A Review on Effect of Culture, Structure, Technology and Behavior on Organizations

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Abstract: Nowadays, organizational behavior has a closely relationship with culture and structure. Thus, when the organization made the strategies, they should be paid attention to these factors. In this paper first of all, we review the define of culture, structure and behavior. After that, we will study about the relationship between organizational culture and structure and its effects on behavior. We will describe a variety of approaches to subdividing work at the organizational and unit levels. To profound study about organizations, we also describe organizational behavior, culture, and structure as a hard side of organizations, and we will present their relationship.

Key words: Organizational Culture, Organizational Structure, Organizational Technology, Organizational Behavior.

INTRODUCTION

Organizational behaviour is concerned with the study of the behaviour of individuals and groups in organizations (Schermherhorn, Hunt and Osborn, 1995). It covers the understanding, prediction and control of human behaviour and the factors which affect the performance of people as members of an organization (Luthans, 1985). Therefore, there is a clear and significant relationship between organizational behaviour and management theories. Some researcher believed that organizational behaviour and management are synonymous, but this is something of an over-simplification because there are many broader facets to management. Organizational behaviour does not encompass the whole management; it is more accurately described in the narrower interpretation of providing a behavioral approach to management (Mullins,1990).

Robbins & Coulter (Robbins and Coulter, 2005) described organizational culture as the shared values, beliefs, or perceptions held by employees within an organization or organizational unit. For the reason that organizational culture reflects the values, beliefs and behavioral norms that are used by employees in an organization to give meaning to the situations that they encounter, it can influence the attitudes and behavior of the staff (Scott-Findlay Shannon and Estabrooks, 2006). Understanding the organization’s core values can prevent possible internal conflict (Watson,Clarke,Swallow and Forster, 2005), which is the main reason for our research into these cultural issues.

In other management fields, empirical research of organizational culture has involved the functionalist perspective, providing impressive evidence of the role of organizational culture in improving performance (Denison and Mishra,1995). The pervasiveness of an organizational culture requires that management recognize its underpinning dimensions and its impact on employee-related variables, such as job satisfaction (Lund, 2003), organizational commitment (Casida and Pinto-Zipp, 2008), and performance (Denison,Haaland and Goelzer, 2004). The organization consists of the staff, with the behavior of its individual members affecting outcomes. Since cultural research within the nursing field is not common (Cooke and Green, 2000), it is necessary to explore the way the culture influences the behavior of the nursing staff, and in turn how the behavior of the staff influences the organizational outcome.

I. Organizational Culture:

Organizational culture consists of various elements ranging from latent cognitive components such as assumptions, values and beliefs to the more manifest elements such as artifacts and symbols (Schein, 1985;Kotter and Heskett, 1992; Liu, 1999). Values, practices and behaviors, however, remain the fundamental, albeit latent, components of organizational culture and ethics provide the core essence in the formation of these components. Rosenthal and Rosnow (Rosenthal and Rosnow,1991) indicated that, “Ethics (refer) to the system of moral values by which the rights and wrongs of behavior”. Rokeach (Rokeach, 1972) regards values as signifying enduring beliefs in particular ways of behaving or preferences for states in the future. Not only should ethics refer to values but, in order to secure operation, reference must be made to principles and standards regarding behaviour. That necessity immediately raises questions of whose values are to be employed in determining the standards and further related issues when people are required to exercise judgment.
It is a well-known reality that the businesses participating cannot stay in the society without any acknowledgement of exciting of the society and on the other hand the society has to go forward with the compliance of the business. Kotter and Heskett defined organizational culture, "as an interdependent set of values and ways of behaving that are common to a community and tend to perpetuate themselves, sometimes over a long period of time" (Campbell and Van de Walle, 2003). Robbins defines organizational culture as "a system of shared meaning held by members that distinguishes the organization from other organizations. This is a set of characteristics that the organization values." (Damian and Zowghi, 2003).

