

The Self in Family Context and Traditional Family Values on  
Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style

by

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This is to certify that I have examined this copy of a master's thesis by

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## **STATEMENT OF AUTHORSHIP**

This thesis contains no material which has been accepted for any award or any other degree or diploma in any university or other institution. It is affirmed by the candidate that, to the best of his(or her) knowledge, the thesis contains no material previously published or written by another person, except where due reference is made in the text of the thesis.

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## **ABSTRACT**

In this thesis, within culture variations in attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style were investigated with a focus on the (I) Self in Family Context and (II) Traditional Family Values. The participants were 467 university students and 230 professional white collar workers. Both in the student and professional samples, results showed that autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals were associated with their attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style. Furthermore, in the student sample, the three self groups (i.e., autonomous – related self, autonomous – separate self, and heteronomous – related self) significantly differed in terms of their attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style. However, in the professional sample, there was a significant difference only between heteronomous – related and autonomous – separate self groups. Results also indicated that, in both samples, Traditional Family Values were associated with positive attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style. Finally, for both samples, multiple regression analyses supported a mediated model, where both autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals mediated by their Traditional Family Values predicted their attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style.

**Keywords:** Paternalistic Leadership Style, Autonomy, Relatedness, Self, Traditional Family Values, Attitudes

## ÖZET

Bu çalışmada, (I) Aile Bağlamında Benlik ve (2) Geleneksel Aile Değerleri, Babacan Liderlik Tipi' ne yönelik tutumların gelişimde etki edici faktörler olarak araştırılmıştır. Çalışma 467 üniversite öğrencisi ve 230 beyaz yaka çalışandan oluşan iki örneklem kullanılarak yapılmıştır. Her iki örneklem grubu içinde, sonuçlar bireylerin sahip oldukları özerklik ve ilişkililik değerleri ile babacan liderlik tipine yönelik tutumları arasında anlamlı bir ilişki göstermiştir. Ayrıca öğrenci örneklem grubunda, bireylerin özerklik ve ilişkililik değerleri ve bu ikisinin kesişiminden oluşan üç benlik grubu, özerk – ilişki benlik, özerk – ayırık benlik, ve bağımlı – ilişki benlik, babacan liderlik tipine yönelik tutumları bakımından anlamlı farklılar göstermiştir. Ancak çalışan örneklem grubunda sadece özerk – ayırık ve bağımlı – ilişki benlik grupları arasında anlamlı fark bulunmuştur. Sonuçlar ayrıca her iki örneklem grubunda da Geleneksel Aile Değerlerinin babacan liderliğe yönelik tutumlar ile anlamlı bir ilişki içinde olduğunu ortaya koymuştur. Son olarak, çoklu regresyon analizleri, özerklik ve ilişkililik boyutlarının geleneksel aile değerleri aracılığı ile babacan liderlik tipine yönelik tutumları anlamlı bir şekilde yordadığını göstermiştir.

**Anahtar Sözcükler:** Babacan Liderlik, Özerklik, İlişkililik, Benlik, Geleneksel Aile Değerleri, Tutumlar

## **DEDICATION**

To My Family

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Almost 20 years have passed since my first day at the primary school. During those years, once in a while, I had lazy, confused, or indisposed times... Though whatever happened, my family was always nearby... That's why the biggest thank you goes to them. Without their unconditional love and support, I could not have enjoyed writing thanks to the following people.

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## Chapter 1

### Introduction

#### 1.1 General

Although the existence of followers is a *sine qua non* element that makes someone a leader, in the leadership literature, there is little attention to them. Moreover, most of the studies that entail followers ignore their preferences, but focus on the ways to change or affect the way they behave (e.g., Amabile, Schatzel, Moneta, & Kramer, 2004; Basadur, 2004), the work related social and contextual factors affecting their acceptance of the leader and his or her leadership style (e.g., Dose, 1999; Graen & Ginsburgh, 1977; Lord, Brown, Harvey, & Hall, 2001; Shalley & Gilson, 2004) and cultural differences in the process of leader effectiveness and acceptance (e.g., Helgstrand & Stuhlmacher, 1999; Negandhi & Robey, 1977; Schneider & Littrell, 2003).

Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) clearly indicated the neglecting position of the leadership literature about the preferences of followers:

“... there are areas where our knowledge base remains deficient. One of these areas is the topic of subordinate preferences for styles and supervision. With the exceptions of the research of Engle and Lord (1997) and Lord and Smith (1983) on the related topic of implicit theories of leadership traits and the recent work of de Vries (2002) on differences in the “need for supervision,” the study of preferences for leader behaviors has been relatively neglected since Hunt and Liebscher’s (1973, pp. 74–75) conclusion that there may be little justification for expending time and effort to assess preferences” (p. 327).

On the other hand, Implicit Leadership Theories (ILTs) suggest that “*Leadership is in the eye of the beholder*” (Kenney, Blascovich, & Shaver, 1994, p. 410). ILTs represent followers’ cognitive structures and schemas (Calder, 1977), which are stored in the memory and construe traits and behaviors expected from the leader by their followers (Epitropaki & Martin, 2004; Ling, Chia, & Fang, 2000). According to the ILTs approach, these cognitive structures and schemas of followers (leadership prototypes) are activated in the follower – leader interactions (Kenney, Schwartz-Kenney, & Blascovich, 1996) and used to categorize individuals who are in leadership positions. If the leader behavior matches with them, it is perceived as a potential leadership behavior (Rush & Russell, 1988) and leadership may be attributed to the individuals in leadership positions (Kenney et al., 1994). Thus, ILTs suggest that leadership preferences play an important role in the emergence, acceptance, and effectiveness of the leader. Indeed, Engle and Lord (1997) revealed that subordinates use ILTs to evaluate their superiors, and Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) suggested that the level and nature of leader involvement with subordinates might be optimized through an understanding of employee expectations.

Thus, the present thesis revisits the topic of follower preferences for leadership styles. In particular, the aim is to examine the background developmental factors that predispose individuals toward positive or negative outlooks on paternalistic leadership style. In that vein, it is argued that the self in family context and traditional family values affect the attitudes toward paternalistic leader behaviors.

## **1.2 Theoretical Framework and the Rationale of the Study**

In the present thesis, it is argued that the self construals of individuals with regard to their family socialization and family values they hold affect their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. In the present chapter, to evaluate this general framework, first, the literature on paternalistic leadership style is reviewed. Then, previous findings on the role of the family in the attitude development process are examined. Following, a model is presented, where attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style is predicted by the self in family context and traditional family values. Finally, embedded with the hypotheses of the current study, the model introduced in the present study is discussed.

The rationale behind this examination is the expected scientific and practical contributions of the current study. First of all, paternalistic leadership style is a common leadership style in non-Western contexts that constitute the majority of the world's population (Aycan, 2005). It is hoped that such an analysis of paternalistic leadership style would draw the attention of researchers on paternalistic leadership style, which is very salient but not well-studied (Aycan et al., 2000).

In addition, paternalistic leadership style is identified as a desired, respected and effective leadership style in some cultures, whereas it is a strongly criticized leadership style in others (Aycan et. al., 2000; Aycan, 2005). However, within-culture variations in attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style are not examined. Thus, another motivation underlying the present study is to understand the within-culture variations in the paternalistic leadership preferences of followers.

Moreover, the current study is based on the view that an integrated approach derived from different fields of psychology (such as those used in this paper; i.e.,

organizational, developmental, and social psychology) may help us to come up with more sophisticated and well-developed explanations. Applying cross-fertilized approaches may extend our understanding of concepts that are primarily used and discussed in one discipline by suggesting that it is possible to fulfill the missing parts of that discipline with another one. In that vein, it is suggested that two background variables that are mainly discussed in the developmental and social psychology literatures (i.e., the self in family context and traditional family values) might account for within-culture variations in leadership preferences. Thus, the present thesis emphasizes breaking the walls between sub-disciplines of psychology to be able to have more holistic and more explanatory theories.

In addition, considering the fakability of the measures in selection processes (Arthur, Woehr, & Graziano, 2001) and the fact that the applicants would not be able to connect the family-related measures to paternalistic leadership style easily (c.f., Dalen, Stanton, & Roberts, 2001), predicting attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style through the self in family context and traditional family values would allow practitioners to use additional tools to assess the attitudes of the applicants toward paternalistic leadership behaviors.

Finally, the hypotheses and the model presented in the current thesis are tested both in student and professional samples. Some researchers believe that it is appropriate to use student samples (e.g., Locke, 1986), whereas others argue that results in student samples differ from those in the field (Gordon, Slade, & Schmitt, 1986; Guion, 1983). By recruiting both student and professional participants, the present study further explores whether the results differ between the students and professionals.

## Chapter 2

### Literature Review

#### 2.1 Paternalistic Leadership Style

Paternalism is a complex construct that has controversial descriptions (Aycan, 2005). While it is described as being abusive, manipulative and exploitative by Western scholars, and strongly criticized in Western societies, it is identified as a desired, respected and effective leadership style in non-Western cultures.

Paternalism is defined by Webster's dictionary as the principle or system of governing or controlling a country, group of employees etc. in a manner suggesting a father's relationship with his children. This implies that paternalism occurs in a dyadic and hierarchical relationship (e.g., between the superior and the subordinate), and there is a role differentiation in this relationship (Aycan, 2005).

Paternalistic leadership in organizational context denotes treating employees as if they were a part of an extended family; and the paternalistic leader behaves in a 'fatherly/motherly' manner toward his or her subordinates. That is, the paternalistic superior behaves in such a way as to create a family atmosphere at the workplace, establishes close and individualized relationships with his or her subordinates, and involves in non-work domain in his or her relationships with his or her followers. In addition, his or her role is to provide care, protection and guidance to the subordinates both in work and non-work domains. He or she takes care of employees like a parent and is involved in every aspect of their lives (Aycan &

Fikret-Pasa, 2003). In return, the subordinates are expected to be loyal and deferent to the superior and react in such a way as to consider the workplace as a family (Aycan, 2001, 2005; Padavic & Earnest, 1994).

Aycan (2005) conceptualized paternalistic leadership behaviors as comprising five dimensions: (1) creating a family atmosphere at workplace, (2) establishing close and individualized relationships with subordinates, (3) involving in non-work domain, (4) expecting loyalty and deference in exchange for care and guidance, and (5) maintaining status hierarchy and establishing authority.

The first dimension, creating a family atmosphere at workplace, describes the leader as behaving like a father to his or her subordinates. For instance, a paternalistic leader is expected to give fatherly/motherly advice to his or her subordinates in their professional as well as personal lives.

The second dimension represents leader behaviors that aim to establish close relations with every subordinate individually. The paternalistic leader is expected to know every subordinate in person (personal problems, family life, etc.), be genuinely concerned with their welfare, and take a close interest in their professional as well as personal lives.

The third dimension, leaders' involvement in subordinates' non-work lives, entails leader behaviors such as attending important events (e.g., wedding and funeral ceremonies, graduations, etc.) of their subordinates as well as of their immediate family members; providing help and assistance (e.g., financial) to their subordinates who are in need; and acting as a mediator between an employee and his or her spouse when there is a marital problem.

The fourth dimension represents loyalty and commitment expectations of the leaders from their subordinates. For instance, employees are expected to

immediately attend to an emergency in the company even if this requires them to compromise their private lives. For a paternalistic leader, loyalty and commitment of the subordinate are the two most important criteria in evaluating the performance of the subordinate.

The final dimension, maintaining status hierarchy and establishing authority, involves leader behaviors such as giving importance to status differences (position ranks) and expecting employees to behave accordingly. The paternalistic leader believes that he or she knows what is good for the subordinates and their careers. He or she would also want that none of his or her subordinates doubt his or her authority.

## **2.2 A Review of Predictors Affecting Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

According to Aycan (2005), although paternalism is a salient characteristic and leadership style of Pacific Asian, Middle-Eastern and Latin American cultures, developed and industrialized societies of the West perceive it negatively. This distinction seems to be a result of different cultural characteristics of East and West. Aycan (2005) suggested that the effectiveness of paternalism can be understood and maximized in different socio-cultural contexts, since the way paternalistic leader is perceived as ‘good’ or ‘bad’ depends on the cultural context. There are also others concluding that the attitudes toward paternalism are results of cultural differences (e.g., Kim, 1994; Northouse, 1997).

Aycan (2004) suggested that attitudes toward paternalism are positive in collectivistic cultures, because of their characteristics such as high conformity, more

responsibility taking for others, and more interdependence. In contrast, individualistic cultures favor autonomy, self-reliance, and self-determination and paternalism is undesirable in individualistic cultures, since "... paternalistic leader's involvement in employee personal and family life can be perceived as violation of privacy in individualistic cultures ..." (p. 12).

She further indicated that the negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style in Western societies are a result of paternalism's unquestioning of power inequality in its implications, such that "... the paternalistic leader 'assumes' that he has superiority over his subordinate with respect to key competencies (knowledge, skills, and experience) as well as moral standards" (p. 14). On the other hand, she added that "... despite the negative attitudes, however, Western societies now consider it as a viable solution to their societal and organizational problems" (p. 3).

As a part of their study on the impact of culture on Human Resource Management (HRM) practices in industrially developed and developing countries, Ayca and her colleagues studied paternalism as a cultural dimension and investigated managers' perceptions of paternalism in ten countries from Asia, Europe, and North America. They found that the managers from collectivistic countries with high power distance, such as India, Pakistan, China, and Turkey, scored higher on their perceptions of paternalism than managers from individualistic cultures with low power distance, such as USA, Canada, Germany, etc.

Overall, the existing literature suggests that attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style are shaped through culture. That approach can be summarized as individuals from individualistic cultures with low power distance and high autonomy would develop negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style,

whereas individuals from collectivistic cultures with high power distance and interdependence would develop positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

Though valuable, this cross-cultural approach does not account for within-culture variations in attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. In the present thesis, that question is addressed from a social and developmental perspective. The effects of certain family related background variables are examined as factors predisposing individuals to have positive or negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. These are, (I) The self in family context, and (II) Traditional family values. In the following sections, previous findings on the role of the family in the development of the individuals' attitudes are examined.

### **2.3 Effects of Family on Individuals' Attitudes**

Literature, both at theoretical (Allport, 1935; Newcomb, 1964) and empirical levels, suggested that attitudes are socially learned (Eagley & Chaiken, 1993; Olson & Zanna, 1993; Oskamp, 1991) and acquired at early ages (Clark & Clark, 1958; Lambert & Klineberg, 1967). Indeed, family has been considered as one of the key variables in the process of attitude development (Grusec & Kuczynski, 1997, Kagitcibasi, 1999).

Social learning theory tried to explain the influence of parents on their offspring to have social attitudes like their own by referring to such processes as modeling, the use of reward and punishment on the part of parents, and imitation and identification on the part of children (Damon, 1983). In that vein, there exists an extensive literature supporting the effects of parents and family on individuals'

socialization processes, and numerous studies suggested a link between parents' attitudes and parenting styles and children's own attitudes. For instance, Sagara (2000) showed that parental rearing measures were correlated with male subjects' emotional attitudes and parent's expectations about jobs that have traditionally been men's work were correlated with female subjects' cognitive and emotional attitudes. Similarly, Rigby (2001) found that the student's attitudes toward authority were positively and significantly related to the perceived attitudes of their parents.

## **2. 4 Family in Organizational Psychology Literature**

Although there is a large body of evidence suggesting the importance of family in socialization and attitude development processes of individuals, the role of family background is underestimated in the organizational behavior literature. For instance, Osipow (1973) revealed that even though there exist extensive data showing how the family background influences the kind of initial occupational choice and the manner in which it is implemented, there is little theorizing to explicitly relate the role of the family to occupational behavior. Similarly, considering the dyadic nature of leadership, Hall and Lord (1998) suggested that other literatures that deal with dyadic relationships, e.g., parent – child relationships, should be included in the leadership studies.

Indeed, Implicit Leadership Theory (ILT) studies are increasingly focusing on childhood experiences as a developmental variable in shaping individuals' development of ILTs. For instance, Hunt, Boal and Sorenson (1990) suggested that early childhood experiences might be the cause of the individual differences in ILTs. Similarly, Keller (1999) suggested that parental models of leadership might play an

important role in shaping ILTs, since they would provide children with prior experience with a leader and shape their expectations for future interactions with authority figures. Accordingly, while trying to display the origins of implicit leadership images of individuals, Keller (1999) found that idealized leadership images of individuals mirrored descriptions of parental traits. In her research, Keller found support to her hypotheses, where perceived parental traits such as manipulative, domineering, and power-hungry (tyranny) also figured prominently in individuals' prototypical notions of leaderships. Keller (2003) also suggested that attachment styles of individuals might play an important role in shaping ILTs. According to Keller, the superior – subordinate relationship might be categorized as involving an affectional bond that might arouse attachment dynamics.

Moreover, Jablin and Krone (1994) indicated that parents provide children anticipatory socialization about work and leadership, and Roe (1957) found that the home atmosphere influenced the type of vocational activities that individuals had chosen. Similarly, Stark (1992) indicated that home might be one of the most important sources of on-the-job training.

Thus, the present thesis highlights the role of family background through a social and developmental perspective, and implants it into the organizational behavior context. The self in family context that construe the self with regard to family socialization and values related with traditional family structure and roles are presented as factors affecting the attitudes of individuals toward paternalistic leadership style. In the following sections, first, the self in family context, and then, traditional family values are presented.

## 2.5 The Self in Family Context

Through the history of psychology, the self has been one of the most important issues (Singelis, 2000). That interest shown to the self is increasing. Banaji and Prentice (1994) calculated that between the years 1987 and 1994, over 5,000 articles were published relating to the self. Such an interest is understandable, since the self strongly influences individuals' social behaviors in a wide range of psychological domains such as their perceptions, evaluations, attitudes, values, and roles (see Geertz, 1975; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Singelis, 2000; Triandis, 1989). However, most of the studies that studied the self used a Western conceptualization of the self (Bellah, Madsen, Sullivan, Swindler, & Tipton, 1985; Markus & Kitayama, 1994; cited in Singelis, Bond, Sharkey, & Lai, 1999) and lacked a cross-cultural perspective (Heine, Lehman, Markus, & Kitayama, 1999; Markus & Kitayama, 1991; Miller, 1997; Sampson, 1988; Schweder & Bourne, 1984). In these studies, autonomy and relatedness were considered to be conflicting patterns (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). However, recent work suggested that these are two of the basic human needs (Assor, Kaplan, & Roth, 2002; Baumeister & Leary, 1995; Reis, 1994), and not conflicting but compatible (Blatt & Blass, 1996; Cross & Madson, 1997; Guisinger & Blatt, 1994; Kagitcibasi, 1996a, 1996b, 2005b; Raeff, 1997).

This criticized conceptualization of the self has been a result of the construal of autonomy, which often combined two distinct dimensions: interpersonal distance and agency (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). The first one is the degree of distancing of the self from others. It extends from separateness to relatedness, reflecting the degree of connection with others. One pole of that continuum illustrates the separate

selves, who have well-defined and clear cut self boundaries with others, whereas the other pole reflects the connected selves, whose boundaries may be fused with others. The second dimension constitutes the degree of autonomous functioning and extends from autonomy to heteronomy. Kagitcibasi (1996b, 2005b) construes autonomy as the state of being a self-governing agent, and heteronomy as the state of being governed from outside. According to her, interpersonal distance and agency dimensions, which reflect basic human needs of relatedness and autonomy, underlie self, self-other relations and social behaviors. Given that these are two basic distinct dimensions, a person can be high in both of these two dimensions; a statement that is also accredited by recent works (Markus & Kitayama, 2003; Oyserman, Kemmelmeimer, & Coon, 2002; Sroufe, Cooper, & DeHart, 1996; Wiggins & Trapnell, 1996).

