investigated as the most popular human resource metaphors. The metaphorical usages mentioned are discussed as symbols of socio-economic structures. It seems that each economic progression causes a new human resource profile such as manual workers, professionals, female workers, knowledge specialists and workers for environmental protection. They can be accepted as the increasingly important results of technical ability in the original industrial society, the need for administrative and feminine workers in the service sectors, the development of technology, knowledge and communication and the green growth paradigm. The human resource of each aspect of progress is known by the figurative usage of colours of collars. These collar metaphors do not only symbolize the human resources but also the main characteristics, priorities and requirements of economic structures. Consequently, collar metaphors are not ordinary usages, they are the outcomes of economic structures that shape and influence human resources.

References


PROFITABILITY, GROWTH AND SIZE:
THE CASE OF TURKISH INDUSTRIAL
COMPANIES

HASAN AYAYDIN

Introduction

Firm growth has been one of the most important topics studied in business literature. A firm’s growth has appeared to be a multifaceted phenomenon, since there are many variables that could affect it. Deterministic and stochastic models have provided the theoretical basis to support the different analyses conducted on this topic in the scientific literature. Gibrat (1931) was the first to investigate firm growth patterns, his work resulting in Gibrat’s Law, or the Law of Proportionate Effects (LPE). According to the LPE, firm size has no systematic effect on the rate of firm growth. Owing to the formulation of Gibrat’s Law, the literature on the topic of the determinants of growth has greatly increased.

Industrialization is an essential process that forms the basis of socio-economic development. The stone and soil-based industrial sector includes ceramics, glass, cement, bricks, tiles and clay for construction work. This branch of industry is the backbone of the construction industry in our country and it has been since ancient times. The aim of our work is to enhance the analysis of the variables influencing firms’ growth: thus, we focus our investigation on the study of the effect of profitability and size on firm growth. To estimate the relationship between growth and profitability in Turkish stone and soil-based industrial companies, I use dynamic panel estimators. The present article is organized as follows: following this introduction, the theoretical background of firms’ growth and influencing factors are provided in Section 2; methodology is presented in Section 3; and empirical analysis and conclusions are presented in Section 4.
Theory and Literature

Firm growth and profitability have drawn a great deal of attention in the literature. It is extensively believed that firm growth and profit rates are related to each other (Goddard, Molyneux & Wilson, 2004). *Growth of the Fitter theory* was presented by Alchian (1950). According to this theory, fitness is depicted by the firm profit, and the profitable firms grow and survive in the market while the other firms exit due to poor performance (Kouser et al., 2012). Thus, if profit rates reflect the degree of fitness, it is possible to predict that profitable firms will grow (Jang & Park, 2011). Growth and profitability are both great concerns for the organization but there is still no generalized relationship between them. Some researchers argue that the profit of a firm has a positive effect on the growth (Goddard, Molyneux & Wilson, 2004; Serrasqueiro, 2009; Jang & Park, 2011; Mudambi & Swift, 2011; Kouser et al., 2012; Delmar, McKelvie & Wennberg, 2013). Other studies (Reid, 1995; Hoy, McDougall & D’Souza, 1992) found that profitability is negatively affected by growth. Roper (1999) and Gschwandtner (2005) showed there is no relationship between growth and profitability. Gibrat’s (1931) law is a reference point for empirical studies of firm growth (Goddard, Molyneux & Wilson, 2009). Gibrat’s law implies that with a random growth process, the expected growth rate is independent of a firm’s size and other identifiable firm and industry characteristics. The issue of whether firm size has a systematic influence on the growth rate of a firm has been the subject of extensive investigation in empirical studies (Mukhopadhyay & Khalkhal, 2010). Empirical studies show mixed evidence about the relationship between firm size and growth; some studies have found no relationship, others have found a positive relationship (Mansfield, 1962; Utton, 1971). Several studies have used Gibrat’s law to explain the firm size-distribution of the large firms in the United States (Chesher, 1979; Vining, 1976). Recent empirical studies have rejected Gibrat’s law and claimed that there is an inverse relationship between firm growth and firm size (Geroski & Gugler, 2004; Wilson & Morris, 2000; Mudambi & Swift, 2011; Garcia-Manjon & Romero-Merino, 2012; Delmar, McKelvie & Wennberg, 2013). These studies showed that small firms grow more rapidly than large firms. The reason behind these studies is that small firms struggle to achieve economies of scale. Small firms grow more rapidly than large firms while the firms that have gained economies of scale cannot grow any further, due to the reduction of cost to an absolute minimum level. The *optimal capital structure theory* indicates that the negative effect of leverage on growth enhances firm value because the leverage prevents managers from
taking on poor projects (Jang & Park, 2011). Opler and Titman (1994) and Billett, King and Maurer (2007) found that sales growth is lower in firms with higher leverage. Mudambi and Swift (2011) and Wu and Yeung (2012) found that corporate debt had been linked to lower firm growth. The possible catalyzing effect of liquidity on profitability, because of the greater possibility of meeting short-term commitments, seems not to be sufficiently relevant for greater liquidity to mean increased profitability. However, the possible restrictive effect of liquidity on profitability, also seems insufficiently relevant for greater liquidity to mean diminished profitability because of managers investing in unprofitable projects (Serrasqueiro, 2009). Adams and Buckle (2003) obtain a negative relationship between liquidity and profitability, unlike Goddard, Tavakoli and Wilson (2005). Thus, in companies with an optimal level of working capital, liquidity is expected to positively affect firm growth. Otherwise, liquidity level adversely affects firm growth.