The following is an excellent summary of these various definitions of culture: “Culture is a pattern of beliefs and expectations shared by the organization" members. These beliefs and expectations produce norms that shape the behavior of both individuals and groups within an organization. Culture is usually long-term, strategic, and difficult to change. It is rooted in beliefs and values. An organizational culture also represents the shared sense of the way we do things around here, a critical factor in guiding day-to-day behavior and shaping a future course of action”(MacGregor, Hsieh and Kruchten, 2005).

What are the common elements to these various definitions? Culture is behavioral patterns transmitted over time to a community that are relatively stable. For an organization, culture is the guiding beliefs that determine the "way we do things around here" (Herlea and Greenberg, 1998).

II. Types of Organizational Cultures:

Cultural pattern can be discovered by conducting a detailed through study that helps to find out how and why those patterns exist in an organization. It grows through a long process and is conditioned in its own way because it is a mixture of many organizational elements, for example, formalization, conventions, decision making processes, style of interaction, decor of building, process of implementing the decisions, formal and informal grouping and individuals. These factors are the ones on which a culture is based upon. Organizations can have one of the three types of culture as shown in table 1.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Table 1: Types of Organizational Cultures</th>
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<td>Organizational Cultures</td>
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| Alienated | 1. It indicates that conflicts are present  
2. Participants follow the principles and formalization of the organization, but reluctantly. |
| Democratic | The basic assumption behind democratic culture is that conflicts should be brought into the surface so that they can be analyzed and solved amicably. |
| Antagonistic | 1. Antagonistic culture paradigm is based on "what I am saying, is correct and should be accepted"  
2. This choice of "should be" is the key factor in raising antagonist culture in the organization. |

II.I Alienated Culture:

The basic assumption of such a culture is that the formal rules and regulations are more important than showing and resolving underlying conflicts. It does not matter if conflicts are resolved or not, but it is expected that participants must fulfill their formal and basic duties so that they can keep their positions. In this type of culture, employees have two strategies either does not raise voice or leave the system. Alienated culture nourishes generally in rational but autocratic type of organizational structures. The reason is that this structure supports single-loop learning and restricts participants’ voice action. The rational structure fosters non-accommodative behaviour which leads to rational type of informal grouping. Thus interaction between groups and individuals will be more calculative. Informal groups within organizations are source of providing cognitive dissonance to each other. The cognitive dissonance is reduced by raising alienation for other groups and organization. Alienated culture curb voice action and demands forced loyalty to the system (Yousaf, 2010).

II.II Democratic Cultures:

The democratic culture gives provision to voice action which means that participants can disagree without developing hard feelings for each other. It relies more on accommodative behaviour which leads to collaborating style of resolving conflicts. The collaborating attitude favors democratic type of informal grouping which emphasizes on moral commitment. The groups are interactive in informal settings. Since it provides participants’ outlets to channel their energies through voice action therefore decisions are made by convincing each other which not only reduces cognitive dissonance but increases confidence and friendship between individuals and groups in the organizations (Yousaf, 2010).

III.II Antagonistic Culture:

In this culture, Participants are not open in their dealing and they develop an assumption in the long run which says "you do what you like; I’ll do what I like". Participants’ threats to each other are a common feature during interaction. In such kind of culture, participants are afraid of each other's presence, hence "no contact or less contact" is considered a solution to avoid cognitive disturbance. This culture provides room for non-accommodative behaviour with the provision of agitating voice action. Participants reach a conflicting level
where they are alienated and unconcerned with the development of organization. They are scared of others’ manipulation or afraid that they will lose power if they cooperate with the other person. Every event and person cognitively becomes irrelevant except that they find their own actions legitimate in all cases and use all kinds of means to defend them. (Yousaf, 2010).