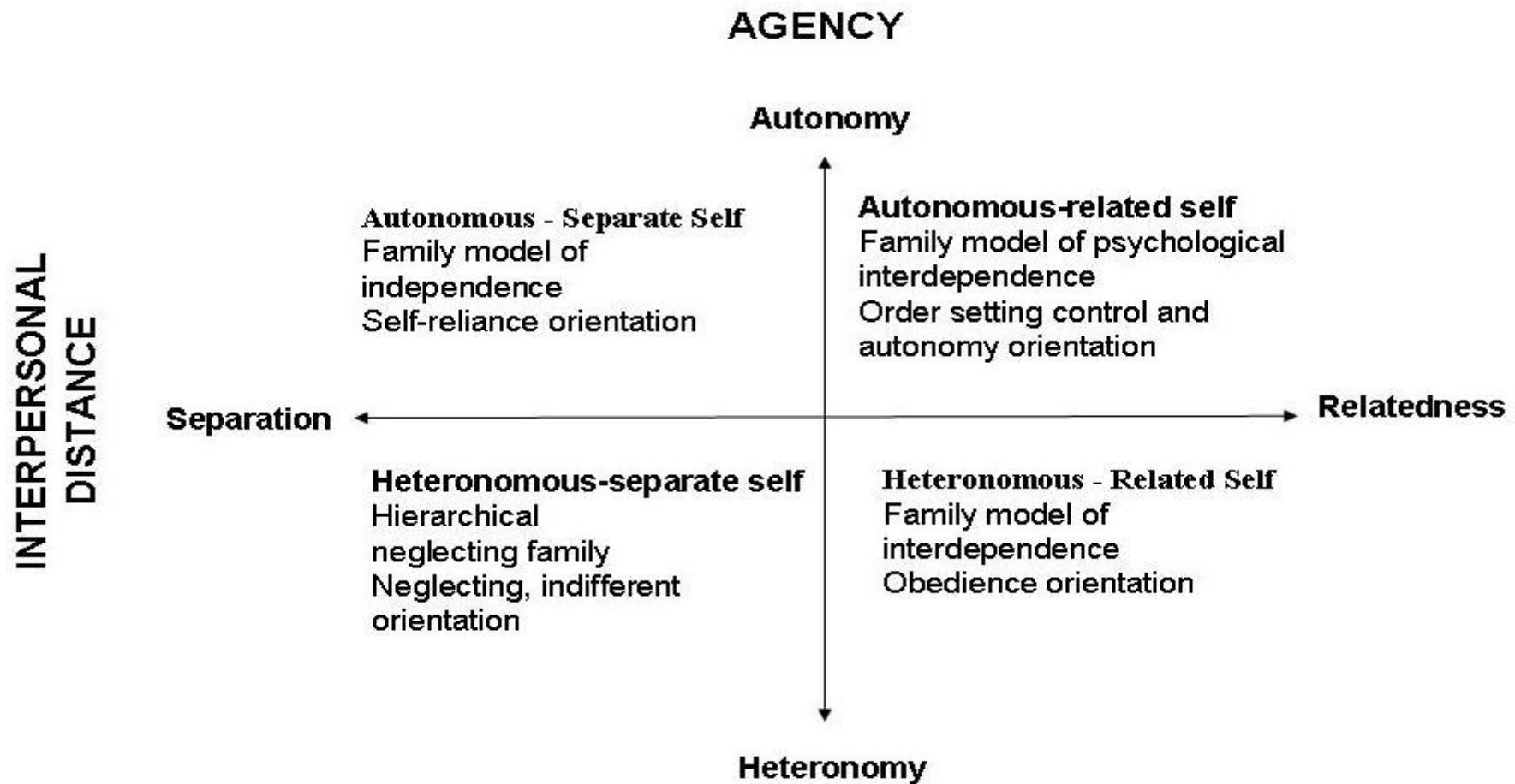
Although cross-cultural perspectives studied different types of self and the behaviors related to them, they did not look into the socialization processes that caused them. Thus, they did not answer how the different types of selves evolved. To address that question, Kagitcibasi (1996b, 2005b) proposed a developmental perspective, where she differentiated three prototypical family interaction patterns that lead the development of the self. The first one, family model of interdependence, is the traditional family characterized by the interdependence between generations in both material and emotional realms. The second pattern, family model of independence, is the individualistic model based on the independence of generations in both material and emotional realms. Finally, the third family interaction pattern, family model of psychological interdependence, is a dialectic synthesis of these two patterns, and involves psychological interdependence and material independence between generations.

According to Kagitcibasi (1996b, 2005b), combined with the two dimensions interpersonal distance (relatedness – separateness) and agency (autonomy – heteronomy), these different family models result in the development of different types of selves (Figure 1). These types of selves are prototypical characterizations and there are variations among two underlying dimensions of agency (autonomy vs. heteronomy) and interpersonal distance (relatedness vs. separateness).

The first type of self is the *heteronomous – related self*, who is high in relatedness but low in autonomy, the second one is the *autonomous – separate self*, who is high in autonomy but low in relatedness, and the third one is the *autonomous – related self*, who is high in both relatedness and autonomy dimensions. Finally, the fourth pattern reflects a situation of parental neglect or indifference (Baumrind, 1980; cited in Kagitcibasi, 2005b). It may be seen in families with high hierarchy in the role definitions, and parenting behaviors in those families are rejecting and obedience-oriented suggesting a *heteronomous – separate self* (Fisek, 1991). This fourth pattern is not included in the hypotheses of the present study, since as Kagitcibasi (1996b, 2005b) noted, this pattern needs more empirical validation and may characterize abusive family relations that deprive the person of both autonomy and relatedness.

Figure 1

*Agency, Interpersonal Distance and the Types of Selves in Context (Kagitcibasi, 2005b)*



## 2.6 Traditional Family Values

As discussed, family as experienced proximal context decisively influences the social development and social behavior of the individual. Traditional family values of individuals become important in that process. For instance, in the process of the formation of within group loyalties and connectedness, traditional family values are one of the instrumental elements, and they provide a sense of psychological security, feelings of continuity and self-esteem (Jasinskaja-Lahti & Liebkind, 2000, 2001). In the present study, traditional family values are examined in two dimensions: “Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother” and “Relationships with Family and Kin”. These are traditional values related to extended family roles in agricultural societies (Georgas, Berry, van de Vijver, Kagitcibasi, & Poortinga, in press).

The literature on family structure is primarily focused on the nuclear and extended families (Nimkoff & Middleton, 1960; Spiro, 1965). According to one of the most influential family sociologists Parsons (1943, Parsons & Bales, 1955), the nuclear family is a result of the need for adaptation to industrial development and is a shift from extended family structure, which is the typical family structure in agricultural societies (Blumberg & Winch, 1972). Chu and Hollingsworth (1969) indicated that there is a higher degree of social stratification in the extended families than in the nuclear families. Thus, the first of the two dimensions of the current study’s conceptualization of traditional family values includes hierarchical roles in the family.

Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother ascribe the values regarding the traditional roles in the collectivist hierarchical family. In families with high

hierarchical role definitions, the father, who is authoritarian in his relationships with his spouse and the children and who has the economic power and controls the finances, is the head of the family. The mother, who is submissive to the father and conciliatory between father and the children, is typically a housewife whose primary role is to care for the home and children (Georgas, 1991).

Second dimension of traditional family values concerns values regarding the family bonds, in other words, 'Relationships with Family and Kin'. Georgas et al. (2001) suggested that family bonds can be used to determine the strength and the forms of the interdependence between individuals and their relatives. In the context of traditional family values, the Relationships with Family and Kin require one's good relations with his or her relatives. He or she is expected to respect for elders in the family. Such contexts also favor material relationships such as economic support to the party that needs it (e.g., parents to their young children, grown children to their elderly parents) or children's support for housework (Kagitcibasi, 2005b).

### **2.7 The Context of the Present Study**

#### **2.7.1 The Turkish Society**

The Turkish society is highly complex and heterogeneous with a diversity of ethnic, cultural and religious conglomerations (Kagitcibasi, 1982), and is described as being high on collectivism and power distance (Hofstede, 1980). Similarly, Fisek (1982) described the traditional Turkish family as being emotionally related suggesting high proximity, and at the same time, highly separated in terms of normatively prescribed transactions regarding role expectations suggesting a strong

hierarchy. However, Fisek (1991) also noted that “Turkey has a long history of traditional family relations juxtaposed against the present reality of rapid social and cultural change, urbanization, and economic instability” (p. 124).

Despite the popular belief that Turkish society is composed of extended families, national surveys (Kagitcibasi, 1981; Timur, 1972) and other studies (e.g., Kandiyoti, 1974) have shown that the nuclear family is the predominant family structure in urban and rural areas. However, an analysis of family form does not necessarily entail the functions of the family (Duben, 1982). For example, Rasuly-Paleczec (1996) revealed that the functions of Turkish nuclear family go well beyond those of the western nuclear family. For example, findings showed that in the Turkish society, relatives tend to live in the same neighborhood even in urban areas (Kongar, 1972) and in times of need and crises, family and kin are called upon for help (Emiroğlu, 1972; Karpat, 1976; Kıray, 1974; Kongar, 1972). Moreover, contrary to the existing dominant nuclear family structure, the extended family is the ideal in Turkish society, especially in rural areas (Timur, 1972), and in terms of family functioning, there is a high degree of functional interactions between kin among all classes (Duben, 1982). Thus, despite the fact that the dominant family type is the nuclear family both in rural and urban areas of Turkey; these families can be categorized as functionally extended families (Kagitcibasi, 1985a, 1985b).

In the Turkish society, the general atmosphere surrounding children is one of love and control, in contrast to Western families in which love goes with permissiveness (Kagitcibasi 1972, 1973). The loyalty of the individual is not to himself but to his in-group (Kagitcibasi, 1970; Spencer, 1960). Values are centered on loyalty to the family, kin and community, and symbolized by respect to the elders, which results in a general respect for authority (Kagitcibasi, 1982). In

addition, there is a high degree of ‘culture of relatedness’ (Kagitcibasi, 1985c).

However, this is the traditional base. A lot of variation exists in line with the high level of urbanization entailing increased education and changing life styles.

### **2.7.2 Organizations and Leadership in Turkey**

In Turkey, parallel to the rapid changes in the sociocultural life, there are also significant changes in the business life (Aycan, 2001). For instance, almost 80 percent of the business organizations are established after 1980 (Aycan, 2001). Fikret-Pasa, Kabasakal and Bodur (2001) stated that private holding companies that are run by family members and state economic enterprises are dominant in business life in Turkey. Because companies are highly dependent on the state for financial incentives, and because the state often intervenes by frequent and unpredictable policy changes, relationship with the state are important (Bugra, 1990; Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998). Family members, who hold important positions in the private organizations, are responsible for these relationships with state officials (Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001).

Conducted within 34 countries, the study of Schwartz (1994) showed that, Turkey ranked above the average in values of hierarchy (5<sup>th</sup>), conservatism (12<sup>th</sup>), egalitarian commitment (13<sup>th</sup>), and harmony (16<sup>th</sup>). Turkish organizations were also distinguished by limited delegation and centralized decision making (Ronen, 1986). Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (1998) found that Turkey had the highest hierarchical organizational structure among 38 nations. Trompenaars and Hampden – Turner also categorized Turkish organizations as being family-type.

In their ten country comparison, Aycan and her colleagues (2000) found Turkey (2<sup>nd</sup>) having more paternalistic values when compared with, for instance, Russia (6<sup>th</sup>), Canada (8<sup>th</sup>), Germany (9<sup>th</sup>), etc. They also found that Turkey was moderately collectivistic, hierarchical and non-fatalistic. Thus, Aycan (2001) suggested that the Turkish societal and organizational culture is a blend of "Western" and "Eastern" values.

While trying to measure the pattern and frequency of leaders' behaviors that are observed in Turkish organizations, Fikret-Pasa and her colleagues (2001) found that four types of universal leader behaviors were dominant in Turkish organizations. The first one described 'transactional and team-oriented' leaders. This type of leaders consulted and collaborated with their staff, and used contingent rewards and punishment. The second type included 'paternalistic and considerate' leaders, who supported and cared for their subordinates and helped out with their family problems, and who wanted to be loved and respected by their followers. The third type included 'laissez-faire' leaders, who did not control their employees and let them do the work the way they know. Finally, the fourth type of leader in Turkish organizational context was 'autocratic and hierarchical'. Leaders in this category controlled their subordinates closely and tried to maintain the hierarchical structure of the organization. According to Fikret-Pasa and her colleagues, among these leadership types, the most frequently observed types were 'autocratic and hierarchical' and 'paternalistic and considerate' leader types.

Similarly, in their study on cultural orientations of entrepreneurs and employees' job satisfaction in the Turkish society, Yetim and Yetim (in press) found that Turkish entrepreneurs, who 'consider themselves responsible for "providing the worker's bread" (p. 18)', displayed important amounts of paternalistic behaviors

such as taking supportive roles in their workers' special events like marriage ceremonies, male children's circumcision, sickness, etc.

Fikret-Pasa and her colleagues (2001) also investigated the ideal leader images of Turkish employees. They found that four basic universal leader behaviors were dominant in the ideals of Turkish employees. These were relationship-orientation, task orientation, participative, and charismatic / transformational leadership styles.

The first one, relationship-orientation, included leader behaviors those were categorized as team integrator and paternalistic. Paternalistic characteristics of leaders were further described as:

“... being concerned with the private problems of followers, taking the initiative in deciding for the employees with regard to their problems, attending social events such as wedding ceremonies of employees' children, acting like one of the employees in social events, and creating family-like atmosphere in the organization (Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001, p. 575).”

The second one, task orientation, entailed leaders' administrative qualities that would contribute to their task-related roles. For instance, a task oriented leader, who would not interfere in the task until there is a mistake, was expected to be effective delegators of the task. Ideal leaders in the Turkish context were also found to be encouraging participation. However, participative behaviors of leaders in Turkish context might have a different meaning when compared with other parts of the world. For instance, in the Turkish context, participative leadership promotes feelings of being part of the family (Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001). Moreover, Turkish employees described ideal leaders as charismatic and transformational. For instance, an ideal leader was suggested to be action – oriented, self – confident, diplomatic, inspirational, and visionary.

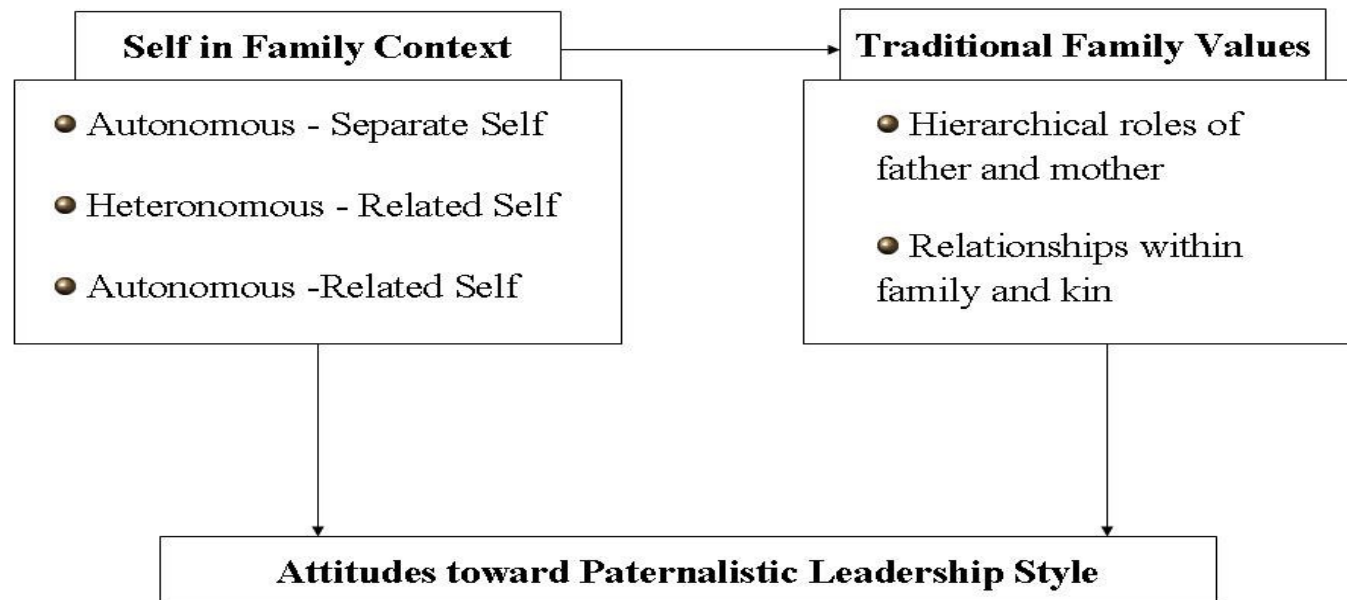
To sum up, in Turkey, collectivism was found to be the most important value in organizations that influenced leadership behaviors of ‘paternalistic – considerate’ and ‘laissez – faire’ (Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001). That is, as the level of collectivism in an organization increased, leader behaviors in that organization were found to be more ‘paternalistic – considerate’ and ‘laissez – faire’ oriented. Moreover, ‘hierarchical – autocratic’ and ‘paternalistic – considerate’ leadership styles were found to be the two most frequently observed leadership styles in the organizational settings in Turkey. In general, Turkish leaders are described as having paternalistic characters, such as showing parental consideration toward their subordinates (Aycan et al, 2000; Fikret-Pasa, 1999; cited in Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001, Yetim & Yetim, in press).

### **2.8 The Model**

Present thesis aims to understand the within-culture variations in attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (paternalistic leadership style). In that vein, a model is proposed (see Figure 2), where the effect of the self in family context on individuals’ attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style is suggested to be partially mediated by their traditional family values (traditional family values). In the following sections, first, the Attraction – Selection – Attrition (ASA) framework proposed by Benjamin Schneider (1987) and contributed to the development of the model is briefly discussed. Then, embedded with the hypotheses of the present thesis, the model is evaluated.

Figure 2

*Roots of Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (paternalistic leadership style)*



### **2.8.1 The Attraction–Selection–Attrition (ASA) Framework**

In his classical paper ‘The People Make the Place’, Benjamin Schneider (1987) proposed a framework to understand the organizational behavior and suggested that the kinds of people in an organization would be determined by the outcome of three interrelated dynamic processes, namely attraction, selection, and attrition. According to the Attraction–Selection–Attrition (ASA) model, at the core are the organizational goals that are explicitly or implicitly manifested through the behaviors of the founder in the beginning, and these goals specify the kinds of people who are attracted to, are selected by, and stay with a particular organization (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995).

In the ASA model, attraction process refers to the idea that people prefer particular organizations since they implicitly estimate that there are similarities between the organizational values and their personal values. Selection process refers to the idea that by formal or informal selection procedures, organizations recruit and hire the people with the attributes the organization desires. Finally, attrition process concerns the fact that people would leave an organization they do not fit.

As Schneider (1987) proposed, ‘People are not randomly assigned to real organizations; people select themselves into and out of real organizations’ (p. 440). The ASA framework and that general proposition suggest that individuals look for organizational values that are similar to their values and search for organizational contexts in which they would feel comfortable. In other words, they look for organizations and situations that would fit with their existing values, beliefs, ideals, personalities, and etc.

### 2.8.2 The Roots of Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style

Having the ASA framework at the core, one of the other two most important aspects that inspired the model is the familial context that is the leading motif of the paternalistic leadership style. Paternalistic leadership style promotes a relationship between the leader and his or her follower that is similar to the relationships seen in the family context. That is, the paternalistic superior behaves in such a way that the organizational context resembles *a family context* and the subordinate is expected to behave such as considering the workplace as *a family* (Aycan, 2005). Thus, based on the attraction process of ASA framework, individuals would favor paternalistic leadership style, if their family interactions and family values would fit with the context of paternalistic leadership.

