

2011

The Impact of Paternalism and Organizational Collectivism in Multinational and Family-owned Firms in Turkey

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The Impact of Paternalism and Organizational Collectivism in Multinational and
Family-owned Firms in Turkey

by

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A thesis submitted in partial fulfillment
of the requirements for the degree of
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Date of Approval:
August 19, 2011

Keywords: Organizational Ownership, Traditionalism, Leader-Member Exchange,
Job Satisfaction, Organizational Citizenship Behavior

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Abstract

This correlational study examined the influences of paternalistic leadership behavior (PL) and organizational collectivism (measured at the employee level) on employee reported LMX, job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs) in two types of organizations (family-owned firms and multinational organizations) in Turkey. Survey data were collected from (N = 154) employees in family-owned and (N = 159) employees in multinational firms (MNCs). Employees in family-owned firms reported significantly higher levels of PL, organizational collectivism, LMX, and OCBs. Further examination revealed additional differences by organization type, with the family-owned sample showing no significant relationships between study variables and OCBs, in contrast to positive relationships in the MNC sample. Education level was negatively related to PL, LMX, and job satisfaction in the family-owned sample, while the MNC sample showed positive relationships with education and all 5 study variables (PL, organizational collectivism, LMX, job satisfaction and OCBs). Organizational collectivism was found to have a moderating effect on the relationships between LMX and job satisfaction and job satisfaction and OCBs in the multinational sample, while no effect was found in the family-owned sample. For the LMX -- job satisfaction relationship, at low levels of LMX, organizational collectivism has no effect on job satisfaction, while when LMX was high, greater organizational collectivism was associated with greater job satisfaction.

For the job satisfaction -- OCB relationship, at low levels of job satisfaction, the organizational level of collectivism greatly influenced OCB frequency (higher collectivism was associated with higher OCBs), while little difference was evident when job satisfaction was high. The implications of these findings for both theory and future research are discussed.

Chapter 1: Introduction

The Impact of Paternalism and Organizational Collectivism in Multinational and Family-owned Firms in Turkey

This study investigated the effects of the cultural values of paternalism, (measured as employees' perceptions of their supervisors' paternalistic leadership behaviors) and collectivism, (measured as employees' perceptions of their organizations' collectivism level): and their effects upon employee leader member exchange (LMX), job satisfaction, and organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs); as well as the effects of organizational collectivism upon the relationships between leader-member-exchange and job satisfaction, and job satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors; in both family-owned and multinational companies in Turkey. The major aim of the current study was to examine how company or organizational ownership type affects the especially salient constructs of paternalistic leadership and organizational collectivism in the Turkish workplace, and their resulting effects on the workplace outcomes of employee LMX, job satisfaction and OCBs.

In international research on organizational behavior, a wide range of definitions have been used for the term "culture" (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007). While definitions of culture vary, most common definitions emphasize it to be (or have been): adaptive at some point, and to have been shared and transmitted across time and generations (Triandis, 1994). Although culture operates across multiple levels of analysis, this study is concerned with cultural and organizational characteristics as they relate to individuals'

behavior within their organizations. In leadership research, such as the GLOBE leadership research project, culture has been theoretically defined as:

“...shared motives, values, beliefs, identities, and interpretations or meanings of significant events that result from common experiences of members of collectives and are transmitted across age generations.” (pg. 5: House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002).

As national economies become further interdependent in today's global business reality, research in cross cultural organizational psychology had grown in popularity, spurred on by the need for in depth understanding of unique cultural environments within businesses; witness the recent 62 society GLOBE Leadership style study, (House, Hanges, Javidan, Dorfman, & Gupta., 2004). While Asia has been the focus of much cross-cultural research in the last two decades; industrial and organizational psychology research and human resource management (HRM) practices in Turkey came into the spotlight in the late 1990's, and are now being examined in depth, (Aycan, 2006, Gelfand et al., 2007, Pelegrini & Scandura, 2008). Turkey is a nation of approximately 70 million people, and its economy was ranked 17th out of 181 nations by the International Monetary Fund in 2006, with a Gross Domestic Product of 508,000 million \$US. The country sits literally and figuratively at the border between East and West in many respects; and experiences constant tension and change regarding the dual values of religion (Islam) and secularism, tradition and modernity, urban and rural, and the desire for Westernization, (Mango, 2006; Aycan, 2001). Turkey is working on becoming eligible to join the European Union (Aycan, 2001).