Table 2: Chart of Major Elements of Three Types of Cultures

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Type of Culture</th>
<th>Type of Grouping</th>
<th>Interpersonal Behavior</th>
<th>Available Strategies for Employees</th>
<th>Employee Involvement</th>
<th>Cognitive Reaction</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Alienated Culture</td>
<td>Rational Informal Grouping</td>
<td>Partially-Accommodative</td>
<td>Little room for voice but room for exit or forced loyalty</td>
<td>Calculative</td>
<td>Dissonance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Democratic Culture</td>
<td>Friendly relationship between informal group</td>
<td>Accommodative</td>
<td>Room for Voice and loyalty</td>
<td>Moral</td>
<td>Consonance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Antagonistic Culture</td>
<td>Antagonistic relationship between groups</td>
<td>Non-Accommodative</td>
<td>Room for exit</td>
<td>Alienative</td>
<td>Irrelevant</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

III. Organizational Structure:

There are many different opinions and definitions on organizational structure. Structure in one sense is the arrangement of duties used for the work to be done. This is best represented by the organization chart (Jackson and Morgan, 1982). What determines organizational structure? Classics in the field of organization theory represent many different schools. Some believe that certain factor, such as size, environment, or technology, determine organizational structure. They argue that these factors impose economic or other constrains on organizations that force them to choose certain structure over others. Thompson (Thompson, 1966) said that structure "is the internal differentiation and patterning of relationships." He referred to structure as the means by which the organization sets limits and boundaries for efficient performance by its members, by delimiting responsibilities, control over resources, and other matters. Katz and Kahn (Katz and Kahn, 1978) indicate that "structure is to be found in an interrelated set of events which return to complete and renew a cycle of activities." Jackson and Morgan use a modified definition originally formulated by Child (Child, 1972). They defined structure "as the relatively enduring allocation of work roles and administrative mechanisms that creates a pattern of interrelated work activities and allows the organization to conduct, coordinate, and control its work activities" (Jackson and Morgan, 1982).

Organization in this paper has a very specific meaning. It refers to the leadership and/or management of a specific area. If for example, there are analysts at a remote site but they all report to and are managed by one organization, then the requirements elicitation may be distributed but the organization is not. Figure 1 shows some of the more common arrangements in global software development efforts. “A”, “D”, and “I” represent analysis, high level design, and implementation (including low level design) respectively. Where the boxes touch it means that the processes are co-located (at the same site and organizationally integrated). Note that integration testing has been left out (It is not the focus of this report). Project management structure also varied on observed projects, and given any of the sample structures shown, management might have been co-located with any of the other development process sites or spread over several. Where management organization is relevant, it will be mentioned in the narrative.

IV. Organizational Behavior and Organizational Structure:

The Culture is a set of values that are adopted by people who cohabit any place. For enhance, when we refer to a culture of a particular place (say, Microsoft Culture), we are talking about the shared traits of the people who lived there, their lifestyles, their rituals, etc. If we apply this definition of culture with the prefixed word 'organization', we are referring to the rules and the underlying values of an organization that are constant and apply to all employees, without any bias or favoritism. It is the foundation of the overt and covert behaviors and reactions of all people that work in an organization.

Going into the depth of this subject, it is said that organizational culture and ethics can be broken up into three tiers on an organizational culture pyramid. The lowest tier is that of artifacts and behaviors. Artifacts and behaviors are the most tangible aspects of organizational culture. The physical layout of the workplace and the displayed behaviors of the employees comprise this level. The next tier on the organizational culture pyramid is that of values. Values are those thoughts which influence the assumptions and behaviors of employees. Hence they are tangible. The top tier on the organizational culture pyramid is that of assumptions and beliefs. This tier is the most crucial and intangible aspect of organizational culture. At the same time assumptions and beliefs are toughest to imbibe in the employees and takes time. But once the employees are in tune with the assumptions and beliefs of the organization, they stay on and impact the values and behaviors of the employees. Read on for more about types of organizational culture and primary characteristics of organizational culture. Thus we can
see that it is very important that a good organizational culture is created, taught and followed. It is the responsibility of the management to create a good organizational culture through organizational leadership which is harmonious, symbiotic and realistic. A good organizational culture based on mutual respect fosters teamwork and efficiency. Organizational culture and behavior are quite interrelated as organizational culture influences behavior and vice-versa. Organizational behavior is the study of how individuals behave in an organization. It is one of the key areas in the field of management. Organizational behavior, as the name suggests, studies the behaviors of individuals but is restricted to the behaviors displayed by them in the organization. It deals with the overt and covert behaviors of employees and their response to certain stimuli. It also studies an important branch of group and team dynamics. The point of studying organizational behavior by managers is to understand the behaviors of employees, why they behave in a particular way, and look for ways in which wrong employee behaviors can be improved.