In addition to such familial resemblances that exist on the surface, when we narrow our focus on the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, existing literature on attitude development suggests that family and family socialization are key components that take place in the attitude development process. Thus, the leading socialization values of the parents may lead the individual to have positive or negative outlooks toward paternalistic leadership style. As a result, two background variables related with family and family socialization, the self in family context and traditional family values, are suggested as factors that might account for significant within-culture variations in the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

In the model, the types of the self in family context describe the self construals of individuals which are the results of their levels of autonomy and relatedness with regard to their family socialization. These types of self are

suggested to have direct effects on the individuals' attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since individuals are expected to search for similar contextual factors in the organizational settings as they had in their family settings. Moreover, traditional family values of individuals proposed to have a mediation effect in the relationship between the self in family context and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since traditional family values resemble the values of paternalistic relationships and individuals are also expected to search for values that would fit with their existing values.

Thus, a model is proposed that entails the relations between the self in family context, traditional family values, and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. In the following sections, to elaborate the proposed model, embedded with the hypotheses of present study, first, the link between the self in family context and traditional family values, second, the link between the self in family context and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, and third, the link between traditional family values and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style are discussed.

### **2.8.3 The Self in Family Context and Traditional Family Values**

From the three types of self, heteronomous – related self develops in the family model of interdependence (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). In this family model, an autonomous child is perceived as a threat by his or her parents, and to be able to prevent separation of the child, leading child-rearing practices are authoritarian and obedience oriented. This strengthens the hierarchical structure of the family and reduces the risk of separation. Moreover, family and group loyalties, which are important aspects of this type of family model, increase intergenerational

dependence and relationships with family and kin. Therefore, the context of the family model of interdependence favors traditional family values and the heteronomous – related self is expected to possess strong traditional family values.

On the other hand, the autonomous – separate self develops in the contrasting pattern, namely in the family model of independence (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). In this family model, as a result of the unnecessary of material interdependence, childrearing practices favor autonomous functioning of the child and eliminate hierarchical structure of the family. Moreover, highly valued separateness, individual loyalties, and independence decrease the relatedness of the child to the family, and relationships with family and kin are not valued to the same extent as it was in the previous family model. Thus, the context of the family model of independence does not favor traditional family values, and the autonomous -separate self is expected to possess weak traditional values.

Finally, the autonomous – related self develops in the family model of psychological interdependence (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). In this family model, similar to the family model of independence, autonomy takes the place of heteronomy in childrearing practices. However, autonomy seen in the family model of psychological interdependence is also embedded with the changing nature of control from authoritarian practices to order setting. Thus, an autonomous – related self is expected to favor decreased hierarchy within the family, but not at the same degree as the autonomous – separate self would do. Moreover, since the culture of relatedness (Kagitcibasi, 1985c) and psychological value of the child still exist, parents prefer connectedness of the growing child rather than his or her separation (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). As a result, an autonomous –related self is expected to favor close relationships with family and kin, but not at the same degree as the

heteronomous –related self would do, since there is also autonomy in the family.

Thus, when compared,

*Hypothesis 1:* Individuals with heteronomous – related selves will have the strongest and individuals with autonomous – separate selves the weakest traditional family values. Individuals with autonomous – related selves will fall in between.

#### **2.8.4 The Self in Family Context and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

As discussed in detail, based on the ASA framework, an individual would favor paternalistic leadership style, if his or her family context resembles the paternalistic one seen in the organizational setting. From the three types of selves, the heteronomous – related self develops in the family model of interdependence. This type of family model is common in culture of relatedness with extended families, and involves authoritarian parenting and obedience orientation in childrearing practices that leaves no room for autonomy and reduces the risk of separation (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). Similarly, paternalism in the organizational context involves leaders who treat their employees as if they were a part of the extended family and establish close and individualized relationships with them both in work (material) and non-work (psychological) domains of life, while maintaining status hierarchy and authority (Aycan, 2005).

Moreover, in the family model of interdependence, the independence of the child is seen as a threat to the family well-being. This leads parents to decide which is good or bad for the child, and the child is expected to be loyal to his or her family. Similarly, in paternalistic context, the leader believes that he or she knows what is

good for the subordinates and their careers and expects them to be loyal and committed to him or her. Thus, the leading socialization values of the parents in the family model of interdependence (i.e., family and group loyalties, psychological and material interdependence, and authority) might lead the heteronomous – related self to have positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, which involves similar values in its hierarchical relationships. In addition, the heteronomous – related self is expected to have positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since paternalistic context resembles his or her family context.

Contrary to the family model of interdependence, in the family model of independence, where the autonomous – separate self develops, the increased levels of welfare and education, and alternative sources of old age security render the dependence of elderly parents on adult offspring unnecessary, even unacceptable (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). Therefore, both psychological and material intergenerational independencies are valued. Moreover, family and group loyalties lose their importance, and individual loyalties and independence values shape the autonomous – separate self (Kagitcibasi, 1987). As a result, individuation in decision making and separation are seen as important factors for a healthy human development (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). In addition, with decreased emotional and material dependence, the hierarchical structure of the family diminishes. On the other hand, paternalistic context entails authority of the leader and obedience of the follower, favors both material (work life) and psychological (non-work life) relationships between the leader and the subordinate, and in a hierarchical structure, prescribes the subordinate to be loyal to his or her superior. Thus, there are significant differences in values and orientations inherent in the family model of independence and paternalistic leadership. To sum up, the family model of

independence facilitates the autonomous – separate self through parenting behaviors that favor autonomy and separation. Accordingly, the autonomous – separate self is expected to have negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since paternalistic leadership style does not favor autonomy and separation but interdependence, hierarchy, respect and loyalty (Aycan, 2005).

The third family pattern, family model of psychological interdependence, where the autonomous – related self develops, is based on decreased material and continuing emotional interdependencies between generations (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). Similar to the family model of independence, in the family model of psychological interdependence, as a result of the decreased material interdependence, the child's autonomy is not considered as a threat to the family well-being but becomes an adaptive asset as the environment shifts into a context where increased schooling and specialized tasks promote individual decision making. This environmental change enables autonomy, which is not favored in paternalistic leadership context (Aycan, 2005), to enter into the childrearing practices.

However, the continuing culture of relatedness and psychological value of the child make parents still prefer the connectedness of the growing child instead of his or her separateness. Thus, close relationships with family and kin are favored and are expected to cause the child to be psychologically related and loyal to his or her family and group (Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). Similarly, paternalistic context favors individualized and close relationships and the loyalty of the subordinate to his or her superior and organization (Aycan, 2005). Thus, when compared,

*Hypothesis 2:* Individuals with heteronomous-related selves will have the most positive and those with autonomous-separate selves the most negative attitudes

toward Paternalistic Leadership Style; individuals with autonomous-related selves will score in between.

### **2.8.5 Traditional Family Values and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

The second factor that is offered in the present thesis as affecting the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style is the traditional family values. To demonstrate the proposed effects of traditional family values of individuals on their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, the paternalistic context and the superiors' and subordinates' suggested belief systems and behaviors in that context should be re-mentioned.

As stated, paternalism encourages a family atmosphere in the organizational context (Aycan, 2005). However, this family atmosphere has specific features which make the organizational context similar to a *traditional* family context: The leader resembles an authoritarian parental figure and employees are regarded as growing children (Sagie & Aycan, 2003); and the leader establishes close and individualized relationships with their subordinates and provides care and protection, and in return, subordinates are expected to be loyal and deferent to their leader (Aycan, 2005). Moreover, paternalistic relationships entail highly differentiated / hierarchical role expectations.

Based on the ASA framework, the latent question is which people (as subordinates) would accept and approve the beliefs and behaviors of a paternalistic leader? Considering the fit between the traditional family values and paternalistic values, in the present thesis, it is argued that such close, individualized and

hierarchical relationships seen in a paternalistic context would be acceptable for the subordinates who possess strong traditional family values. For instance, similar to an individual who favors paternalistic leadership style, and therefore, believes that the subordinate should respect the superior and the superior should provide care and protection to the subordinate, an individual with strong traditional family values would favor respect for elders within a family and would believe that the parents are supposed to provide care and protection to their growing children. Moreover, both paternalistic relationship in the organizational context and traditional family values suggest hierarchical relationships as one of their principal components, and the loyalty that is attached to the children in traditional families is also one of the key issues in the paternalistic context.

As a result, individuals with strong traditional family values (i.e., who favor hierarchy within the family and strong relationships with family and kin) would have positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since it almost entirely would entail values similar to their values; respect for authority, hierarchical structure in the relationships, interdependence between the agents, and loyalty. On the other hand, individuals with weak traditional family values would have negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, since they would reject the paternalistic context and its role definitions, and beliefs and behaviors of the paternalistic leader. Thus,

*Hypothesis 3: Traditional family values will be associated with positive attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style.*

Finally, the present thesis further tests the proposed model both in student and professional samples. The effects of the parents on the individual might decrease as the individual grows up and enters into the work environment. Moreover,

individuals, who are a part of an organization, might be influenced by the culture and the environment of that particular organization as well. Thus, predicting their attitudes toward paternalistic leader behaviors might include different and/or additional factors, such as the internal work cultures, market characteristics, nature of industry, and sociocultural work environments (e.g., power distance).

On the other hand, there exist many studies that showed that the family decisively influences the social development and social behavior of the individual (Georgas et al., 1997; Kagitcibasi, 1988) through the transmission of values, beliefs, and attitudes to the growing child (Granic, Dishion, & Hollenstein, 2003; Myers-Walls, 2001; Rohan & Zanna, 1996). Moreover, family and parents were considered as the proximal context of the development in the social development literature and the primary role in the formation process of individual characteristics was attributed to the family (e.g., Bronfenbrenner, 1977, 1979, 1986; Georgas, 1993; Granic et al., 2003; Parke, MacDonald, Beitel, & Bhavnagri, 1988). Thus,

*Hypothesis 4:* There will be no differences between students and professionals while predicting their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

## Chapter 3

### Method

#### 3.1 Participants

The participants of the current study consisted of two groups. The first group, student sample, included university students, and the second group, professional sample, included white collar employees. The total sample had data from 697 participants.

##### 3.1.1 Student Sample

The student sample consisted of 467 university students who were recruited from 6 universities that were located in different provinces of Turkey (see Table 1). Their age ranged from 16 to 29 with an average of 21.16 (SD = 1.69). There were 284 females (mean age = 21.18, SD = 1.63) and 183 males (mean age = 21.11, SD = 1.78).

Table 1

*The Frequencies of Female and Male Student Participants according to their Universities*

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|                      |          | Females ( $N = 284$ ) | Males ( $N = 183$ ) |
|----------------------|----------|-----------------------|---------------------|
| University           |          |                       |                     |
| Koç University       | Istanbul | 84                    | 66                  |
| Marmara University   | Istanbul | 20                    | 47                  |
| Hacettepe University | Ankara   | 58                    | 7                   |
| ODTU                 | Ankara   | 36                    | 3                   |
| Cukurova University  | Adana    | 43                    | 45                  |
| Mersin University    | Mersin   | 43                    | 15                  |

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### **3.1.1.1 Recruitment of the Student Sample**

To have a more representative student sample and to obtain data from different backgrounds, psychology department directors of 18 private and public universities located in Turkey were contacted and asked for permission to conduct the present study. Six of them, one private and five public universities, agreed to take part in the study. Among these six universities, two were located in Istanbul, two in Ankara, one in Adana, and one in Mersin. Students of these universities were offered extra credits for their courses, in which the questionnaires were administered.

One reason for selecting these universities was convenience. Although the researcher had contacted 18 universities that were located in different regions of Turkey, the six universities that accepted to take part in the present study were selected. Moreover, some universities were not contacted since they did not have a psychology department or a policy that was offering extra credits for students for their participations in such experiments.

### **3.1.1.2 Family Characteristics of the Student Sample**

Among the 467 student participants, 237 (50.7%) of them indicated that while they were growing up, their families had predominantly lived in the metropolitan areas (Istanbul, Ankara and Izmir), whereas 182 (39%), 29 (6.2%), 14 (3.0%), and 4 (.9%) of them indicated that their families had predominantly lived in city centers, in towns, in villages, and abroad, respectively. Families of the student participants had an average of 2.7 children, and 51 (10.9%) student participants had

no siblings, whereas 414 (88.7%) of them indicated that they had siblings. Two (.4%) participants' sibling information was missing.

Among the student participants, 447 (95.7%) of them had lived with their families during secondary and high school years, 14 (3%) of them had lived in dormitory, and the remaining 6 (1.3%) of them had lived with their relatives. Fifty one (10.9%) participants indicated that their parents were not living together for some reason (e.g., divorce, death of one of the parents, job related separateness, etc.).

When asked about the number of people who were living in the household while the participants were growing up, most of the student participants indicated small numbers suggesting a nuclear family type as the dominant family structure. There were 2 people (including the participant) in 12 (2.6%) families, 3 in 61 (13.1%) families, 4 in 223 (47.8%) families, 5 in 100 (21.4%) families, and 6 in 36 (7.7%) families. In 32 (6.8%) families, there were more than 6 people in the family household. Three (.6%) participants' information regarding the number of people living in the household while they were growing up was missing.

Maternal education information of the student participants was as following: Among the mothers of the student participants, 125 (26.8%) of them had primary school education, 51 (10.9%) of them were graduated from secondary school, 135 (28.9%) of them completed high school, 112 (24%) of them were graduated from university, 15 (3.2%) of them had a graduate degree, and 6 (1.3%) of them had a Ph.D. degree. Remaining 23 (4.9%) participants' information regarding maternal education was missing.

While the participants were growing up, 299 (64%) mothers were not working and labeled as housewives, whereas 167 (35.8%) of them were working.

One (.2%) student participants' information whether her mother was working or not while she was growing up was missing. Among working mothers, 13 (7.8%) of them had very low status occupations (e.g., non-qualified workers), 16 (9.6%) of them had low status occupations (e.g., semi-qualifies workers), 82 (49.2%) of them had moderate status occupations (e.g., qualified workers, low and middle level civil servants), 21 (12.6%) of them had high status occupations or were employed in established professions such as high level civil servants, and 31 (18.6%) of them had top status occupations (e.g., top level managers, professors). Four (2.4%) participants' information regarding maternal employment was missing.

Descriptive statistics for fathers showed that 85 (18.2%) of them had primary school education, 41 (8.8%) of them graduated from secondary school, 109 (23.3%) of them had a high school education, 191 (40.9%) of them had an undergraduate degree, 20 (4.3%) of them had a graduate degree, and 13 (2.8%) of them had a Ph.D. degree. Eight (1.7%) participants' information about their fathers' education was missing.

While their children were growing up, 38 (8.1%) fathers were unemployed, whereas 421 (90.1%) of them were working. Eight (1.7%) participants information regarding whether their fathers were working or not while they were growing up was missing. Among working fathers, 13 (3.1%) of them had very low status occupations (e.g., non-qualified workers), 44 (10.5%) of them had low status occupations (e.g., maid, gatekeeper), 111 (26.4%) of them were qualified workers or low-level civil servants, 119 (28.3%) of them were middle-level civil servants or small entrepreneurs, 34 (8.1%) of them were high-level civil servants or middle-level entrepreneurs, and 76 (18.1%) of them had top status occupations (e.g., doctors, engineers, top managers, and big entrepreneurs). Remaining 24 (5.7%)

participants' information about their fathers' occupation while they were growing up was missing.

Perceived household income level of the student sample ranged from extremely poor to extremely wealthy. Sixty (12.7%) students indicated that while they were growing up, their household income level was below average, whereas 221 (47.3%) of them indicated that the income level of their families was average. Remaining 185 (39.5%) students indicated that their household income level was above average. One (.2%) student participants' information regarding the perceived household income was missing.

#### **3.1.2 Professional Sample**

The second group that constituted the sample of the present study composed of 230 professional participants with an average age of 32.81 ( $SD = 9.27$ , min. = 19, max. = 53). There were 102 females (mean age = 29.93,  $SD = 8.44$ ; two female participants' age information was missing) and 127 males (mean age = 34.94,  $SD = 9.21$ ; one male participant's age information was missing). One participant's gender information was missing. Among the professional participants, 74 (32.2%) of them were high school graduates, 119 (51.7%) of them had completed a university, 30 of them (13%) had a graduate degree, and 6 (2.6%) of them had a Ph.D. degree. One professional participant's education level was missing.

### **3.1.2.1 Recruitment of the Professional Sample**

The recruitment of the professional participants was done in two ways. The main reason for adopting two recruitment channels was to increase the professional sample size. First group of the professional participants ( $N = 141$ ) were recruited through Koç University students. Students were asked to recruit white collar workers to participate in the study in return for extra credits in Introduction to Psychology course. Electronic mail addresses and phone numbers of the professional participants were given to the researcher, and electronic forms that contained the questionnaires were sent to the professionals. To eliminate possible fake electronic mail addresses, the addressees that did not belong to an organization and had a domain such as ‘Yahoo’ or ‘Hotmail’ were not accepted. In addition, white collar workers ( $N = 89$ ) from four private sector organizations were recruited to participate to the current study. Three of these organizations were located in Istanbul and one was located in Adapazarı.

### **3.1.2.2 Family Characteristics of the Professional Sample**

Among 230 professional participants, 161 (70%) of them revealed that their families had predominantly lived in the metropolitan areas while they were growing up. Forty-five (19.6%), 11 (4.8%), 11 (4.8%), and 1 (.4%) of them revealed that their families had predominantly lived in cities, towns, villages, and abroad, respectively. One professional participant’s data regarding the settlement of her family while she was growing up were missing. Families of the professional

participants had an average of 3.1 children, and 12 (5.2%) professional participants indicated that they had no siblings.

Most of the professional participants ( $n = 203$ , 88.3%) indicated that they had lived with their families while they were growing up. Twenty (8.7%) of them indicated that they had predominantly lived in dormitory while they were attending to secondary or high school, whereas 7 (3%) of them revealed that they had lived with their relatives during those years. Thirty (13%) professional participants indicated that their mothers and fathers were not living together for some reason (e.g., divorce, death of one of the parents, job related separateness, etc.), whereas 198 (86.1%) of them indicated that their parents were still living together. Two (.9%) participants' information on whether their parents were still living together or not was missing.

Similar to the student sample, most of the professional participants indicated that there were small numbers of people who were living in their household when they were growing up. This suggested a nuclear family type as the dominant family structure in the professional sample. There were 2 people (including the participant) in 3 (1.3%) families, 3 in 17 (7.4%) families, 4 in 84 (3.5%) families, 5 in 53 (23%) families, 6 in 37 (16.1%) families. In 34 (15%) families there were more than 6 people in the family household. Two professional participants' (.9%) information regarding the number of people living in the household while they were growing up was missing.

Among the mothers of professional sample, 7 (3%) of them had no education, 99 (43%) of them had completed primary school, 32 (13.9%) of them had graduated from secondary school, 58 (25.2%) of them had high school education, 28 (12.2%) of them were university graduates, and 2 (.9%) of them had a graduate

degree. Four (1.7%) professional participants' information regarding maternal education was missing.

While their children were growing up, 148 (64.3%) mothers were not working and labeled as housewives, whereas 80 (34.8%) of them were working. Two (.9%) mothers' information whether they were working or not while their children were growing up was missing. Among the working mothers, 13 (16.3%) of them had very low status occupations (e.g., agricultural worker, housemaid), 9 (11.3%) of them had low status occupations (e.g., waitress, hand seller), 43 (53.8%) of them had moderate status occupations (e.g., police officer, primary school teacher), 3 (3.8%) of them had high status occupations (e.g., high level civil servants, high school teacher), and 6 (7.5%) of them had very high status occupations (e.g., doctor, professor). Six (7.5%) participants' information regarding maternal employment was missing.

Among the fathers of professional participants, one father (.4%) had no education, 73 (31.7%) of them had a primary school education, 30 (13%) of them had a secondary school diploma, 54 (23.5%) of them completed high school, 55 (23.9%) of them had a university degree, 2 (.9%) of them had a graduate degree, and 5 (2.2%) of them had a PhD. degree. Ten (4.3%) professional participants' information regarding paternal education was missing.