The modern Turkish republic was founded after World War I, by Mustafa Kemal Ataturk; who brought about huge social, political, and economic reforms. These new principles of secularism, nationalism and modernization focused on bringing

Westernization to all facets of life; causing the nation and culture of Turkey to undergo a remarkable amount of political, economic, and sociocultural change in the last 80 years, and especially the last 30 (Mango, 2006). The nation of Turkey is not a homogenous entity; great differences in business practices exist across business sector, industry, ownership (private family-owned vs. public company), and firm size (Aycan, 2001; Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002).

Turkey has unique cultural and organizational practices. Turkish organizations can be characterized by centralized decision making, steep organizational hierarchies, highly personalized relationships, strong leadership and limited delegation (Pasa, 2000; House, Hanges Javidan, Dorfman & Gupta, 2004). Turkey has been found to be very high on paternalism, both as a cultural characteristic and a style of leadership (Aycan, Kanungo, Mendoca, Yu, Deller, Stahl, & Kurshid, 2000; Aycan, 2006).

The Turkish workplace is ranked very high (relative to other cultures) on within-group collectivism practices (5th), and high on power distance (10th), according to the GLOBE study of 62 societies (House et al., 2004). (In contrast, the U.S. ranked 51st and 48th respectively.) In a recent review of cross cultural organizational behavior, Gelfand, Erez and Aycan emphasize that the cultural characteristics of paternalism, collectivism and power distance are commonly associated, (2007).

Paternalistic leadership can be considered a style of leadership where a manager guides or controls subordinates in a fatherly manner for their own good, and is involved in his/her employees' professional and personal lives. Subordinates are given resources and protection from outgroup criticism, which, they can only return through loyalty to their supervisor and his/her in-group, hard work and deference to the supervisor (Pasa,

Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001; Aycan, 2006; Gelfand et al., 2007; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Paternalistic leadership practices are common in cultures with high levels of power distance. A more thorough explanation of the literature will follow.

Collectivism can be described as defining the self primarily in terms of relation to social groups and placing the goals of one's social and/or familial groups above one's individual goals. In individualism, the self is considered the primary unit of relating to others, and individual goals take precedence over groups goals (Triandis, 1995). In collectivistic societies, group harmony is more important than the expression of personal opinions, and in-group vs. outgroup distinctions are more salient. Fulfilling one's duties and obligations within the social hierarchy is emphasized, (Gelfand, Bhawuk, Nishi & Bechtold, 2004). A more thorough explanation will follow.

Power distance is, broadly speaking, the extent to which a community accepts and endorses authority, power differences, and status privileges. In high power distance contexts, society and organizations have steeper hierarchies with substantial differences in power between individuals and groups, (Carl, Gupta & Javidan, 2004). Large power and status differences between subordinates and superiors are generally accepted as part of society. In communication with the organization, subordinates do not typically offer feedback to managers, nor criticize them; and in disputing, or situations of conflict, subordinates defer to superiors or utilize more indirect methods of communication, (Aycan, 2001, Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998). In the GLOBE 2004 organizational leadership study, participating countries were placed in to clusters by similarity of responses; out of all ten clusters of countries, the Middle Eastern cluster of nations,

(Morocco, Qatar, Kuwait, Turkey and Egypt) reported the highest levels of power distance as a region (House et al., 2004).