Methodology and Data

In a period where economic and financial behaviour is largely influenced by past experiences and old patterns of behaviour, economic or financial relations lagged values of the variables examined in the research model. Thus, adding the lagged value as an explanatory variable is important to research the model. Methodologically, to estimate the relationship between growth, profitability, and size in Turkish stone and soil-based industrial companies, I use dynamic panel estimators: system generalized methods of moments. The dynamic panel model in eq. (1) requires instruments for the endogenous transformed lagged dependent variable (Baltagi, 2005) and other potentially endogenous explanatory variables. I use Blundell and Bond’s (1998) generalized methods of moments estimators (System GMM) methodology to estimate eq. (1). I estimate the following models:

$$\text{Growth}_{it} = \gamma \text{Growth}_{i,t-1} + \beta_1 \text{Probability}_{i,t} + \beta_2 \text{Liquidity}_{i,t} + \beta_3 \text{Size}_{i,t} + \beta_4 \text{Leverage}_{i,t} + \nu_{it}$$

(1)

where subscripts $i$ and $t$ indicate firm and time, respectively; $\beta_0$ is common to all recipient firms; $\text{Growth}_{i,t}$ is firm sale growth in the current period; and $\text{Growth}_{i,t-1}$ is firm sale growth in the previous period. I use three alternative probability measures ($\text{Roa}$, $\text{Roe}$ and $\text{Ros}$) and two alternative firm size measures ($\text{Size1}$ and $\text{Size2}$). Our study of the relationship between probability, size and firms’ growth is developed for Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST)-based industrial companies listed in 22 stone and soil from Turkey (2003-2012). All data was obtained from the public
disclosure platform (KAP) and Istanbul Stock Exchange (BIST). Table 1-1 shows definitions of variables, expected signs.

**Table 1-1. Definitions of variables, expected signs**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Definition</th>
<th>Expected sign</th>
<th>Related studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>the change the firm's sales</td>
<td></td>
<td>Jang &amp; Park, 2011; Mudambi &amp; Swift, 2011; Rahaman, 2011; Wu &amp; Yeung, 2012; Delmar et al., 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roa</td>
<td>return on assets</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Vijayakumar &amp; Devi, 2011; Kouser et al., 2012; Delmar et al., 2013</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roe</td>
<td>return on equity</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Hall &amp; Weiss, 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ros</td>
<td>return on sales</td>
<td>+</td>
<td>Jang &amp; Park, 2011; Vijayakumar &amp; Devi, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size1</td>
<td>the logarithm of a firm’s total assets</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>Hall &amp; Weiss, 1967; Rahaman, 2011; Kouser et al., 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size2</td>
<td>the logarithm of firm’s sales</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>Samuels &amp; Smyth, 1968; Wu &amp; Yeung, 2012</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquidity</td>
<td>current assets/liabilities</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>Goddard et al., 2005; Serrasqueiro, 2009, Rahaman, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leverage</td>
<td>Total debt/assets</td>
<td>+/-</td>
<td>Serrasqueiro, 2009; Mudambi &amp; Swift, 2011; Wu &amp; Yeung, 2012</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Empirical Results**

Table 1-2 provides descriptive statistics of all variables. The three measures of probability do not differ during the entire period of 2003-2012. During the entire period of 2003-2012, the mean value of Ros, Roa and Roe are 0.047, 0.049 and 0.069, respectively. As can be seen from Table 1-1, I get similar pictures for firm size from the two alternative measures. Size1 variable is a value between “5.4” and “14.3”. Size 2 variable is a value between “4.6” and “10.3”.

**Table 1-2. Descriptive statistics**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Variables</th>
<th>Obs.</th>
<th>Mean</th>
<th>Std. Dev.</th>
<th>Min</th>
<th>Max</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Growth</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>0.572</td>
<td>3.997</td>
<td>-1</td>
<td>129.68</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ros</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>0.047</td>
<td>0.615</td>
<td>-10.05</td>
<td>1.318</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roa</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>0.049</td>
<td>0.081</td>
<td>-0.49</td>
<td>0.367</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Roe</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>0.069</td>
<td>6.744</td>
<td>216.72</td>
<td>6.833</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Liquidity</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>1632.46</td>
<td>54811.34</td>
<td>0.165</td>
<td>184334</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size1</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>8.15</td>
<td>0.705</td>
<td>5.424</td>
<td>14.394</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Size2</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>7.72</td>
<td>0.799</td>
<td>4.633</td>
<td>10.387</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Leverage</td>
<td>1131</td>
<td>0.332</td>
<td>0.201</td>
<td>-0.396</td>
<td>1.236</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>