Six (2.6%) professional participants' fathers were unemployed while the participants were growing up, whereas 216 (93.9%) fathers were working. Eight (3.5%) professional participants' information whether their fathers were working or not while they were growing up was missing. Among the working fathers of the professional participants, 9 (4.2%) of them had extremely low status occupations (e.g., porter, shepherd), 45 (20.8%) of them had low status occupations (e.g., timber

man, driver), 126 (58.3%) of them had moderate status occupations (butcher, hairdresser), 8 (3.7%) of them had high status occupations (e.g., chief bank agent, high level civil servant), and 11 (5.1%) of them had extremely high status occupations (e.g., engineer, top manager). Remaining 17 (7.9%) fathers' information regarding parental occupation in the professional sample was missing.

Perceived household income level of the professional participants while they were growing up was distributed in the following way: 42 (18.2%) of them indicated that their household income level was below average, 105 (45.7%) of them revealed that the income level of their families was average, and 82 (35.7%) of them indicated that their household income level was above average. One (.4%) participant's information regarding the perceived household income level in the professional sample was missing. Descriptive statistics for the demographic variables for student and professional samples are given in Table 2.

### **3.1.2.3 Job and Organization Characteristics of the Professional Sample**

The professional participants had an average of 46 months of working life (SD = 60, min. = 6, max. = 324) with an average of 40 months of position tenure (SD = 51, min. = 1, max. = 288). Eighty-six professional participant's information regarding the length of their working lives and 97 participants' data on position tenure were missing. The distribution of the professional participants' departments is presented in Table 3.

Table 2

*Descriptive Statistics for Demographic Data for Student and Professional Samples*

| Variable                                                     | Student Sample (N = 467) |           |            |            | Professional Sample (N = 230) |           |            |            |
|--------------------------------------------------------------|--------------------------|-----------|------------|------------|-------------------------------|-----------|------------|------------|
|                                                              | <i>M</i>                 | <i>SD</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> | <i>M</i>                      | <i>SD</i> | <i>Min</i> | <i>Max</i> |
| Age                                                          | 21.16                    | 1.69      | 16         | 29         | 32.81                         | 9.27      | 19         | 53         |
| Number of children in the family                             | 2.69                     | 1.66      | 1          | 15         | 3.12                          | 1.57      | 1          | 10         |
| Number of people in the household                            | 4.53                     | 1.61      | 2          | 20         | 5.13                          | 1.82      | 2          | 14         |
| Education of mother (1 = low, 6 = high) <sup>a</sup>         | 2.68                     | 1.23      | 1          | 6          | 2.10                          | 1.11      | 1          | 5          |
| Education of father (1 = low, 6 = high) <sup>a</sup>         | 3.13                     | 1.29      | 1          | 6          | 2.53                          | 1.33      | 1          | 6          |
| Occupation of mother (1 = low, 7 = high) <sup>a</sup>        | 3.14                     | 2.22      | 1          | 7          | 4.01                          | 1.47      | 1          | 7          |
| Occupation of father (1 = low, 7 = high) <sup>a</sup>        | 4.87                     | 1.36      | 1          | 7          | 4.22                          | 1.17      | 1          | 7          |
| Perceived Household income (1 = low, 11 = high) <sup>a</sup> | 5.89                     | 1.51      | 1          | 11         | 5.35                          | 1.43      | 1          | 11         |

<sup>a</sup> Details of rating scales are presented in the Measures Section

Table 3

*Departments of the Professional Participants (N = 230)*

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| Department             | Frequency | Percentage |
|------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Finance                | 8         | 3.5%       |
| Accounting             | 12        | 5.2%       |
| Sales                  | 26        | 11.3%      |
| Marketing              | 13        | 5.7%       |
| Operations             | 64        | 27.8%      |
| Human Resources        | 12        | 5.2%       |
| Information Technology | 37        | 16.1%      |
| Research & Development | 10        | 4.3%       |
| Management             | 16        | 7.0%       |
| Other                  | 20        | 8.7%       |
| * missing              | 12        | 5.2%       |

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The average age of the professional participants' organizations was 21.10 years (SD = 18.26, min. = 1, max = 80). Twenty-one participants' information regarding the age of their organizations was missing. The median for the size of the organization variable was 96 peoples (min. = 3, max. = 56000). The size of the organizations is summarized in Table 4.

Table 4

*Distribution of the Organizational Size (N = 230)*

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| Organizational Size | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------|-----------|------------|
| 25 or fewer         | 28        | 12.2%      |
| 26 to 50            | 48        | 20.9%      |
| 51 to 75            | 15        | 7.7%       |
| 76 to 100           | 19        | 9.7%       |
| 101 to 200          | 31        | 15.9%      |
| 201 to 300          | 6         | 3.1%       |
| 301 to 500          | 8         | 4.1%       |
| 501 to 1000         | 12        | 6.2%       |
| 1001 to 2000        | 9         | 4.6%       |
| 2000+               | 19        | 9.7%       |
| * missing           | 35        | 15.2%      |

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The sector distribution of the professional participants' organizations was as follows: To begin with, 10 (4.3%) organizations were in public sector, whereas 214 (93%) of them were in private sector. Six (2.6%) participants' information whether their organizations were in public or private sector was missing. Moreover, among the 230 professional participants, 54 (23.5%), 51 (22.2%), and 45 (19.6) of them indicated that their organizations were operating in consumer discretionary products, health care, and industrials sectors, respectively, and 63 (27.3) participants' organizations were distributed in other sectors. Remaining 17 (7.4%) participants' information about their organizations' main operating sector was missing. The sector distribution of the participants' organizations is presented in Table 5.

Table 5

*Sector Distribution of the Professional Participations ((N = 230)*

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| Sector                          | Frequency | Percentage |
|---------------------------------|-----------|------------|
| Consumer Discretionary Products | 54        | 23.5%      |
| Consumer Staple Products        | 22        | 9.6%       |
| Energy                          | 3         | 1.3%       |
| Financials                      | 6         | 2.6%       |
| Health Care                     | 51        | 22.2%      |
| Industrials                     | 45        | 19.6%      |
| Information Technology          | 8         | 3.5%       |
| Materials                       | 10        | 4.3%       |
| Telecommunications Services     | 8         | 3.5%       |
| Utilities                       | 6         | 2.6%       |
| * missing                       | 17        | 7.4%       |

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### **3.2 Measurement**

Except for a few minor differences, both student and professional participants completed the same questionnaires. Professional participants were requested to complete an organizational demographics form in addition to the individual demographics form and the scales that were used to assess variables of interest (i.e., attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, the self in family context, traditional family values). The questionnaires that were completed by students and professional participants are described in the following sections, and a copy of each questionnaire is given in the Appendices. Finally, the development and final forms of the scales as used in the analyses are presented.

#### **3.2.1 Individual Demographics**

Both student and professional participants were asked to complete a background information form (see Appendix A), where they had given information about themselves, their parents, and their households while they were growing up. Information regarding participants included birth date, gender, where they had predominantly lived in their secondary and high school years (with their parents, in dormitory, or with their relatives), where they were living at the time of the study (with their parents, with their families - wife or husband and/or children -, alone, with their friends, or with their relatives), and the total number of people living in family while the participants were growing up. In addition to these, the student copy of the form included university, faculty and department information of the student participants, whereas the professional participants' copy included information on

their education level. These questions were asked in order to assess and control the effects of some background variables such as age, gender, education, and size of the family.

In addition, to assess the socioeconomic status (SES) of the participants' families, both samples were asked to give information about their families and their households. This part of the form included questions that were asking the province where the participants' family had predominantly lived, education levels and occupations of their parents, and perceived household income level of their families while they were growing up.

Provinces were coded according to the socioeconomic development index that was developed by Dinçer, Özaslan, and Satılmış (1996). Education was rated according to the highest degree achieved (1 indicating "completed primary school" and 6 indicating "completed a PhD. degree"). Parental occupations were rated from 1 to 7 according to the status and salary of the job. In this classification of occupations, category 1 represented unemployment or, in the cases of maternal employment, housewife; and 7 represented the most prestigious / well paid occupations like professors or top level managers (Kagitcibasi, 1972). Finally the perceived household income level was rated from 1 to 11, the first indicating extremely poor, the latter indicating extremely wealthy.

In the present study, rather than asking the exact amount of household income, perceived level of wealth was asked to the participants. There were two reasons to select the use of perceived household income level in order to assess the economic status of the participants' families. First was to eliminate a possible instability effect. That is, the time period that covered that question was a long period, from the birth of the child to the adolescence. It was possible that the amount

of household income might have been varied during those years. Second, it was used to eliminate a possible inaccuracy effect. That is, participants might not recall the exact amount of their household income, and might give inaccurate answers.

However, when asked about perceived household income level, participants were expected to mark the point of the line that ultimately resembled the income level of their families while they were growing up.

Finally, the socioeconomic status (SES) of a participant's family while she was growing up was computed from the following variables: The socioeconomic development score of the province where her family had predominantly lived, the education levels of her father and mother, the maternal and paternal employment statuses of her parents, and her perceived household income level of her family. Z-scores were computed for these six variables and the average of these standardized scores was calculated to obtain a total SES score (c.f., Yagmurlu, Sanson, & Köymen, 2005).

#### **3.2.2 Organizational Demographics**

Professional participants were given an additional form that included questions about their jobs and organizations (see Appendix B). First of all, the participants were asked to indicate the length of their working lives and their position tenures in years or months, which, afterwards, were recoded in months. In addition, the departments (see Table 3 for the list of the departments) in which they were working were also asked. Finally, organizational characteristics, such as the age, size, type (private or public), and sector of their organizations (see Table 5 for the list of the sectors) were assessed.

### **3.2.3 Scales**

#### **3.2.3.1 Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

The Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) developed by Aycan (2004) was used to measure individuals' attitudes toward paternalistic leadership behaviors (see Appendix C). The PLQ is a 21-item questionnaire that describes paternalistic leader behaviors, and includes five dimensions: Family Atmosphere at Workplace, Individualized Relationships, Involving in non-work Domain, Loyalty, and Status Hierarchy and Authority.

The first dimension, Family Atmosphere at Workplace, consists of 5 items representing leader behaviors that encourage family atmosphere at workplace, such as 'Feels responsible from employees as if they are his or her own children'. Individualized Relationships dimension includes 4 items representing leaders' establishment of close and individualized relationships with their subordinates, such as 'Places importance to knowing every employee in person (e.g. personal problems, family life etc.)'. The third dimension, Involving in non-work Domain, consists of 4 items which cover leaders' involvement in employees' non-work lives, such as 'Is ready to help employees with their non-work problems (e.g. housing, education of the children, health etc.) whenever they need it.' The fourth dimension, Loyalty, includes 3 items covering the loyalty expectations of the leaders from their subordinates, such as 'Expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his or her care and nurturance'. Final dimension, Status Hierarchy and Authority, consists of 5 items representing leaders' establishment and maintenance of hierarchy and authority, such as 'Wants to control or to be informed about every work-related

activity'. Each item on PLQ is rated on a 5-point Likert scale ranging from "1 = strongly disagree" to "5 = strongly agree", and a mean score between 1 and 5, which is obtained through the responses to the 21 items of the questionnaire, describes the level of paternalistic leadership preference of an individual.

As reported by Aycan (2004), internal consistency of the PLQ was high, with Cronbach's alphas of .89, .85, .82, .79, and .88 for Family Atmosphere at Workplace, Individualized Relationships, Involving in non-work Domain, Loyalty, and Status Hierarchy and Authority dimensions, respectively. Information for the PLQ as used in the present study is given in the 'Final Forms of the Scales' section.

### **3.2.3.2 The Self in Family Context**

The Self in Family Context Questionnaire (see Appendices D and E) developed by Kagitcibasi (2005a) was used to measure participants' types of self with regard to their families. The questionnaire includes three dimensions, relatedness, autonomy, and autonomous-relatedness and 28 items rated on a 5-point Likert scale (1 = "I totally disagree", 5 = "I totally agree").

The relatedness dimension aims to measure the related self. It consists of 9 items representing an individual's close relationship with his or her family in terms of psychological and material realms, such as 'I feel myself closely attached to my family'. The autonomy dimension, on the other hand, aims to measure the autonomous self. It includes 9 items which cover the level of autonomy of an individual in his or her relationship with his or her family, such as 'I feel independent of my family' and 'I do not have to think the way my family does'. The final dimension of the scale is the autonomous – relatedness dimension that aims to

measure the autonomous – related self. It consists of 10 items representing the level of autonomous functioning of an individual embedded with relatedness to his or her family, such as ‘A person can feel both independent and emotionally connected to her family’.

In the scale construction studies (Kagitcibasi, 2005a) conducted with 95 university students (mean age = 20.32, SD = 1.35), reliability analyses revealed Cronbach’s alphas of .84, .88, and .85 for relatedness, autonomy, autonomous-relatedness dimensions, respectively. The information for The Self in Family Context Questionnaire as used in the present study is given in the ‘Final Forms of the Scales’ section.

### **3.2.3.3 Traditional Family Values**

The strength of traditional family values of the participants were assessed by The Traditional Family Values Questionnaire (see Appendix F) developed by Georgas (1989, 1991). The questionnaire includes 18 items that represent traditional family values related to extended family roles in agricultural societies. Two dimensions of the questionnaire are ‘Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother’ and ‘Relationships with Family and Kin’.

The first dimension covers items that represent the structural and functional hierarchical roles of fathers and mothers in the family livelihood, such as ‘The mother’s place is in the home’, or ‘The father should handle the money in the home’, and the latter dimension covers items that represent functional traditional in-group behaviors, such as ‘One should maintain good relationships with relatives’.

Each item of the questionnaire is rated on a 7-point Likert scale, where 1 and 7 represent “I totally agree” and “I totally disagree”, respectively, and a mean score between 1 and 7, which is obtained through the responses to the 18 items of the questionnaire, describes the strength of traditional family values that an individual possesses.

As reported by Georgas, the internal consistencies of the Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother, and Relationships with Family and Kin dimensions were .87 and .80, respectively. Information for The Traditional Family Values Questionnaire as used in the present study is given in the ‘Final Forms of the Scales’ section.

### **3.2.4 Final Forms of the Scales**

All data were screened for accuracy of entry and missing values. Since there were not more than 20% missing values for any item in any scale, none of the items were excluded from the data (Tabachnick & Fidell, 1996). In addition, all of the methodological tools were screened for their items’ range, item-total correlations, internal consistencies, and factor structures with regard to the sample of the current study. The following sections describe these analyses and provide information on internal consistencies and factor components of the scales and their final forms.

#### **3.2.4.1 Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ)**

PLQ was conceptualized as having five dimensions: Family Atmosphere at Workplace, Individualized Relationships, Involving in non-work Domain, Loyalty, and Status Hierarchy and Authority (Aycan, 2004). Parallel to the theoretical

background of the scale, Aycan (2004) reported that the factor analysis also revealed 5 factors. However, factor analysis with varimax rotation conducted with the sample of the current study resulted in six factors (see Appendix G). When examined in detail and compared with previous analyses, it was found that the items 5, 6, and 10 had high factor loadings in the additional factor or in factors different than they theorized to have. Furthermore, they also had item-total correlations that were lower than .30. Thus, these items were excluded from the scale, and another factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted. This time, the result of the factor analysis revealed four factors, where the items of two dimensions, 'Individualized Relationships' and 'Involving in non-work Domain', were loaded the same factor. As a result, these two dimensions were combined and named as 'Individualized Relationships in Work and non-work Domains' (see Appendix H for the final factor loadings for the present version of the PLQ).

Internal consistencies of the Family Atmosphere at Workplace (4 items), Individualized Relationships in Work and non-work Domains (6 items), Status Hierarchy and Authority (5 items), and Loyalty (3 items) dimensions were .79, .73, .52, and .69, respectively. A factor analysis with varimax rotation was conducted with the three items of the Loyalty dimension. Results showed that all items loaded on the same factor with high coefficients (see Appendix I). Based on this factor analysis, the theoretical background of the scale, and high internal consistency of the Loyalty dimension found in previous studies (e.g., Aycan, 2004), the Loyalty dimension was included in the analyses despite the low Cronbach's alpha. Finally, participants' attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style were assessed by computing the mean of their total scores obtained through the final form of the PLQ.

### **3.2.4.2 The Self in Family Context Questionnaire**

The Self in Family Context Questionnaire was developed to assess the types of the self of the individuals in relation to their families. These types were heteronomous - related self, autonomous – separate self, and autonomous – related self. Factor analysis with varimax rotation based on the current sample identified five factors rather than three (see Appendix J). Further examination of the items and their factor loadings showed that the items of the relatedness and autonomous – relatedness dimensions were dispersed among 2 and 4 factors, respectively. Then, each dimension was factor analyzed individually. Analyses resulted in one factor each for autonomy and relatedness dimensions (see Appendices K and L). However, factor analysis with varimax rotation conducted with the items of the autonomous – relatedness dimension revealed 3 factors (see Appendix M). Therefore, the items of the autonomous-relatedness dimension were excluded from the questionnaire. Factor analysis with varimax rotation with the remaining 18 items resulted in two factors, where the items of relatedness and autonomy dimensions were gathered in different factors. Factor loadings of the items of the final form of The Self in Family Context Questionnaire are presented in Appendix N. Reliability analyses showed that the two dimensions, relatedness and autonomy, had Cronbach's alphas of .85 and .84 respectively.

Because the autonomous-relatedness dimension of the scale was not used in the present study, a new method was adopted to assess the type of the self in family context and the relatedness and autonomy dimensions and their interaction were used to determine the type of the self. Individuals scoring high in relatedness, but low in autonomy were categorized as heteronomous – related self, whereas

individuals scoring high in autonomy but low in relatedness were labeled as autonomous – separate self. The third type of the self was derived from the interaction of these two dimensions. Individuals scoring high in both relatedness and autonomy dimensions were described as autonomous – related self. Finally, individuals who scored low in both dimensions were labeled as heteronomous – separate self. The fourth group was excluded from the relevant analyses, since this type of self might reflect a problematic family interaction pattern and needed more empirical validation (see Kagitcibasi, 1996b, 2005b). Assessing an individual as high or low in one dimension was done by using 50<sup>th</sup> percentiles of the relevant dimension as cut-off point.

#### **3.2.4.3 Traditional Family Values Questionnaire**

The two dimensions of the Traditional Family Values Questionnaire that were used in the present study were ‘Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother’ and ‘Relationships with Family and Kin’. However, factor analysis with varimax rotation based on the current sample showed four factors rather than two (see Appendix O). The first factor consisted of items of ‘Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother’ dimension. Two items, 7 and 9, were loaded in the fourth and third factors, respectively. In addition, except for the item 16, which was loaded both in the third and fourth factors; the items of the ‘Relationships with Family and Kin’ dimension were loaded in the second factor. Despite their unexpected factor loadings, items 7, 9, and 16 had item-total correlations that were lower than .30; .06, .17, .27, respectively. Therefore, these items were excluded from the questionnaire. Another factor analysis with varimax rotation revealed two factors, where items of the two

dimensions were loaded in different components (see Appendix P for the final factor loadings for the present version of The Traditional Family Values Questionnaire). Finally, internal consistencies of the two subscales, Hierarchical Roles of Father and Mother (7 items) and Relationships with Family and Kin (8 items), obtained from the current sample were .85 and .75, respectively.

### **3.3 Procedure**

#### **3.3.1 Data Collection in Student Sample**

The individual demographics form (see Appendix A), Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ) (see Appendix C), The Self in Family Context Questionnaire (see Appendix D), and Traditional Family Values Questionnaire (see Appendix F) were collected in a booklet. In the first phase of the data collection in the student sample, authorized persons of the universities were contacted and informed about the purpose and content of the study. Among the universities that agreed to take part in the study, in Koç and Marmara Universities, the researcher conducted the study. In the remaining four universities, graduate psychology students administered the booklets to the students in the lectures. In all cases, students were informed both orally and written that their names would not be written on the booklets, all the data would be kept confidential, and they would be able to quit the study if they did not want to continue for any reason. Participants completed the questionnaires approximately in 20 minutes.