Over the years several organizational behavior theories have been suggested. These theories gave the various models of organizational systems. Organizational systems have been modified over time to ensure employee satisfaction and organizational progress. Organizational behavior is the art and science which advocates that there can indeed be mutual satisfaction between employees and the management as opposed to the old notion that these two parties are always at loggerheads due to disparate visions. Organizational behavior says that a shared vision and employee motivation leads an organization towards success.

This was all about organizational culture and behavior. It is interesting to know that organizational culture is a part of the vast topic of organizational behavior. After all, organizational culture too deals with the modification and improvement in organizational behavior of individuals (Krokosz-Krynke, 2000).

The behavior found within a successful organization will in part be due to, and continually nourished by, a healthy organizational culture. It's extremely important to know what type of behavior culture has the greatest impact and how culture works to control the behavior of members of that particular organization. The culture will affect the organization, just as the opposite is true. Behavior is a learned habit, and the process of socialization that teaches new employees the habits of those workers already there is one of the major parts of organizational culture. The behavior of individuals within a culture will depend greatly on the behavior that is encouraged by the higher ups, and by the general organizational culture that any corporate entity has. There are always decisions that have to be made about a business that leans the culture, and therefore the behavior of the employees there, one direction of the other. The following are some examples of the different conflicting emphasis that can clash with each other in determining the behavior of the employees (Kulkarni, 2009).

V. Organizational Behavior and Organizational technology:

Modern-day advanced technologies generally fall into two broad categories; technologies related to manufacturing and technologies related to administration. As a term Information Technology (IT) is now used for all types of computer hardware and software, telecommunications and office equipment. In some of the
definitions of IT, applications of computers and electronic controls in manufacturing equipment and processes are included. Computers have thus moved from background which is accounting and administrative activities in organizations into foreground tasks in product and process design, order processing, typing, and the control of domestic as well as manufacturing equipment. (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan and Coskun, 2010).

What does IT do in an organization?

Information Capture: First of all the instruments of this technology capture information passive or actively. The term capture implies gathering, collecting, monitoring, detecting and measuring. Information Storage: The technology converts numerical and textual information into binary, digital form and retain it in some form of permanent computer memory from which the information can be retrieved when required. Information Manipulation: IT can rearrange and perform calculations on stored information. In this context, manipulation means organizing and analyzing especially where repetitive calculations are necessary (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan and Coskun, 2010). Maddock (1978) and Tobey argue that microelectronics and application of new technology will replace mechanical and electromechanical devices and displace human reasoning. On the other hand, Barron and Curnow, Barley, Tasliyan and JannoT argue that electronic controls lack human adaptability and could create systems which enhance job skills and interest (Abrahamson and Rosenkopf, 1997).

Technological change and advances may have two possible effects on an organization: firstly, the skill and the knowledge requirements of employees may change as a new devices and program are introduced. Secondly, to the extent that information technologies replace people then some people loses their jobs. One thing is obvious to anyone is that the impact at the level of the organization may not reflect the overall, or “aggregate” impact of technical change in the economy as a whole (Buchanan and Stubblebine, 1962).

The popular result which reinforced by the claims of information technology producers and salesmen, declares that these new devices will increase productivity through replacements effects. The main stand point of these claims thanks to new technologies machine will do more and more as a result the people that required becomes less and less. These sorts of productivity increase will therefore reduce job opportunities and create unemployment.

However, as mentioned earlier significant technological development is not new and since 1950s it is consistent with increasing employment. Furthermore a research conducted in Britain concluded that “the evidence from the economic history of the entire industrial age is that technological change has been beneficial to aggregate employment” (Sleigh, Boatwright, Irwin, and Stanyon, 1979). The unemployment experienced time to time in especially industrialized western countries is not a technological unemployment but was caused by deterioration in world trade and whole economy. The above cited report also argued that “it cannot be stressed too strongly that the overall impact on jobs will depend crucially on an unforeseeable economic climate” (Sleigh, Boatwright, Irwin, and Stanyon, 1979). Nevertheless, electronics will be so pervasive, so radically productive, and so rapidly introduced that previous relationships between technology and employment can be changed. These new technologies may create an entirely new pattern of production of goods and services, a new pattern of employment, a new nature of work, and a new set of organizational behavior (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan and Coskun, 2010).