### 3.3.2 Data Collection in Professional Sample

In addition to the background information form and other questionnaires that were administered to the student participants, a job and organizational demographics form (see Appendix B) was added to the booklets. Moreover, the booklets distributed to professional participants included the employee version of The Self in Family Questionnaire (see Appendix E). Participants either received the hard copy or the electronic form of the booklet.

The professionals who were recruited by the university students received an electronic form in Excel format. They were asked to complete the form in one session and send the completed form back to the researcher electronically. Since they would need extended and easy time to fulfill the form, they were given two weeks to complete and send it back. After a week from the first sending time of the forms, participants who did not return the forms were sent another electronic mail as a reminder. All participants were asked not to write their names in any part of the forms. Moreover, they were informed that their or their organizations' names would not be associated with the forms, all the data would be collected in an anonymous folder, and the electronic messages to which they attached the completed forms would be deleted immediately. They were also informed that all the data would be kept confidential and would not be shared with their organizations.

The other way of data collection from professional participants included paper and pencil format in four organizations. Booklets that contained the questionnaires were distributed to the professionals in envelopes, and they were asked to complete them alone and in one session. They were further instructed to put the completed booklets into the given envelopes and asked not to write their or their

organizations' names on the booklets or the envelopes. They were also informed that their or their organizations' names would not be written to the booklets or envelopes by the researcher, and all data would be kept confidential and would not be shared with a third person or institution, including their own organizations. The completed booklets were collected by the researchers within two weeks. The next chapter presents results of the statistical analyses.

## **Chapter 4**

### **RESULTS**

#### **4.1 Preliminary Analyses**

##### **4.1.1 Skewness and Kurtosis**

Statistical distributions of the attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS), Traditional Family Values (TFV), and autonomy scores were inspected for deviations from normality, but the deviations were in acceptable ranges (skewness and kurtosis values for all variables are presented in Table 6). Relatedness scores showed slight deviations from normality in the student, professional, and total samples. Therefore, transformations were made for the relatedness scores. Square root, log, and inverse transformations were computed to find which transformation method provided values closer to normality. Skewness decreased to acceptable ranges in square root and inverse transformations in student, professional, and total samples, but kurtosis deviated more from the normal distribution. Considering the culture of relatedness that is high in Turkey (Kagitcibasi, 1985c), this slight deviation from normality in the relatedness variable was suggested to be a result of the sample characteristics. Thus, the untransformed scores of relatedness variable were used in the analyses.

Table 6

*Skewness and Kurtosis Values for all Variables for the Student, Professional, and Total Samples*

| <u>Student Sample</u>      | <u>N</u> | <u>Skewness</u> | <u>SD</u> | <u>Kurtosis</u> | <u>SD</u> |
|----------------------------|----------|-----------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------|
| Attitudes toward           |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Paternalistic Leadership   | 460      | -.192           | .113      | .207            | .226      |
| Style (PLS)                |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Autonomy                   | 466      | -.071           | .113      | -.135           | .226      |
| Relatedness                | 464      | -.736           | .113      | -.087           | .226      |
| Traditional Family         | 464      | -.120           | .113      | -.313           | .226      |
| Values (TFV)               |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| <u>Professional Sample</u> |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Attitudes toward           |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Paternalistic Leadership   | 221      | -.158           | .163      | .212            | .324      |
| Style (PLS)                |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Autonomy                   | 224      | .119            | .163      | -.428           | .324      |
| Relatedness                | 226      | -.531           | .162      | -.098           | .322      |
| Traditional Family         | 224      | .004            | .163      | .177            | .324      |
| Values (TFV)               |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| <u>Total Sample</u>        |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Attitudes toward           |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Paternalistic Leadership   | 681      | -.123           | .094      | .108            | .187      |
| Style (PLS)                |          |                 |           |                 |           |
| Autonomy                   | 690      | -.045           | .093      | -.264           | .186      |
| Relatedness                | 690      | -.666           | .093      | -.110           | .186      |
| Traditional Family         | 688      | -.128           | .093      | -.141           | .186      |
| Values (TFV)               |          |                 |           |                 |           |

## 4.2 Main Analysis

The following sections describe the analyses conducted for hypotheses and model testing in student and professional samples. First, the correlations among the variables, the relationships between individual demographics and the variables of interest (i.e., attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy, relatedness), and main analyses are presented for the student sample. Following, same analyses conducted for the

student sample and additional analyses conducted to assess the relationships between the variables of the present study and job and organizational characteristics are presented for the professional sample.

#### **4.2.1 Student Sample**

##### **4.2.1.1 Correlations**

Bivariate correlations were calculated among all continuous variables for the student sample. The significant and non-significant zero-order correlations are presented in Table 7.

##### **4.2.1.2 Individual Demographics**

In the student sample, bivariate correlations (see Table 7) showed that there were significant and negative correlations between age and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(462) = -.27, p < .001$ , TFV,  $r(459) = -.21, p < .001$ , and relatedness,  $r(459) = -.13, p < .01$ , whereas there was a significant and positive correlation between age and autonomy,  $r(459) = .19, p < .001$ . In addition, there was a significant and negative correlation between SES and relatedness scores,  $r(464) = -.15, p < .01$ . However, the relationships between SES and attitudes toward PLS, TFV, and autonomy variables were not significant.

Table 7

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlations among All Variables for Student Sample (N = 467)*

|                                                         | Age     | 1       | 2       | 3     | 4       | 5       | 6      |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------|---------|---------|-------|---------|---------|--------|
|                                                         | .22***  |         |         |       |         |         |        |
| 1 Family Size                                           |         |         |         |       |         |         |        |
| 2 Number of Siblings                                    | .29***  | .82***  |         |       |         |         |        |
| 3 Socioeconomic Status (SES)                            | -.15**  | -.45*** | -.49*** |       |         |         |        |
| 4 Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS) | -.27*** | .00     | -.07    | .03   |         |         |        |
| 5 Autonomy                                              | .19***  | .04     | -.07    | -.02  | -.29*** |         |        |
| 6 Relatedness                                           | -.13**  | -.11*   | -.15**  | .13** | .21***  | -.37*** |        |
| 7 Traditional Family Values (TFV)                       | -.21*** | -.05    | -.06    | -.04  | .40***  | -.50*** | .32*** |

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$ ,

Subsequently, a one-way Multivariate Analysis of Variance (MANOVA) was conducted to evaluate the possible gender differences in attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy, and relatedness variables (Descriptive statistics for female and male student participants are presented in Table 8). Significant differences were found between male and female student participants on the dependent measures, Wilks's  $\Lambda = .83$ ,  $F(4, 449) = 22.87$ ,  $p < .001$ . However, the multivariate  $\eta^2$  based on Wilks's  $\Lambda$  was weak, .07.

Analyses of variances (ANOVA) on each dependent variable were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA. Using the Bonferroni method, each ANOVA was tested at the .0125 level. Results showed that the differences between male and female student participants were significant in attitudes toward PLS, TFV, and relatedness variables, however the effect sizes of these significant results were weak,  $F(1, 452) = 17.35$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .04$ ;  $F(1, 452) = 35.50$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .07$ ; and  $F(1, 452) = 13.11$ ,  $p < .001$ ,  $\eta^2 = .03$ , respectively. In addition, there was not a difference between male and female student participants in terms of their autonomy scores.

Finally, to assess the effects of the student participants' universities, faculties and departments on the variables of the present study (i.e., attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy, and relatedness), a three-way MANOVA was conducted. Results showed that the universities, faculties and departments of student participants had no effect on the attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy and relatedness variables.

Table 8

*Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS), Traditional Family Values (TFV), Autonomy, and Relatedness for Male and Female Student Participants*

|                                                       | Male Student Participants<br>( <i>N</i> = 177) |           | Female Student Participants<br>( <i>N</i> = 277) |           | ANOVA    |          |
|-------------------------------------------------------|------------------------------------------------|-----------|--------------------------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|
|                                                       | <i>M</i>                                       | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i>                                         | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | $\eta^2$ |
| Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS) | 3.67                                           | .51       | 3.48                                             | .45       | 17.35*   | .04      |
| Traditional Family Values (TFV)                       | 5.01                                           | .96       | 4.51                                             | .80       | 35.50*   | .07      |
| Autonomy                                              | 3.33                                           | .68       | 3.33                                             | .56       | .02      | .00      |
| Relatedness                                           | 4.07                                           | .66       | 4.28                                             | .56       | 13.11*   | .03      |

\*  $p < .001$ .

#### 4.2.1.3 The Self in Family Context and Traditional Family Values

The first hypothesis of the present study suggested that individuals with heteronomous – related selves would have the strongest and individuals with autonomous – separate selves the weakest TFV, whereas individuals with autonomous – related selves would fall in between. To test the proposed differences, the types of selves were derived from the relatedness, autonomy, and interaction of relatedness and autonomy dimensions (see Method Chapter). Distribution of the student participants regarding their types of The Self in Family Context is given in Table 9.

Table 9

*Distribution of the Student Participants (N = 467) regarding their Types of The Self in Family Context*

|                              | <u>Number of Cases</u> | <u>Percentage of Cases</u> |
|------------------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| Heteronomous – related self  | 141                    | 30.2                       |
| Autonomous – separate self   | 148                    | 31.7                       |
| Autonomous – related self    | 104                    | 22.3                       |
| Heteronomous – separate self | 74                     | 15.8                       |

A one-way analysis of covariance (ANCOVA), where age and gender was controlled, showed that the type of The Self in Family Context was significantly related with the TFV,  $F(2, 380) = 45.03, p < .001$ . As assessed by a partial  $\eta^2$  of .19, the strength of the relationship between the type of The Self in Family Context and TFV was strong. That is, the type of The Self in Family Context accounted for 19% of the variance of the TFV, controlling the variables age and gender. The means of the TFV adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected across the three types of selves. The heteronomous – related self group had the largest adjusted mean

( $M = 5.24$ ,  $SD = .07$ ), the autonomous – related self group had a smaller adjusted mean ( $M = 4.65$ ,  $SD = .08$ ), and the autonomous – separate self group had the smallest adjusted mean ( $M = 4.36$ ,  $SD = .06$ ). Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among these adjusted means. The Holm’s sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to control for Type I error across the three pairwise comparisons. Results confirmed the first hypothesis of the present study in the student sample, where there were significant differences in adjusted means between the three self groups in terms of their TFV.

### **4.2.1.4 The Self in Family Context and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

First, the relationships between attitudes toward PLS and autonomy and relatedness were investigated. Previous analyses had shown that both age and gender were significantly related with attitudes toward PLS in the student sample. Thus, partial correlations, where age and gender were controlled, between attitudes toward PLS and autonomy and relatedness were computed. Results indicated a moderate and significantly positive correlation between relatedness and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(448) = .22$ ,  $p < .001$ , whereas the correlation between autonomy and attitudes toward PLS was moderate and significantly negative,  $r(448) = -.25$ ,  $p < .001$ .

In the second hypothesis of the present study, it was suggested that individuals with heteronomous-related selves would have the most positive and those with autonomous-separate selves the most negative attitudes toward PLS, whereas individuals with autonomous-related selves would score in between. The types of selves derived previously were used to test the proposed differences.

A one-way (ANCOVA), where age and gender were controlled, was conducted to test the relationship between The Self in Family Context and attitudes toward PLS. Results showed that The Self in Family Context was significantly related with the attitudes toward PLS,  $F(2, 376) = 14.05, p < .001$ . However, the strength of the relationship was weak, partial  $\eta^2 = .07$ . The means of the attitudes toward PLS adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected across the three types of selves. The heteronomous – related self group had the largest adjusted mean ( $M = 3.73, SD = .04$ ), the autonomous – related self group had a smaller adjusted mean ( $M = 3.57, SD = .05$ ), and the autonomous – separate self group had the smallest adjusted mean ( $M = 3.33, SD = .04$ ) of preference of PLS. Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among these adjusted means. The Holm’s sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to control for Type I error across the three comparisons. Results confirmed the second hypothesis of the present study in the student sample, where there were significant differences in adjusted means between the three self groups in terms of attitudes toward PLS.

### **4.2.1.5 Traditional Family Values and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

In the final hypothesis of the present study, it was suggested that TFV would be associated with positive attitudes toward PLS. Previous analyses had shown that age and gender were significantly related with attitudes toward PLS in student sample. Therefore, these variables were controlled, and the partial correlation between TFV and attitudes toward PLS was computed. Confirming the third

hypothesis, results showed that there was a moderate and significantly positive correlation between TFV and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(448) = .32, p < .001$ .

#### **4.2.1.6 Predicting Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

To predict the attitudes toward PLS in the student sample, a mediated model was tested using the three-step approach (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In the first step, the mediator was regressed on the independent variable; in the second step, the dependent variable was regressed on the independent variable; and in the final step, the dependent variable was regressed on both the independent and the mediator variables. According to the three-step approach, if (1) the independent variable influenced the mediator in the first equation and (2) the dependent variable in the second equation, and if (3) the mediator influenced the dependent variable in the third equation while the influence of the independent variable on the dependent variable was either diminished (partial mediation) or completely disappeared (full mediation), then the mediation was evident. In the mediated model proposed in the present thesis, autonomy and relatedness variables were the independent variables, TFV variable was the mediator, and attitudes toward PLS variable was the dependent variable. Since previous analyses had shown that age and gender were related with both TFV and attitudes toward PLS in the student sample, they were included in the following analyses as control variables.

The first analysis, which was conducted to predict the TFV from autonomy and relatedness indicated that both autonomy and relatedness significantly and individually contributed to the prediction of the TFV after controlling for the effects of age and gender,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .25, F(2, 451) = 93.47, p < .001$ . In addition, the

second analysis, which was conducted to predict the attitudes toward PLS from autonomy and relatedness indicated that both autonomy and relatedness significantly and individually contributed to the prediction of the attitudes toward PLS after controlling for the effects of age and gender,  $R^2$  change = .07,  $F(2, 447) = 20.04$ ,  $p < .001$ . Since there were significant correlations between these variables (see Table 7), collinearity statistics were also controlled. A tolerance of .83, and the variance inflation factor (VIF) score of 1.20 suggested that there was no need to suspect for multicollinearity. Finally the third equation, which was conducted to predict the attitudes toward PLS from autonomy, relatedness, and TFV, showed that the TFV significantly contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward PLS after controlling the effects of age and gender, whereas the effects of relatedness and autonomy diminished or disappeared, respectively,  $R^2$  change = .12,  $F(3, 443) = 20.54$ ,  $p < .001$ . The results of the analyses are summarized in Table 10.

Overall, (1) the independent variables (autonomy and relatedness) influenced the mediator (TFV) in the first equation and (2) the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) in the second equation, and (3) the mediator (TFV) influenced the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) in the third equation while the influences of the independent variables (relatedness and autonomy) on the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) partially or completely disappeared. Therefore, results suggested a mediated model for the student sample, where autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals partially and fully, respectively, mediated by their TFV predicted their attitudes toward PLS.

Table 10

*Prediction of Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS) in Student Sample (N = 467), Multiple Regression Analyses Results*

|                                | First Step          |                     |       |          | Second Step         |                     |                     |                     |                    |       |          |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------|----------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------|----------|
|                                | St. $\beta$<br>(C1) | St. $\beta$<br>(C2) | $R^2$ | $F$      | St. $\beta$<br>(C1) | St. $\beta$<br>(C2) | St. $\beta$<br>(P1) | St. $\beta$<br>(P2) | St. $\beta$<br>(M) | $R^2$ | $F$      |
| First Equation<br>(P1+P2→M)    | -.20***             | -.28***             | .13   | 32.24*** | -.10*               | -.32***             | -.42***             | .19***              | n.a                | .38   | 69.44*** |
| Second Equation<br>(P1+P2→Cr)  | -.26***             | -.19***             | .11   | 27.21*** | -.20***             | -.22***             | -.19***             | .15**               | n.a                | .18   | 24.78*** |
| Third Equation<br>(P1+P2+M→Cr) | -.26***             | -.19***             | .11   | 26.83*** | -.18***             | -.14**              | -.09                | .10*                | .23***             | .22   | 24.47*** |

P = Predictor, P1 = Autonomy, P2 = Relatedness; M = Moderator = Traditional Family Values (TFV); Cr = Criterion = Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS); C = Control Variable, C1 = Age, C2= Gender; St.  $\beta$  = Standardized Beta weight; \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ , \*\*\*  $p < .001$

## 4.2.2 Professional Sample

### 4.2.2.1 Correlations

Bivariate correlations were calculated among all continuous variables for the professional sample. The significant and non-significant zero-order correlations are presented in Table 11.

### 4.2.2.2 Individual Demographics

Similar to the student sample, bivariate correlations conducted in the professional sample (see Table 11) showed that there were significantly negative correlations between age and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(219) = -.16, p < .05$ , TFV,  $r(222) = -.25, p < .001$ , and relatedness,  $r(223) = -.20, p < .01$ , whereas there was a significantly positive relationship between age and autonomy,  $r(221) = .24, p < .001$ . Furthermore, there was a significant and negative correlation between SES and TFV,  $r(224) = -.18, p < .01$ , whereas the correlations between SES and attitudes toward PLS, autonomy, and relatedness were non-significant.

A one way MANOVA was conducted to investigate the gender differences in the professional sample in attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy, and relatedness variables. Significant differences were found between male and female groups in professional sample on the dependent measures, Wilks's  $\Lambda = .82, F(4, 205) = 11.36, p < .001$ . The multivariate partial  $\eta^2$  based on Wilks's  $\Lambda$  was moderate, .18.

Table 11

*Pearson Product-Moment Correlations among All Variables for Professional Sample (N = 230)*

|                                                         | Age     | 1       | 2    | 3      | 4    | 5    | 6       | 7       | 8      |
|---------------------------------------------------------|---------|---------|------|--------|------|------|---------|---------|--------|
| 1 Family Size                                           | .12     |         |      |        |      |      |         |         |        |
| 2 Number of Siblings                                    | .14     | .82***  |      |        |      |      |         |         |        |
| 3 Socioeconomic Status (SES)                            | -.04    | -.39*** | -.45 |        |      |      |         |         |        |
| 4 Tenure                                                | .62***  | -.04    | .06  | -.07   |      |      |         |         |        |
| 5 Size of the Organization                              | .02     | -.01    | .04  | -.05   | .13  |      |         |         |        |
| 6 Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS) | -.16*   | .10     | .07  | -.11   | -.05 | -.12 |         |         |        |
| 7 Autonomy                                              | .24***  | -.07    | -.05 | .12    | .08  | .14  | -.25*** |         |        |
| 8 Relatedness                                           | -.20**  | .08     | .09  | -.13   | .05  | .01  | .31***  | -.40*** |        |
| 9 Traditional Family Values (TFV)                       | -.25*** | .10     | .07  | -.18** | -.14 | -.13 | .43***  | -.57*** | .37*** |

\*p &lt; .05, \*\*p &lt; .01, \*\*\*p &lt; .001

ANOVA statistics on each dependent variable were conducted as follow-up tests to the MANOVA. Using the Bonferroni method, each ANOVA was tested at the .0125 level. The ANOVAs on the TFV and relatedness scores were significant, however the effect sizes of these significant results were weak,  $F(1, 208) = 6.63, p < .05, \eta^2 = .03$ ;  $F(1, 208) = 11.10, p < .01, \eta^2 = .05$ , respectively. Finally, the differences between male and female professional participants in terms of their attitudes toward PLS and autonomy scores were non-significant (Descriptive statistics for female and male professional participants are presented in Table 12).

### 4.2.2.3 Job and Organizational Characteristics

To begin with, the bivariate correlation analyses showed that the relationships between the variables of the present study (i.e., attitudes toward PLS, TFV, autonomy, and relatedness) and the tenure and organizational size were non-significant (see Table 11). Similarly, a three-way MANOVA showed that the professional participants' scores on attitudes toward PLS, autonomy, relatedness, and TFV did not significantly differ among their departments (see Table 3 for the list of the departments) and sectors (see Table 5 for the list of the sectors) and ownership structures (private or public) of the organizations.

Table 12

*Descriptive Statistics for Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS), Traditional Family Values (TFV), Autonomy, and Relatedness, for Male and Female Professional Participants*

|                                                          | Male Professional<br>Participants ( <i>N</i> = 116) |           | Female Professional<br>Participants ( <i>N</i> = 94) |           | ANOVA    |          |
|----------------------------------------------------------|-----------------------------------------------------|-----------|------------------------------------------------------|-----------|----------|----------|
|                                                          | <i>M</i>                                            | <i>SD</i> | <i>M</i>                                             | <i>SD</i> | <i>F</i> | $\eta^2$ |
| Attitudes toward Paternalistic<br>Leadership Style (PLS) | 3.58                                                | .45       | 3.62                                                 | .48       | .34      | .00      |
| Traditional Family Values<br>(TFV)                       | 5.14                                                | .75       | 4.77                                                 | .84       | 11.10**  | .05      |
| Autonomy                                                 | 3.19                                                | .67       | 3.09                                                 | .74       | 1.18     | .01      |
| Relatedness                                              | 3.90                                                | .64       | 4.12                                                 | .62       | 6.63*    | .03      |

\*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .01$ .

#### 4.2.2.4 The Self in Family Context and Traditional Family Values

In the first hypothesis of the present study, it was suggested that individuals with heteronomous – related selves would have the strongest; individuals with autonomous – separate selves would have the weakest Traditional Family Values; and individuals with autonomous – related selves would fall in between. As it was done in the student sample, to investigate the proposed differences between self groups, the types of selves were derived from the relatedness, autonomy, and interaction of relatedness and autonomy dimensions (see Method Chapter). Distribution of the professional participants regarding the types of The Self in Family Context is given in the Table 13.

Table 13

*Distribution of the Professional Participants (N = 230) regarding their Types of The Self in Family Context*

|                              | Number of Cases | Percentage of Cases |
|------------------------------|-----------------|---------------------|
| Heteronomous – related self  | 66              | 28.7                |
| Autonomous – separate self   | 73              | 31.7                |
| Autonomous – related self    | 52              | 22.6                |
| Heteronomous – separate self | 39              | 17.0                |

A one-way ANCOVA, where age, gender and SES were controlled, indicated that the type of The Self in Family Context was significantly related with the TFV,  $F(2, 174) = 35.49, p < .001$ . The strength of the relationship was very strong, as assessed by a partial  $\eta^2 .29$ , the type of self accounting for 29% of the variance of the TFV, controlling the variables age, gender and SES. The means of the TFV adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected across the three

types of selves. The heteronomous – related self group had the largest adjusted mean ( $M = 5.50$ ,  $SD = .09$ ), the autonomous – related self group had a smaller adjusted mean ( $M = 4.83$ ,  $SD = .09$ ), and the autonomous – separate self group had the smallest adjusted mean ( $M = 4.50$ ,  $SD = .08$ ). Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among these adjusted means. The Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to control for Type I error across the three pairwise comparisons. Parallel to the results obtained in student sample, results in the professional sample showed that there were significant differences in adjusted means between the three self groups. Thus, the first hypothesis of the present thesis was confirmed in both samples.

### **4.2.2.5 The Self in Family Context and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

First, the relationships between attitudes toward PLS and autonomy and relatedness were investigated. Since previous analyses had shown that age was significantly correlated with attitudes toward PLS in the professional sample, partial correlations between attitudes toward PLS and autonomy and relatedness were computed, controlling for age. Similar to the results obtained for the student sample, results in the professional sample revealed a moderate and significantly positive correlation between relatedness and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(209) = .29$ ,  $p < .001$ , and a moderate and significantly negative correlation between autonomy and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(209) = -.23$ ,  $p < .001$ .

The second hypothesis of the present thesis suggested that individuals with heteronomous-related selves would have the most positive; those with autonomous-

separate selves would have the most negative attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style; and individuals with autonomous-related selves would score in between. To test the proposed differences, the types of selves derived previously were used and an ANCOVA was conducted. The independent variable The Self in Family Context included three levels: heteronomous – related self, autonomous – related self, and autonomous – separate self. The dependent variable was the attitudes toward PLS and the covariate was the age of the professional participants. Results revealed that The Self in Family Context was significantly related with the attitudes toward PLS,  $F(2, 176) = 5.55, p < .01$ . However, the strength of the relationship was weak, partial  $\eta^2 = .06$ . The means of the attitudes toward PLS adjusted for initial differences were ordered as expected across the three types of selves. The heteronomous – related self group had the largest adjusted mean ( $M = 3.74, SD = .06$ ), the autonomous – related self group had a smaller adjusted mean ( $M = 3.59, SD = .07$ ), and the autonomous – separate self group had the smallest adjusted mean ( $M = 3.48, SD = .05$ ). Follow-up tests were conducted to evaluate pairwise differences among these adjusted means. The Holm's sequential Bonferroni procedure was used to control for Type I error across the three pairwise comparisons. Results partially confirmed the second hypothesis of the present study for the professional sample. Although the self groups were ordered as expected, there was a significant difference only between the adjusted means of heteronomous – related and autonomous – separate self groups, but no significant differences were found between heteronomous – related and autonomous – related, and autonomous related and autonomous – separate self groups.

#### **4.2.2.6 Traditional Family Values and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

The third hypothesis of the present study suggested that TFV would be associated with positive attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style. Previous analyses had shown that in the professional sample, age, gender, and SES significantly correlated with attitudes toward PLS. Therefore, these variables were controlled, and the partial correlation between TFV and attitudes toward PLS was computed. Results confirmed the third hypothesis. There was a moderate and significantly positive relationship between TFV and attitudes toward PLS,  $r(201) = .42, p < .001$ .

#### **4.2.2.7 Predicting Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

To predict the attitudes toward PLS in the professional sample, the three-step approach (Baron & Kenny, 1986) used in the student sample was adopted (see Section 3.2.6), and a mediated model was tested where autonomy and relatedness were the independent variables, TFV was the mediator, and attitudes toward PLS was the dependent variable. Since previous analyses had shown that age, gender and SES were related with TFV, and age was related with attitudes toward PLS in the professional sample, these variables were included in the appropriate analyses as control variables.

The first analysis, which was conducted to predict TFV from autonomy and relatedness indicated that both autonomy and relatedness significantly and individually contributed to the prediction of TFV after controlling for the effects of age, gender and SES,  $R^2 \text{ change} = .30, F(2, 209) = 61.35, p < .001$ . Similarly, the

second analysis that was conducted to predict attitudes toward PLS from autonomy and relatedness indicated that both autonomy and relatedness significantly and individually contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward PLS after controlling for the effects of age,  $R^2$  change = .10,  $F(2, 208) = 11.95$ ,  $p < .001$ . Since these variables were significantly correlated (see Table 11), collinearity statistics were also controlled. A tolerance of .84, and the variance inflation factor (VIF) score of 1.19 suggested that there was no need to suspect for multicollinearity. Finally the third equation, which was conducted to predict the attitudes toward PLS from autonomy, relatedness, and TFV, showed that the TFV significantly contributed to the prediction of attitudes toward PLS after controlling for the effects of age, whereas the effects of relatedness and autonomy diminished or disappeared, respectively,  $R^2$  change = .22,  $F(3, 204) = 19.43$ ,  $p < .001$ . The results of the analyses are summarized in Table 14.

Overall, (1) the independent variables (autonomy and relatedness) influenced the mediator (TFV) in the first equation and (2) the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) in the second equation, and (3) the mediator (TFV) influenced the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) in the third equation while the influences of the independent variables (autonomy and relatedness) on the dependent variable (attitudes toward PLS) partially or completely disappeared. Thus, as it was in the student sample, findings obtained in professional sample suggested a mediated model, where autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals partially and fully, respectively, mediated by their TFV predicted their attitudes toward PLS. Finally, the same results obtained with students and professionals confirmed the last hypothesis. That is, both in student and professional samples, the same mediated model predicted individuals' attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

Table 14

*Prediction of Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS) in Professional Sample (N = 230), Multiple Regression Analyses Results*

|                                | First Step          |                     |                     |       |         | Second Step         |                     |                     |                     |                     |                    |       |         |
|--------------------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------|---------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|--------------------|-------|---------|
|                                | St. $\beta$<br>(C1) | St. $\beta$<br>(C2) | St. $\beta$<br>(C3) | $R^2$ | $F$     | St. $\beta$<br>(C1) | St. $\beta$<br>(C2) | St. $\beta$<br>(C3) | St. $\beta$<br>(P1) | St. $\beta$<br>(P2) | St. $\beta$<br>(M) | $R^2$ | $F$     |
| First Equation<br>(P1+P2→M)    | -.34**              | -.31**              | -.21**              | .20   | 17.91** | -.22**              | -.36**              | -.11*               | -.45**              | .22**               | n.a                | .50   | 41.49** |
| Second Equation<br>(P1+P2→Cr)  | -.15*               | n.a                 | n.a                 | .02   | 4.95*   | -.08                | n.a                 | n.a                 | -.15*               | .24**               | n.a                | .12   | 9.80**  |
| Third Equation<br>(P1+P2+M→Cr) | -.16*               | n.a                 | n.a                 | .03   | 5.21*   | -.04                | n.a                 | n.a                 | .06                 | .16*                | .41**              | .24   | 16.22** |

P = Predictor, P1 = Autonomy, P2 = Relatedness; M = Moderator = Traditional Family Values (TFV); Cr = Criterion = Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style (PLS); C = Control Variable, C1 = Age, C2= Gender, C3 = SES; St.  $\beta$  = Standardized Beta weight; \*  $p < .05$ , \*\*  $p < .001$

## Chapter 5

### DISCUSSION

#### 5.1 General

Research on paternalism has utilized mostly cross-cultural comparisons. The main finding has been the prevalence of positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style in collectivistic countries and negative attitudes in individualistic ones. This is basically because paternalistic leadership style involves human relations in keeping with collectivistic values, such as hierarchical, close and personal relations between the leader and the followers (Aycan, 2005).

However, establishing associations between attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and collectivism/individualism of the society does not address the question 'how' such an association comes about. To deal with this question, a developmental perspective is helpful. A developmental perspective which delves into the self and family background reveals individual differences in values and attitudes that exist within the same collectivistic/individualistic societal context. Thus, such a perspective promises to shed light on the processes through which certain values and attitudes develop in certain contexts; and the family emerges as a key context of development predisposing individuals toward certain outlooks.

In addition, the organizational context embedded with paternalistic leadership style resembles a family context, where the relationship between a paternalistic superior and subordinate reflects a father/mother-child relationship (Sagie & Aycan, 2003). According to the ASA framework (Schneider, 1987; Schneider, Goldstein, & Smith, 1995), individuals prefer the organizational settings

that promote values and orientations similar to theirs. Thus, individuals would prefer a paternalistic leadership style if, for instance, their family context would resemble the paternalistic one, or if their values would reflect the values inherent in paternalistic context. In this thesis, therefore, within-culture variations in attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style were investigated with a focus on the self in family context and traditional family values.

Moreover, to check the generalizability of the results, the hypotheses and the model proposed in the present thesis were tested separately in both student and professional samples. Although analyses indicated slight differences between two samples in hypothesis 2, overall, results verified the proposed relationships among the self in family context, traditional family values and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style in both samples. Moreover, results in both samples supported a mediated model, where autonomy and relatedness levels of students and professionals partially or fully, respectively, mediated by their traditional family values predicted their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

In the following sections, first, the results regarding the relationship between the self in family context and traditional family values are presented. Second, the relationships between attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and individual and organizational demographics are described. Then, the effects of the self in family context and traditional family values on attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style are discussed. Following, based on the findings of the present thesis, the model proposed to predict the variations in attitudes toward PLS from the self in family context and traditional family values is evaluated. Finally, a conclusion that summarizes the main findings and presents the scientific and practical contributions of the results, limitations of the present thesis and future directions are presented.

## **5.2 The Self in Family Context and Traditional Family Values**

The first hypothesis of the current thesis suggested that individuals with heteronomous – related selves would have the highest and individuals with autonomous – separate selves the lowest traditional family values; and individuals with autonomous – related selves would fall in between. In line with this hypothesis, in both student and professional samples, it was found that individuals' types of the self in family context affected their traditional family values: The heteronomous – related self groups had the strongest traditional family values, the autonomous – related self groups had weaker traditional family values, and the autonomous – separate self groups had the weakest traditional family values. Moreover, statistical comparisons revealed that these differences among the three types of selves were significant in both samples. Thus, the first hypothesis of the present study was confirmed for student and professional samples.

## **5.3 Individual and Organizational Demographics and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

To begin with, in both student and professional samples, age was found to be significantly related with attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, where younger participants tended to have more positive attitudes toward paternalistic leader behaviors. Second, in the student sample, males tended to have more positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style than females, but the effect size of this difference was weak, with gender accounting for 4% of the variance in attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. Moreover, there was not a significant

difference between male and female subjects in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style in the professional sample.

Finally, results revealed that other individual demographics (i.e., SES and family size) and organizational demographics (i.e., tenure, and department of the participant and age, size, type, and sector of the organization) were not related with attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style in both student and professional samples and in professional sample, respectively.

#### **5.4 The Self in Family Context and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

The first psychological variable proposed to influence the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style was the self in family context. To begin with, both in student and professional samples, results showed that there were strong positive and negative relationships between attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and relatedness and autonomy, respectively. That is, as an individual's level of relatedness increased, his or her attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style became positive. In contrast, as an individual's level of autonomy increased, his or her attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style became negative.

In addition, in the second hypothesis of the present study, it was suggested that individuals with heteronomous-related selves would have the most positive and those with autonomous-separate selves would have the most negative attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style; and individuals with autonomous-related selves would score in between. In line with this hypothesis, in both student and professional samples, it was found that individuals' type of the self in family context affected their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, where the self groups

ranked as expected: The heteronomous – related self groups had the highest degree of positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, the autonomous – related self groups had less positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, and the autonomous – separate self groups had the least degree of positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. Statistical comparisons conducted among the self groups confirmed the second hypothesis in student sample, where the differences among the three self groups were significant. However, results partially supported the second hypothesis in the professional sample. Although the self groups ordered as expected, there was a significant difference only between the heteronomous – related and autonomous separate self groups, but no significant differences were found between heteronomous – related and autonomous – related and autonomous – related and autonomous – separate self groups.

One of the possible reasons of this might be the smaller sample sizes of the self groups in the professional sample (see Table 13) compared to the ones in the student sample (see Table 9). As presented, both in student and professional samples, the self groups ranked as expected in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. However, the smaller size of the professional sample might cause that in this sample, the autonomous – related self group did not significantly differ from the heteronomous – related and autonomous – separate self groups.

Another explanation might be the possible differences that might exist between the family and organizational contexts. That is, although the paternalistic relationships resemble family-like relationships, organizational settings might include additional factors which might affect, for instance, the perceived necessity of the level of authority. Similarly, the loyalty perceptions of individuals in family and

organizational settings might differ. Thus, the relationships between parents and the child in family context, and the superior and the subordinate in organizational context might include and/or be affected by additional different patterns. To determine and control these patterns, sub-cultural effects (both in student and organizational samples) and organizational culture (in the case of professional sample) should be studied more extensively in the future studies.

### **5.5 Traditional Family Values and Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

Another factor that was suggested to be related with attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style was traditional family values that individuals possessed. Therefore, in the third hypothesis of the present study, it was proposed that traditional family values would be associated with positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. Both in student and professional samples, results confirmed the third hypothesis. As the strength of individuals' traditional family values increased, their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style became more positive.

### **5.6 Predicting Attitudes toward Paternalistic Leadership Style**

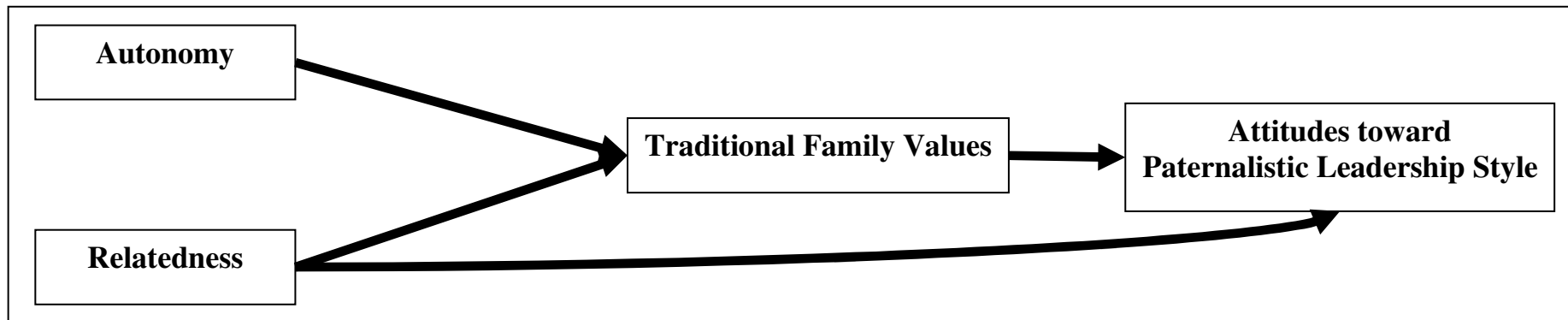
Both in student and professional samples, multiple regression analyses supported a mediated model, where the relationship between autonomy and relatedness on the one hand, and attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style on the other, was mediated by traditional family values. Thus, the level of autonomy and relatedness of an individual predicted his or her attitudes toward paternalistic

leadership style with the mediation of traditional family values that he or she possessed. In the light of these findings, the model proposed in the present study was refined (see Figure 3).

According to the refined model, the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style are suggested to be affected, first, by the level of autonomy and relatedness that an individual acquired through family socialization. As Kagitcibasi (1996b, 2005b) demonstrated, low levels of autonomy and high levels of relatedness are seen in the heteronomous – related selves; high levels of autonomy and low levels of relatedness are seen in the autonomous – separate selves; and high levels of relatedness and autonomy are seen in autonomous – related selves. As shown in the present study, these three types of selves differ in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, and autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals predicted their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. Moreover, the relationship between the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and autonomy and relatedness is further suggested to be mediated by the traditional family values. Strong traditional family values increased the acceptance of the paternalistic leadership style, whereas weak traditional family values decreased it. Overall, the relatedness and autonomy levels of students and professionals predicted the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style through partial (in case of relatedness) or full (in case of autonomy) mediation of values regarding traditional family structure and roles.

Figure 3

*Roots of Attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style – Refinement*



## 5.7 Conclusion

The main findings of the present study can be summarized as follows:

1. Both in student and professional samples, self groups significantly differed in terms of their traditional family values: The heteronomous – related self groups had the strongest traditional family values, the autonomous – related self groups had weaker traditional family values, and the autonomous – separate self groups had the weakest traditional family values.
2. Both in student and professional samples, there were strong positive and negative relationships between attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and relatedness and autonomy, respectively.
3. In student sample, self groups significantly differed in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style: The heteronomous – related self group had the highest degree of positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, the autonomous – related self group had less positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, and the autonomous – separate self group had the least degree of positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.
4. In professional sample, although the self groups ranked as expected in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, there was only a significant difference between the highly different heteronomous – related and autonomous separate self groups, but no significant differences between autonomous – related self group and heteronomous – related and autonomous – separate self groups.