The overall effects of the technology may depend on the operation of a number of instruments:

1. New Products and Services: technological innovation generates new products and services like personal computers, lap tops, commercial databases, these new innovations changes the pattern of consumer demands for goods and services. This guides organizations to invest in these new technologies which in turn lead to new employment opportunities and new skills requirements.

2. Lower Costs Increase Demand: Higher productivity indicates producing the same output with the same or fewer resources. Thanks to these lower costs consumers found reduced or stable prices which then may lead increased demands although it is hard to guess how they will change.

3. Time Lags: It is always hard to adopt a new technology into existing systems and organizations. Sometimes there are technical problems, sometimes social, and sometimes economical to overcome.

4. Risks: Most organizations adopt new technologies slowly to reduce or avoid the risks.

5. Expectation of Demand: Expensive investments in new technologies are mainly due to the expectation of higher demands. Thus an organization may need to employ more people to handle the increase in business or new people who have the skills that require using these new technologies.

6. Technical Limitations: New technologies do not always live up to the claims of the salesman. So, for some time existing jobs, skills and machinery may be required to work alongside the new devices (Buchanan and Stubblebine, 1962).

It is found that in another research the new technology adaptation creates stress amongst the member of organizations (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan and Coskun, 2010).The diffusion of technology has been one of the most popular areas being studied covering many different technology forms since the beginning of the 1930s (Rogers, 1995). According to the most widely accepted definition, “diffusion is the process by which an innovation is communicated through certain channels over time among the members of a social system”. Rogers
(1995) suggests that the diffusion process of a new technology or innovation is associated with five attributes of that particular technology or innovation:

1. Relative advantage, defined as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as being better than the idea it supersedes”, is presumed to be positively related to diffusion.

2. Compatibility, defined as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as consistent with the existing values, past experiences, and needs of potential adopters”, is presumed to be positively related to diffusion speed.

3. Complexity, defined as “the degree to which an innovation is perceived as relatively difficult to understand and use”, is presumed to be negatively related to diffusion.

4. Trial ability, defined as “the degree to which an innovation may be experimented with on a limited basis”, is presumed to be positively related to diffusion.

5. Observability, defined as “the degree to which the results of an innovation are visible to others”, is presumed to be positively related to diffusion (Rogers, 1995).

Tornatzky and Klein add the following categories to the above ones: cost, communicability, divisibility, profitability, and social approval (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan, and Coskun, 2010). Besides characteristics of the innovation or the new technology itself, other factors have been proposed, namely, organizational and environmental attributes such as the size of the organization, its willingness to absorb risks, the degree of competition in the industry, the activeness of change agencies, type and extent of authoritative intervention, etc. (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan, and Coskun, 2010). Finally, it is important to emphasize the inherent subjectivity of the factors that have been deliberately designed into the implied casual relationships. Adoption decisions are generally taken by management, which constantly evaluates alternative investment options that compete for scarce resources.

Thus, managerial expectations about the comparative attractiveness of those options, on the basis of that particular organization’s specific internal and external situation, its objectives and strategy, govern the outcome of the decision processes (Pfeiffer, 1992). In addition to the factors mentioned above, the widespread usage of an innovation or new technology, as labeled “externality” (Buchanan and Stubblebine, 1962). “Positive externalities” (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan, and Coskun, 2010) or “network externalities”, are also important. Network externalities express the fact that the total utility a consumer derives from the use of a good or service is not only dependent upon its functional characteristics and environmental circumstances (e.g. time, location, purpose of usage), but also upon the number of other consumers using the same, a compatible, or a complementary good or service (Pfeiffer, 1992).