5. Both in student and professional samples, traditional family values were found to be associated with positive attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.
6. Both in student and professional samples, autonomy and relatedness levels of individuals mediated by their traditional family values predicted their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

Overall, in the present thesis, it was shown that individual's self in family context and traditional family values accounted for much of the variations in the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, suggesting that family atmosphere, family socialization, and parental effects and their outcomes should be introduced in the I/O psychology studies as developmental background variables. Moreover, current study showed that an integrated approach of sub-disciplines of psychology (such as those used in this paper; i.e., organizational, social and developmental psychologies) might help us to extend our understanding of concepts that were primarily used and discussed in one discipline. Thus, the current study emphasized breaking the walls between sub-disciplines of psychology to be able to come up with more holistic explanations for the issues at hand.

Second, the differences between the autonomous – related self group and autonomous – separate and heteronomous – related self groups in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style and traditional family values confirmed the necessity of differentiating the types of selves not only in terms of autonomy and relatedness, but also in terms of interactions of autonomy and relatedness. Thus, the results suggested evidence for the existence of the autonomous – related self.

Third, same results derived from the student and professional samples suggested the generalizability of the model that predicts individuals' attitudes toward paternalistic leadership behaviors from their relatedness and autonomy levels and their values regarding traditional family roles and structure. In other words, findings obtained with student and professionals supported the idea that family decisively influences the development of the individuals and renders the effects of the organizational characteristics and culture, at least in attitude formation process toward leader behaviors. Thus, the current thesis presented evidence to the idea that other literatures that deal with dyadic relationships, e.g., parent – child relationships, should be included in the leadership studies (Hall and Lord, 1998). These findings further supported the idea of Hunt, Boal and Sorenson (1990), who had suggested that early childhood experiences might be the cause of the individual differences in ILTs. However, considering the special case of paternalistic leadership style that resembles a family atmosphere and promotes leader behaviors that are parallel to the behaviors of traditional parents, generalizing the role of family in attitude formation processes toward other kind of leadership styles should be done cautiously and should be tested empirically.

Fourth, the results of the present study also offered practical suggestions to the field of I/O psychology. First of all, the ability of superiors and subordinates to function together effectively clearly affects organizational performance (Egri, Ralston, Murray, & Nicholson, 2000). Moreover, the literature demonstrated the importance of leader-follower similarity, for instance in job satisfaction (Turban & Jones, 1988), or in leader-member relationships (Bauer & Green, 1996; Phillips & Bedeian, 1994). Thus, ensuring a fit between superiors and subordinates is crucial for organizations. Based on the results of the present study; for an organization with

a paternalistic culture, the selection of paternalistic employees and managers might be done not only with respect to their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style, but also with their types of the self in family context and traditional family values. One of the problematic issues in personnel selection covers biases associated with social desirability, impression-management, and faking in selection models (Arthur et al., 2001). Rosse, Stecher, Miller and Levin (1998) indicated that response distortion, or faking, among job applicants completing inventories has been a concern for selection specialists. Moreover, little is known about the fakability of empirically developed measures when such measures are used in selection decisions (Snell, Sydell, & Lueke, 1999; Zalinski & Abrahams, 1979). For instance, Dalen, Stanton and Roberts (2001) argued that the amount of information available to the candidate might make faking-to-profile easier. Similarly, it would be easier for candidates to manipulate/fake a scale that measures the attitudes of individuals toward paternalistic leadership style by describing the leader behaviors. However, since applicants would not be able to connect the family values to paternalistic leader behaviors or leadership style easily, their answers related to their family interaction patterns and family values might result with additional predictions about their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

### **5.8 Limitations and Future Directions**

A limitation of the present study was that it only included family as the background variable. However, there might be other factors which might contribute to the socialization of the individual and development of his or her attitudes. Therefore, future studies should also include, for instance, the school atmosphere,

which is considered as the second socialization place, and the work environment and culture of the organizations.

It should be also mentioned that most research on adolescent development focuses on early adolescence rather than on development during the high school years (Steinberg, Darling, & Fletcher, 1995). However, there is a small but growing body of research, supporting the general conclusion that family relations continue to have effects also in high school years (e.g., Baumrind, 1991; Dornbusch, Ritter, Leiderman, Roberts, & Fraleigh, 1987). For instance, Rigby (2001) showed that university students' attitudes toward authority were positively and significantly related to the perceived attitudes of their parents, suggesting a transmission from parents to offspring. Moreover, Epstein (1983) found that when compared with school socialization, family socialization processes were more powerful in predicting student outcomes. Thus, based on these findings and the special case of the paternalistic context that resembles the family atmosphere, one can argue that the family socialization would be more powerful when compared with the school socialization, at least while predicting attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

In addition, the work environment and the culture of the organization might also contribute to the existing variations in attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style. Each organization has its own culture, and there are dynamically interacting environmental factors, such as internal (e.g., internal work culture), external (e.g., market characteristics, nature of industry), and sociocultural (e.g., power distance) environments, that are affecting the organizations (Aycan, Kanungo, & Sinha, 1999). Thus, individuals who are a part of an organization might be influenced by the culture and/or the environment of that particular organization.

On the other hand, it should be noted that individuals entering into such organizations might influence the already existing culture as well. Therefore, the influence between the organizational culture and the individual should be considered as reciprocal. The results of the present study revealed that organizational characteristics of the professional participants and their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style were not related. However, future studies should also control the organizational and departmental cultures and the environments that may affect the organizations while predicting the attitudes toward paternalistic leadership style.

Moreover, to increase the generalizability of the findings, the hypotheses and the model presented in the current thesis should be tested cross-culturally. As discussed, Turkish society and organizations have been described as being high on collectivism/conservatism and power distance/hierarchy (e.g., Fisek, 1982; Hofstede, 1980; Schwartz, 1994). In addition, Turkish leaders have been described as showing paternalistic orientations (Aycan et al., 2001; Fikret-Pasa et al., 2001; Yetim & Yetim, in press). On the other hand, reflecting within culture differences in the Turkish society, there were important amounts of variation in both student and professional samples in terms of their attitudes toward paternalistic leadership behaviors. Nevertheless, to be able to control the cultural characteristics and orientations and increase the generalizability of the findings of the present thesis, future studies should include different cultural contexts (e.g., individualist ones with low power distance). Finally, future studies should also investigate the relationships between the attitudes toward other leadership styles and the self construals of individuals in family context and values related with traditional family structure and roles.

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Appendix A

*Background Information Form (Individual Demographics)*

**KİŞİSEL BİLGİLER**

1. DOĞUM YILINIZ: .....

2. CİNSİYET :\_\_\_ KADIN \_\_\_ ERKEK

3. ÜNİVERSİTE: .....

4. FAKÜLTE: .....

5. BÖLÜM: .....

6. ORTAOKUL VE LİSE YILLARINIZDA AĞIRLIKLI OLARAK NEREDE YAŞADINIZ?

- \_\_\_ AİLEMLE  
\_\_\_ YURT/YATILI  
\_\_\_ DİĞER (AKRABA EVİNDE gibi)

7. ŞU ANDA NEREDE YAŞIYORSUNUZ?

- \_\_\_ ANNEM VE/VEYA BABAM İLE  
\_\_\_ KENDİ AİLEM İLE (EŞ VE/VEYA ÇOCUKLAR)  
\_\_\_ YALNIZ  
\_\_\_ ARKADAŞLARIMLA  
\_\_\_ DİĞER (AKRABA EVİNDE GİBİ)

8. ANNE VE BABANIZ BİRLİKTE Mİ YAŞIYORLAR?

- \_\_\_ EVET  
\_\_\_ HAYIR ( AYRILDIKLARINDA KAÇ YAŞINDAYDINIZ? \_\_\_\_\_)

9. AİLENİZİN EN UZUN SÜRE YAŞADIĞI YER?

- \_\_\_ METROPOL SEÇİNİZ: \_\_\_ İSTANBUL \_\_\_ ANKARA \_\_\_ İZMİR  
\_\_\_ ŞEHİR HANGİ İL? ..... (YAZINIZ)  
\_\_\_ KASABA: HANGİ İLE BAĞLI? ..... (YAZINIZ)  
\_\_\_ KÖY: HANGİ İLE BAĞLI? ..... (YAZINIZ)  
\_\_\_ YURTDIŞI: HANGİ ÜLKE? ..... (YAZINIZ)

10. ANNENİZİN EN SON MEZUN OLDUĞU OKUL:

- \_\_\_ İLKOKUL \_\_\_ ORTAOKUL \_\_\_ LİSE  
\_\_\_ ÜNİVERSİTE \_\_\_ MASTER \_\_\_ DOKTORA

11. ANNENİZ SİZ BÜYÜRKEN PARA KAZANMAK İÇİN BİR ŞEY YAPIYOR MUYDU?

- \_\_\_ EVET \_\_\_ HAYIR (13. SORUYA GEÇİNİZ)



Appendix B

*Questionnaire for Job and Organizational Characteristics*

**İŞ/ŞİRKET BİLGİLERİ**

**1. FİRMANIZDAKİ ÇALIŞMA SÜRENİZ:**

\_\_\_\_\_ YIL VEYA \_\_\_\_\_ AY

**2. MEVCUT POZİSYONUNUZDAKİ ÇALIŞMA SÜRENİZ:**

\_\_\_\_\_ YIL VEYA \_\_\_\_\_ AY

**3. FİRMANIZDA TOPLAM KAÇ İŞÇİ ÇALIŞMAKTADIR?** \_\_\_\_\_

**4. FİRMANIZ:** \_\_\_\_ KAMU \_\_\_\_ ÖZEL

**5. FİRMANIZIN ANA FAALİYET SEKTÖRÜ:** .....

**6. FİRMANIZIN YAŞI:** .....

**7. FİRMANIZDA ÇALIŞTIĞINIZ BÖLÜM:**

\_\_\_\_ FİNANS

\_\_\_\_ MUHASEBE

\_\_\_\_ SATIŞ

\_\_\_\_ PAZARLAMA

\_\_\_\_ OPERASYON

\_\_\_\_ İNSAN KAYNAKLARI

\_\_\_\_ TEKNOLOJİ/DESTEK

\_\_\_\_ ARAŞTIRMA/GELİŞTİRME

**DİĞER:** \_\_\_\_\_

## Appendix C

*Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ)*

**Aşağıda, iş hayatında yöneticilerin sergilediği davranışlarla ilgili tanımlar yer almaktadır. Birlikte çalışmak istediğiniz bir yöneticiyi düşündüğünüzde, her bir tanımla ilgili görüşlerinizi aşağıda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.**

| Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Ortadayım (Biraz Katılıyorum / Biraz Katılmıyorum) | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle katılıyorum |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| 1                       | 2            | 3                                                  | 4           | 5                      |

- \_\_\_ 1. Çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü (baba/anne veya ağabey/abla) gibi davranır.
- \_\_\_ 2. Çalışanlarına bir aile büyüğü gibi öğüt verir.
- \_\_\_ 3. İşyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.
- \_\_\_ 4. Bir ebeveynin çocuğundan sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.
- \_\_\_ 5. Çalışanlarını dışarıdan gelen eleştirilere karşı korur.
- \_\_\_ 6. Gerektiğinde, çalışanları adına, onaylarını almaksızın bir şeyler yapmaktan çekinmez.
- \_\_\_ 7. Çalışanlarına karşı tatlı-serttir.
- \_\_\_ 8. Çalışanlarıyla bire bir ilişki kurmak onun için çok önemlidir.
- \_\_\_ 9. Çalışanlarını yakından (örn., kişisel sorunlar, aile yaşantısı vs.) tanımaya önem verir.
- \_\_\_ 10. Çalışanlarıyla ilişkilerinde duygusal tepkiler gösterir; sevinç, üzüntü, kızgınlık gibi duygularını dışa vurur.
- \_\_\_ 11. Çalışanlarının özel günlerine (örn., nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.
- \_\_\_ 12. İhtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlarına iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma sağlık vs.) yardım etmeye hazırdır.
- \_\_\_ 13. Çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn; eşlerarası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.
- \_\_\_ 14. Çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.
- \_\_\_ 15. Çalışanlarıyla ilgili kararlar alırken (örn., terfi, işten çıkartma), performans en önemli kriter değildir.
- \_\_\_ 16. Çalışanlarının gelişimini yakından takip eder.
- \_\_\_ 17. Çalışanlarında sadakate, performansa verdiğiinden daha fazla önem verir.
- \_\_\_ 18. Çalışanları için neyin en iyi olduğunu bilir.
- \_\_\_ 19. İşle ilgili konularda çalışanlarının fikrini sorar, ama son kararı kendisi verir.
- \_\_\_ 20. İşle ilgili her konunun kontrolü altında ve bilgisi dahilinde olmasını ister.
- \_\_\_ 21. Çalışanlarıyla yakın ilişki kurmasına rağmen aradaki mesafeyi de korur.

Appendix D

*The Self in Family Context Questionnaire – Student Version*

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyunuz ve aileniz ile olan ilişkinizi göz önüne alarak her bir ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı aşağıda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

- \_\_\_ 1. Kendimi ailemden bağımsız hissederim.
- \_\_\_ 2. Genellikle ailemin isteklerine uymaya çalışırım.
- \_\_\_ 3. Ailemin düşündüğü gibi düşünmek zorunda değilim.
- \_\_\_ 4. İnsanlar geleceğe yönelik planları için ailelerinden onay almalıdırlar.
- \_\_\_ 5. Ailemin onaylamayacağı kararlar almaktan kaçınırım.
- \_\_\_ 6. Benimle ilgili bir konuda ailemin aldığı kararlar geçerlidir.
- \_\_\_ 7. Ailemin istemediği bir kişiyle yakın olmazdım.
- \_\_\_ 8. Ailemden bağımsız olarak, kendi kararlarımı kolay veremem.
- \_\_\_ 9. Kararlarımı ailemin isteklerine göre kolayca değiştirebilirim.
- \_\_\_ 10. Ailemle olan ilişkimde mesafeli olmak isterim.
- \_\_\_ 11. Zor zamanlarımda ailemin yanımda olacağını bilmek isterim.
- \_\_\_ 12. Ailemle geçirdiğim zaman benim için pek önemli değildir.
- \_\_\_ 13. Bir kimsenin ailesine çok yakın hissetmesi iyi bir şeydir.
- \_\_\_ 14. Ailem hayatımda en ön sıradadır.
- \_\_\_ 15. Ailemle fazla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanmam.
- \_\_\_ 16. Kendimi aileme gönülden bağlı hissederim.
- \_\_\_ 17. Ailemle aramdaki bağ, kendimi güven ve huzur içinde hissetmemi sağlıyor.
- \_\_\_ 18. Ailemle iç içeyim.
- \_\_\_ 19. Bir kimse ailesine değer verse de, kişisel fikrini söylemekten çekinmemelidir.
- \_\_\_ 20. İnsan karar verirken ailesine danışsa bile, son kararı kendisi vermelidir.
- \_\_\_ 21. Aile ile çok yakın olmak, onların isteğine göre hareket etmeyi gerektirir.
- \_\_\_ 22. Bir kimse ailesinin görüşlerine değer verse de, kendi görüşü ön planda olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 23. Yakın aile bağları, kişiyi güçlendirir.
- \_\_\_ 24. Yakın aile bağları kişinin özgürlüğünü kısıtlar.
- \_\_\_ 25. Bir kimse sorunlarını kendi çözse de, ailesinin yanında olduğunu bilmesi ona güven verir.
- \_\_\_ 26. Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olup, hem de kararlarını kendisi alabilir.
- \_\_\_ 27. Bir kimse kendisini hem ailesine duygusal olarak bağlı, hem de özgür hissedebilir.
- \_\_\_ 28. Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olabilir, hem de fikirleri ayrı olduğunda, fikrine saygı duyulmasını isteyebilir.

Appendix E

*The Self in Family Context Questionnaire – Employee Version*

Lütfen aşağıdaki ifadeleri okuyun ve gençlik yıllarınızı düşünerek, aileniz ile olan ilişkinizi göz önüne alarak her bir ifadeye ne kadar katıldığınızı aşağıda yer alan ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.

| Kesinlikle katılmıyorum | Katılmıyorum | Ortadayım (Biraz Katılıyorum / Biraz Katılmıyorum) | Katılıyorum | Kesinlikle katılıyorum |
|-------------------------|--------------|----------------------------------------------------|-------------|------------------------|
| 1                       | 2            | 3                                                  | 4           | 5                      |

- \_\_\_ 1. Kendimi ailemden bağımsız hissederdim.
- \_\_\_ 2. Genellikle ailemin isteklerine uymaya çalışırdım.
- \_\_\_ 3. Ailemin düşündüğü gibi düşünmek zorunda değildim.
- \_\_\_ 4. İnsanlar geleceğe yönelik planları için ailelerinden onay almalıydılar.
- \_\_\_ 5. Ailemin onaylamayacağı kararlar almaktan kaçınırdım.
- \_\_\_ 6. Benimle ilgili bir konuda ailemin aldığı kararlar geçerliydi.
- \_\_\_ 7. Ailemin istemediği bir kişiyle yakın olmazdım.
- \_\_\_ 8. Ailemden bağımsız olarak, kendi kararlarımı kolay vermezdim.
- \_\_\_ 9. Kararlarımı ailemin isteklerine göre kolayca değiştirebilirdim.
- \_\_\_ 10. Ailemle olan ilişkimde mesafeli olmak isterdim.
- \_\_\_ 11. Zor zamanlarımda ailemin yanımda olacağını bilmek isterdim.
- \_\_\_ 12. Ailemle geçirdiğim zaman benim için pek önemli değildi.
- \_\_\_ 13. Bir kimsenin ailesine çok yakın hissetmesi iyi bir şeydir.
- \_\_\_ 14. Ailem hayatımda en ön sıradaydı.
- \_\_\_ 15. Ailemle fazla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanmazdım.
- \_\_\_ 16. Kendimi aileme gönülden bağlı hissederdim.
- \_\_\_ 17. Ailemle aramdaki bağ, kendimi güven ve huzur içinde hissetmemi sağlardı.
- \_\_\_ 18. Ailemle iç içeydim.
- \_\_\_ 19. Bir kimse ailesine değer verse de, kişisel fikrini söylemekten çekinmemelidir.
- \_\_\_ 20. İnsan karar verirken ailesine danışsa bile, son kararı kendisi vermelidir.
- \_\_\_ 21. Aile ile çok yakın olmak, onların isteğine göre hareket etmeyi gerektirir.
- \_\_\_ 22. Bir kimse ailesinin görüşlerine değer verse de, kendi görüşü ön planda olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 23. Yakın aile bağları, kişiyi güçlendirir.
- \_\_\_ 24. Yakın aile bağları kişinin özgürlüğünü kısıtlar.
- \_\_\_ 25. Bir kimse sorunlarını kendi çöze de, ailesinin yanında olduğunu bilmesi ona güven verir.
- \_\_\_ 26. Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olup, hem de kararlarını kendisi alabilir.
- \_\_\_ 27. Bir kimse kendisini hem ailesine duygusal olarak bağlı, hem de özgür hissedebilir.
- \_\_\_ 28. Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olabilir, hem de fikirleri ayrı olduğunda, fikrine saygı duyulmasını isteyebilir.