The externalities are much more obvious where IT technologies were studied such as the telephone or E-mail. The property of conferring network externalities that distinguishes some technologies from others has direct implications for their diffusion, which is usually described by the notion of a “critical mass”. This term has been taken from nuclear physics where it specifies a minimum amount of radioactive material necessary to sustain a chain reaction (Armstrong, 1991). Critical mass, from a social point of view, can be defined as “a small segment of the population that chooses to make big contributions to the collective action while the majorities do little or nothing” (Bakan, Tasliyan, Eraslan, and Coskun, 2010). The critical mass effect is that some members of the community join or establish the network, initially at a loss, in the expectation that their contribution will increase the utility provided by the service. This then induce marginal non-users to follow suit which in turn increases the utility of the network again the process continues until some equilibrium state is reached (e.g. universal access, i.e. full interconnection) (Pfeiffer, 1992). In recent times, IT has become an important subject of diffusion studies, mainly because of its swift advance and remarkable impact on the economy. Although many research studies showed their benefits some of the IT related new technologies, such as subject-oriented. This relatively slow implementation and diffusion of new information technologies is related to the time period, technology characteristics, the organization’s size and social environment, and network externalities, as mentioned above for diffusion of innovations. Therefore diffusion studies’ dimensions must include these into investigations (LePoire, 1999).

In his longitudinal study, LePoire (1999) uses an ecological metaphor when studying the diffusion of groupware technology in organizations. His hypothesis is that new IT technology diffuses best if introduced with simple reconfigurable objects, allowing the organization to adopt and explore the secondary effects of the technology, and find niches for the technology that fits the current corporate culture. Another hypothesis is that early growth in a sub-section of the organization might not be sustainable but can contribute to the diffusion (LePoire, 1999). Effective introduction of IT requires not only technical expertise but also managers who appreciate these changes and support them. Successful IT implementation requires changes to the way in which work is organized and in workers’ jobs. The changes needed and the effects of the IT are not determined exclusively by the nature of the technology, but also by the way that it is implemented (Broom and Selznick, 1968). IT can be used to centralize or decentralize control, to deskill or enrich jobs, to improve services or depersonalize them. Senker and Senker, found in their research that many firms introduce new IT equipment and systems without the necessary “thorough understanding” of the technology.
The necessary knowledge is both technical and, perhaps more important, knowledge about the implications for human resource management. As a result, “companies often fail to secure the full potential of competitive advantage from IT” (Senker and Senker, 1992). According to Cunningham and Tynan, “all IT systems have the potential for less obvious second order effects; these are less predictable, but may well prove to be more important for the organization, and the organizations with which it interacts” (Abrahamson and Rosenkopf, 1997). The introduction of computers into business by large companies in the 1960s was one of the most important developments of Information Technology. At that time multi-million pound mainframe computers were handling large-scale operations such as stock, payroll, and production control. By the 1980s computer technology had progressed rapidly and this progress allowed organizations as well as individuals to use cheap but much more powerful personal computers (PCs). The late 1980s witnessed the wide adoption and use of PCs throughout organizations, largely due to the low price and multi-functionality of PCs. In an international study conducted on managers, Bjorn-Andersen, Eason and Robey (1986) found that in almost all channels and means of communication, the number of managers who identify an increase in communication is significantly higher than the number of managers who identify a decrease. They concluded “computer systems complement existing communication systems instead of substituting them” (Scott and Jaffe, 1998). Moreover, their research reported that the managers felt that the computer system increased the amount of factual information, increased claims of the involvement to decision making processes of employees those related to computer issues, and increased the ability to check on activities. While computer systems provide easy access to accurate information for everyone in an organization, as Bjorn-Andersen et al. found in their study, every employee in the decision process feels that he or she is more able to influence the decisions and behavior of others.

Conclusion:

This paper is mentioned the effect of technology, culture and behavior on organization. Any organization same society or body, therefore all of the department of organization must be relation between them, but the human resource of organization made very important role and organization must be understand of this relation. The management of an organization must be aware of all these factors and the interactions between them and deal with them before or concurrently they create a problem. In fact, the main of a manager is to use these technological, structural and cultural adaptations as an opportunity to rearrange the positions, procedures, relationships and tasks in the organization for better performance results. There is no perfect strategy which suits to any organization for every situation. That is why the managers of an organization have to search for their best solution for both their organization and employees in accordance with the circumstances their organization in.

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