Appendix F

*Traditional Family Values Questionnaire*

**Aşağıda bazı aile değerleri belirtilmektedir. Bizler, bu değerlere ne ölçüde katılıp katılmadığınızla ilgileniyoruz. Lütfen bu ifadelere ne derece katıldığınızı aşağıdaki ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz.**

|                                       |          |
|---------------------------------------|----------|
| <b>Kesinlikle katılmıyorum</b>        | <b>1</b> |
| <b>Katılmıyorum</b>                   | <b>2</b> |
| <b>Pek katılmıyorum</b>               | <b>3</b> |
| <b>Ne katılıyorum ne katılmıyorum</b> | <b>4</b> |
| <b>Biraz katılıyorum</b>              | <b>5</b> |
| <b>Katılıyorum</b>                    | <b>6</b> |
| <b>Kesinlikle katılıyorum</b>         | <b>7</b> |

- \_\_\_ 1. Baba ailenin reisi olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 2. Kişi akrabalarıyla iyi ilişkiler içinde olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 3. Annenin yeri evidir.
- \_\_\_ 4. Anne, baba ile çocuklar arasında aracı olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 5. Anne-baba çocuklarına uygun şekilde davranmayı öğretmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 6. Evde parayı baba idare etmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 7. Anne-baba evli çocuklarının özel yaşamlarına karışmamalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 8. Anne-babaları yaşlandığında çocuklar onlara bakmakla yükümlüdür.
- \_\_\_ 9. Çocuklar ev işlerine yardım etmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 10. Aile problemleri aile içinde çözülmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 11. Çocuklar anne-babalarına itaat etmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 12. Aile itibarımıza saygı duymalı ve onu korumalıyız.
- \_\_\_ 13. Anne-baba çocuklarına maddi açıdan yardımcı olmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 14. Çocuklar büyükanne ve büyükbabalarına saygı göstermelidir.
- \_\_\_ 15. Anne, babanın kararlarını kabul etmelidir.
- \_\_\_ 16. Çocuklar aileye yardım etmek için çalışmalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 17. Anne-baba çocukların önünde tartışmamalıdır.
- \_\_\_ 18. Ekmek parasını baba kazanmalıdır.

Appendix G

*Factor loadings\* for the Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire*

| Items                                                                                                                           | Factor Loadings |      |      |      |      |      |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|------|------|------|
|                                                                                                                                 | F 1             | F 2  | F 3  | F 4  | F 5  | F 6  |
| 1- Çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü gibi davranır.                                                                           | .854            |      |      |      |      |      |
| 2- Çalışanlarına bir aile büyüğü gibi öğüt verir.                                                                               | .822            |      |      |      |      |      |
| 3- İşyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.                                                                                  | .714            |      |      |      |      |      |
| 4- Bir ebeveynin çocuklarından sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.                                  | .544            |      |      |      |      | .326 |
| 5- Çalışanlarını dışarıdan gelen eleştirilere karşı korur.                                                                      |                 |      |      |      |      | .680 |
| 6- Gerektiğinde, çalışanları adına, onaylarını almaksızın bir şeyler yapmaktan çekinmez.                                        |                 |      |      |      | .647 | .356 |
| 7- Çalışanlarına karşı tatlıserttir.                                                                                            |                 |      | .431 |      |      | .536 |
| 8- Çalışanlarıyla bire bir ilişki kurmak onun için çok önemlidir.                                                               |                 | .553 |      |      |      | .430 |
| 9- Çalışanlarını yakından (örn., kişisel sorunlar, aile yaşantısı vs.) tanımaya önem verir.                                     |                 | .517 |      |      | .318 |      |
| 10- Çalışanlarıyla ilişkilerinde duygusal tepkiler gösterir; sevinç, üzüntü, kızgınlık gibi duygularını dışa vurur.             |                 |      |      |      | .674 |      |
| 11- Çalışanlarının özel günlerine (örn., nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.                                                 |                 | .707 |      |      |      |      |
| 12- İhtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlarına iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma sağlık vs.) yardım etmeye hazırdır. |                 | .738 |      |      |      |      |
| 13- Çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn; eşlerarası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.    |                 | .507 |      |      | .447 |      |
| 14- Çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.                                     | .301            |      | .416 | .332 |      |      |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix G (Con't)

*Factor loadings\* for the Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ)*

| Items                                                                                                                  | Factor Loadings |      |      |      |       |     |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|------|-------|-----|
|                                                                                                                        | F 1             | F 2  | F 3  | F 4  | F 5   | F 6 |
| 15- Çalışanlarıyla ilgili kararlar alırken (örn., terfi, işten çıkartma), performans <u>en önemli</u> kriter değildir. |                 |      |      | .794 |       |     |
| 16- Çalışanlarının gelişimini yakından takip eder.                                                                     |                 | .488 | .357 |      |       |     |
| 17- Çalışanlarında sadakate, performansa verdiğiinden daha fazla önem verir.                                           |                 |      |      | .753 |       |     |
| 18- Çalışanları için neyin en iyi olduğunu bilir.                                                                      |                 |      | .471 |      |       |     |
| 19- İşle ilgili konularda çalışanlarının fikrini sorar, ama son kararı kendisi verir.                                  |                 |      | .755 |      |       |     |
| 20- İşle ilgili her konunun kontrolü altında ve bilgisi dahilinde olmasını ister.                                      |                 |      | .788 |      |       |     |
| 21- Çalışanlarıyla yakın ilişki kurmasına rağmen aradaki mesafeyi de korur.                                            |                 |      | .640 |      | -.334 |     |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix H

*Factor loadings\* for the final form of the Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ)*

| Items                                                                                                                       | Factor Loadings |          |          |          |
|-----------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|----------|----------|----------|
|                                                                                                                             | Factor 1        | Factor 2 | Factor 3 | Factor 4 |
| Çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü gibi davranır.                                                                          | .848            |          |          |          |
| Çalışanlarına bir aile büyüğü gibi öğüt verir.                                                                              | .824            |          |          |          |
| İşyerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.                                                                                 | .702            |          |          |          |
| Bir ebeveynin çocuklarından sorumlu olması gibi, her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.                                 | .543            |          |          |          |
| Çalışanları ile birebir ilişki kurmak onun için çok önemlidir.                                                              |                 | .640     |          |          |
| Çalışanlarını yakından (örn., kişisel sorunlar, aile yaşantısı vs.) tanımaya önem verir.                                    |                 | .593     |          |          |
| Çalışanlarının özel günlerine (örn., nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.                                                 |                 | .697     |          |          |
| İhtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlarına iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma sağlık vs.) yardım etmeye hazırdır. |                 | .739     |          |          |
| Çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn; eşlerarası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.    |                 | .519     |          |          |
| Çalışanlarının gelişimini yakından takip eder.                                                                              |                 | .477     |          |          |
| Çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.                                     |                 |          | .358     |          |
| Çalışanlarıyla ilgili kararlar alırken (örn., terfi, işten çıkartma), performans <u>en önemli</u> kriter değildir.          |                 |          | .751     |          |
| Çalışanlarında sadakate, performansa verdiğiinden daha fazla önem verir.                                                    |                 |          | .775     |          |
| Çalışanlarına karşı tatlı-serttir.                                                                                          |                 |          |          | .517     |
| Çalışanları için neyin en iyi olduğunu bilir.                                                                               |                 |          |          | .471     |
| İşle ilgili konularda çalışanlarının fikrini sorar, ama son kararı kendisi verir.                                           |                 |          |          | .744     |
| İşle ilgili her konunun kontrolü altında ve bilgisi dahilinde olmasını ister.                                               |                 |          |          | .777     |
| Çalışanlarıyla yakın ilişki kurmasına rağmen aradaki mesafeyi de korur.                                                     |                 |          |          | .660     |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix I

*Factor loadings\* for the Loyalty Dimension of Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire (PLQ)*

| Items                                                                                                              | Factor Loadings |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
|                                                                                                                    | F 1             |
| Çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık, onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.                            | .626            |
| Çalışanlarıyla ilgili kararlar alırken (örn., terfi, işten çıkartma), performans <u>en önemli</u> kriter değildir. | .680            |
| Çalışanlarında sadakate, performansa verdiğiinden daha fazla önem verir.                                           | .822            |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Only one component was extracted. The solution can not be rotated.

Appendix J

*Factor loadings\* for The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                                 | Factor Loadings |       |       |      |      |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|-------|-------|------|------|
|                                                                                       | F 1             | F 2   | F 3   | F 4  | F 5  |
| 1- Ailemle olan ilişkimde mesafeli olmak isterdim.                                    |                 |       | .594  |      |      |
| 2- Zor zamanlarımda ailemin yanımda olacağını bilmek isterdim.                        |                 | .591  |       |      |      |
| 3- Ailemle geçirdiğim zaman benim için pek önemli değildi.                            |                 |       | .675  |      |      |
| 4- Bir kimsenin ailesine çok yakın hissetmesi iyi bir şeydir.                         |                 | .593  |       |      |      |
| 5- Ailem hayatımda en ön sıradaydı.                                                   |                 | .522  | .498  |      |      |
| 6- Ailemle fazla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanmazdım.                                      |                 |       | .662  |      |      |
| 7- Kendimi aileme gönülden bağlı hissederdim.                                         |                 | .536  | .587  |      |      |
| 8- Ailemle aramdaki bağ, kendimi güven ve huzur içinde hissetmemi sağlardı.           |                 | .577  | .550  |      |      |
| 9- Ailemle iç içeydim.                                                                |                 | .440  | .595  |      |      |
| 10- Kendimi ailemden bağımsız hissederdim.                                            | .501            |       | -.479 |      |      |
| 11- Genellikle ailemin isteklerine uymaya çalışırdım.                                 | .605            |       | -.336 |      |      |
| 12- Ailemin düşündüğü gibi düşünmek zorunda değildim.                                 | .545            |       |       |      |      |
| 13- İnsanlar geleceğe yönelik planları için ailelerinden onay almalıdırlar.           | .534            | -.329 |       |      |      |
| 14- Ailemin onaylamayacağı kararlar almaktan kaçınırdım.                              | .708            |       |       |      |      |
| 15- Benimle ilgili bir konuda ailemin aldığı kararlar geçerliydi.                     | .728            |       |       |      |      |
| 16- Ailemin istemediği bir kişiyle yakın olmazdım.                                    | .682            |       |       |      |      |
| 17- Ailemden bağımsız olarak, kendi kararlarımı kolay vermezdim.                      | .701            |       |       |      |      |
| 18- Kararlarımı ailemin isteklerine göre kolayca değiştirebilirdim.                   | .716            |       |       |      |      |
| 19- Bir kimse ailesine değer verse de, kişisel fikrini söylemekten çekinmemelidir.    |                 |       |       | .320 | .569 |
| 20- İnsan karar verirken ailesine danışsa bile, son kararı kendisi vermelidir.        |                 |       |       |      | .790 |
| 21- Aile ile çok yakın olmak, onların isteğine göre hareket etmeyi gerektirir.        | .360            |       |       | .503 |      |
| 22- Bir kimse ailesinin görüşlerine değer verse de, kendi görüşü ön planda olmalıdır. |                 |       |       |      | .752 |
| 23- Yakın aile bağları, kişiyi güçlendirir.                                           |                 | .619  |       | .360 |      |
| 24- Yakın aile bağları kişinin özgürlüğünü kısıtlar.                                  |                 |       |       | .619 |      |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix J (Con't)

*Factor loadings\* for The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                                                                  | Factor Loadings |      |     |      |      |
|------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|-----|------|------|
|                                                                                                                        | F 1             | F 2  | F 3 | F 4  | F 5  |
| 25- Bir kimse sorunlarını kendi çözse de, ailesinin yanında olduğunu bilmesi ona güven verir.                          |                 | .630 |     | .392 |      |
| 26- Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olup, hem de kararlarını kendisi alabilir.                                        |                 |      |     | .666 |      |
| 27- Bir kimse kendisini hem ailesine duygusal olarak bağlı, hem de özgür hissedebilir.                                 |                 |      |     | .732 |      |
| 28- Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olabilir, hem de fikirleri ayrı olduğunda, fikrine saygı duyulmasını isteyebilir. |                 |      |     | .568 | .475 |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix K

*Factor loadings\* for the Autonomy Dimension of The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                   | Factor Loadings |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
|                                                                         | F 1             |
| Kendimi ailemden bağımsız hissedirdim.                                  | .529            |
| Genellikle ailemin isteklerine uymaya çalışırdım.                       | .620            |
| Ailemin düşündüğü gibi düşünmek zorunda değildim.                       | .569            |
| İnsanlar geleceğe yönelik planları için ailelerinden onay almalıdırlar. | .652            |
| Ailemin onaylamayacağı kararlar almaktan kaçınırdım.                    | .773            |
| Benimle ilgili bir konuda ailemin aldığı kararlar geçerliydi.           | .716            |
| Ailemin istemediği bir kişiyle yakın olmazdım.                          | .710            |
| Ailemden bağımsız olarak, kendi kararlarımı kolay vermezdim.            | .682            |
| Kararlarımı ailemin isteklerine göre kolayca değiştirebilirdim.         | .722            |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Only one component was extracted. The solution can not be rotated.

Appendix L

*Factor loadings\* for the Relatedness Dimension of The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                    | Factor Loadings |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|
|                                                                          | F 1             |
| Ailemle olan ilişkimde mesafeli olmak isterdim.                          | .498            |
| Zor zamanlarımda ailemin yanımda olacağını bilmek isterdim.              | .519            |
| Ailemle geçirdiğim zaman benim için pek önemli değildi.                  | .686            |
| Bir kimsenin ailesine çok yakın hissetmesi iyi bir şeydir.               | .544            |
| Ailem hayatımda en ön sıradaydı.                                         | .751            |
| Ailemle fazla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanmazdım.                            | .656            |
| Kendimi aileme gönülden bağlı hissederdim.                               | .816            |
| Ailemle aramdaki bağ, kendimi güven ve huzur içinde hissetmemi sağlardı. | .827            |
| Ailemle iç içeydim.                                                      | .797            |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Only one component was extracted. The solution can not be rotated.

Appendix M

*Factor loadings\* for the Autonomous – Relatedness Dimension of The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                                     | Factor Loadings |      |      |
|-------------------------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|
|                                                                                           | F1              | F2   | F3   |
| Bir kimse ailesine değer verse de, kişisel fikrini söylemekten çekinmemelidir.            | .302            | .561 |      |
| İnsan karar verirken ailesine danışsa bile, son kararı kendisi vermelidir.                |                 | .862 |      |
| Aile ile çok yakın olmak, onların isteğine göre hareket etmeyi gerektirir.                |                 |      | .892 |
| Bir kimse ailesinin görüşlerine değer verse de, kendi görüşü ön planda olmalıdır.         |                 | .819 |      |
| Yakın aile bağları, kişiyi güçlendirir.                                                   | .741            |      |      |
| Yakın aile bağları kişinin özgürlüğünü kısıtlar.                                          | .445            |      | .653 |
| Bir kimse sorunlarını kendi çözse de, ailesinin yanında olduğunu bilmesi ona güven verir. | .773            |      |      |
| Bir kimse hem ailesine çok yakın olup, hem de kararlarını kendisi alabilir.               | .667            |      |      |
| Bir kimse kendisini hem ailesine duygusal olarak bağlı, hem de özgür hissedebilir.        | .625            | .456 |      |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix N

*Factor loadings\* for the Final Version of The Self in Family Context Scale*

| Items                                                                    | Factor Loadings |          |
|--------------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|----------|
|                                                                          | Factor 1        | Factor 2 |
| Ailemle olan ilişkimde mesafeli olmak isterdim.                          | .574            |          |
| Zor zamanlarımda ailemin yanımda olacağını bilmek isterdim.              | .444            |          |
| Ailemle geçirdiğim zaman benim için pek önemli değildi.                  | .727            |          |
| Bir kimsenin ailesine çok yakın hissetmesi iyi bir şeydir.               | .414            |          |
| Ailem hayatımda en ön sıradaydı.                                         | .684            |          |
| Ailemle fazla vakit geçirmekten hoşlanmazdım.                            | .664            |          |
| Kendimi aileme gönülden bağlı hissederdim.                               | .764            |          |
| Ailemle aramdaki bağ, kendimi güven ve huzur içinde hissetmemi sağlardı. | .762            |          |
| Ailemle iç içeydim.                                                      | .723            |          |
| Kendimi ailemden bağımsız hissederdim.                                   |                 | .440     |
| Genellikle ailemin isteklerine uymaya çalışırdım.                        |                 | .570     |
| Ailemin düşündüğü gibi düşünmek zorunda değildim.                        |                 | .549     |
| İnsanlar geleceğe yönelik planları için ailelerinden onay almalıydılar.  |                 | .583     |
| Ailemin onaylamayacağı kararlar almaktan kaçınırdım.                     |                 | .736     |
| Benimle ilgili bir konuda ailemin aldığı kararlar geçerliydi.            |                 | .754     |
| Ailemin istemediği bir kişiyle yakın olmazdım.                           |                 | .705     |
| Ailemden bağımsız olarak, kendi kararlarımı kolay vermezdim.             |                 | .716     |
| Kararlarımı ailemin isteklerine göre kolayca değiştirebilirdim.          |                 | .735     |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix O

*Factor loadings\* for the Traditional Family Values Questionnaire*

| Items                                                               | Factor Loadings |      |      |      |
|---------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|------|------|------|
|                                                                     | F 1             | F 2  | F 3  | F4   |
| 1- Baba ailenin reisi olmalıdır.                                    | .729            | .308 |      |      |
| 2- Kişi akrabalarıyla iyi ilişkiler içinde olmalıdır.               |                 | .578 |      |      |
| 3- Annenin yeri evidir.                                             | .748            |      |      |      |
| 4- Anne, baba ile çocuklar arasında aracı olmalıdır.                | .527            |      |      |      |
| 5- Anne-baba çocuklarına uygun şekilde davranmayı öğretmelidir.     |                 | .601 |      |      |
| 6- Evde parayı baba idare etmelidir.                                | .779            |      |      |      |
| 7- Anne-baba evli çocuklarının özel yaşamlarına karışmamalıdır.     |                 |      |      | .793 |
| 8- Anne-babaları yaşlandığında çocuklar onlara bakmakla yükümlüdür. |                 | .540 |      |      |
| 9- Çocuklar ev işlerine yardım etmelidir.                           |                 | .367 | .634 |      |
| 10- Aile problemleri aile içinde çözülmelidir.                      |                 | .530 |      | .418 |
| 11- Çocuklar anne-babalarına itaat etmelidir.                       | .585            | .382 |      |      |
| 12- Aile itibarımıza saygı duymalı ve onu korumalıyız.              |                 | .669 |      |      |
| 13- Anne-baba çocuklarına maddi açıdan yardımcı olmalıdır.          |                 | .572 |      |      |
| 14- Çocuklar büyükanne ve büyükbabalarına saygı göstermelidir.      |                 | .731 |      |      |
| 15- Anne babanın kararlarını kabul etmelidir.                       | .630            |      | .315 |      |
| 16- Çocuklar aileye yardım etmek için çalışmalıdır.                 |                 |      | .773 | .317 |
| 17- Anne-baba çocukların önünde tartışmamalıdır.                    |                 | .484 |      |      |
| 18- Ekmek parasını baba kazanmalıdır.                               | .794            |      |      |      |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.

Appendix P

*Factor loadings\* for the Final Form of the Traditional Family Values Questionnaire*

| Items                                                            | Factor Loadings |          |
|------------------------------------------------------------------|-----------------|----------|
|                                                                  | Factor 1        | Factor 2 |
| Baba ailenin reisi olmalıdır.                                    | .739            |          |
| Kişi akrabalarıyla iyi ilişkiler içinde olmalıdır.               |                 | .494     |
| Annenin yeri evidir.                                             | .767            |          |
| Anne, baba ile çocuklar arasında aracı olmalıdır.                | .525            |          |
| Anne-baba çocuklarına uygun şekilde davranmayı öğretmelidir.     |                 | .648     |
| Evde parayı baba idare etmelidir.                                | .778            |          |
| Anne-babaları yaşlandığında çocuklar onlara bakmakla yükümlüdür. |                 | .535     |
| Aile problemleri aile içinde çözülmelidir.                       |                 | .652     |
| Çocuklar anne-babalarına itaat etmelidir.                        | .600            |          |
| Aile itibarımıza saygı duymalı ve onu korumalıyız.               |                 | .714     |
| Anne-baba çocuklarına maddi açıdan yardımcı olmalıdır.           |                 | .537     |
| Çocuklar büyükanne ve büyükbabalarına saygı göstermelidir.       |                 | .730     |
| Anne babanın kararlarını kabul etmelidir.                        | .647            |          |
| Anne-baba çocukların önünde tartışmamalıdır.                     |                 | .467     |
| Ekmek parasını baba kazanmalıdır.                                | .795            |          |

\* Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization. Values less than .30 are not presented.