Turkish society and culture is a blend of “Western” and “Eastern” values. Drawing from a 2001 review of human resource management procedures, there was a great deal of variation between HRM practices utilized by different organizations (Aycan, 2001). Some organizations follow more current trends in HRM practices (e.g.: job enrichment, empowering supervision, and more objective, or bi-directional performance appraisal), yet may experience difficulties in implementing these strategies due to some of the emic characteristics of both the societal and organizational cultures (such as paternalism, collectivism and power distance). Multinational organizations, larger organizations, as well as those in sectors which have more contact with international business, such as finance and IT were likely to use more traditional Western HRM practices. This contrasts with smaller, privately owned businesses, which typically had far more traditional management practices (Aycan, 2001). In these contexts recruitment reflects collectivistic values and is more likely to be informal and come from employee or management contacts, vs. an open call for interviews or standardized testing. It is difficult to get objective performance appraisals in Turkish organizations. Few organizations report performing appraisals on competencies and behavior; and those who do, often use non-standard measures (in many cases each organization, department, or manager will have their own system). Due to the high level of power distance, performance appraisal is often one way, with subordinates being evaluated by their supervisors, only. As far as compensation and rewards, performance contingencies do exist for some white collar employees, although pay increases are usually tied to

seniority, or possibly to familial situation (another reflection of paternalism in the society). Extrinsic rewards such as bonuses and salary increases are preferred over intrinsic rewards such as “Employee of the Month” awards (Aycan, 2001).

According to a 2007 review of cross cultural organizational behavior, (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan), these reported organizational differences within a national culture provide impetus for examining organizational behavior not just across countries or at the strictly individual-level, and the authors urge for more research at the organization, work unit, team and dyad level, (with appropriate constructs and explicit definitions of the level(s) of analysis). In support of this point, they also note that situational factors such as industry sector, ownership, educational systems or demographic characteristics exert powerful effects within cultures which may affect existing cultural tendencies. They also suggest that organization level factors such as industry, size or ownership type as prime targets for further research, (Gelfand, Erez & Aycan, 2007).

Therefore this study investigated the differences between family-owned companies and multinational corporations, on two constructs that make the Turkish workplace unique: paternalistic leader behavior and organizational collectivism. Their differential effects on the relationships between LMX and job satisfaction, and job satisfaction and OCB were examined.

Paternalism

Paternalism (in the form of paternalistic leadership) is one of the most salient cultural characteristics of Pacific Asian cultures such as those in China, Japan, Korea, Taiwan, and India (Dorfman & Howell, 1988, Aycan, 2006). As a leadership style, it is

also prevalent in countries of the Middle-East (Ali, 1993; Aycan, et al., 2000; Ayman & Chemers, 1991) and Latin America (Osland, Franco, & Osland, 1999). Recent reviews of the construct, note that paternalism is seen by both employees and managers, as an effective leadership style in cultures in: Japan, China, Taiwan, Malaysia, India and Turkey (Gelfand et al., 2007; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Paternalism is a very strong cultural value in Turkey. In 2000, a ten nation study examined the level of paternalistic leadership behavior, and found of the ten countries: India, Turkey, China and Pakistan ranked the highest, with Russia, Romania, the US and Canada placed in the middle, and Germany and Israel lowest (Aycan et al., 2000).

To illustrate the cultural phenomenon of paternalism: the traditional values of familism and patriarchal/patrilineal relationships within the family are extended beyond family boundaries and are applied to vertical authority relationships based on seniority in the workplace and in society at large (Aycan, 2006). In highly paternalistic cultures the values of paternalism affect every aspect of social relations; not only those at work (Aycan, 2001). Two central points of a paternalistic work relationship that have emerged in the literature are: managers take a personal interest in workers' off-the-job lives and try to promote worker's personal welfare (Pasa et al., 2001; Gelfand et al, 2007; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In paternalistic cultures, individuals in authority consider it an obligation to provide protection to those under their care, and in exchange expect loyalty and deference (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Subordinates accept their position in the power hierarchy and show loyalty out of respect and appreciation for the leader's benevolence.

While paternalism (as a construct) may overlap with other supervisory behavior styles, Aycan distinguished paternalistic leadership among the following four approaches of leadership: benevolent paternalism, exploitive paternalism, the authoritative approach, and the authoritarian approach (2006).

Benevolent and exploitive paternalism can be distinguished by the intent of the leader. In both cases, the leader's overt behavior is of care and nurturance. In benevolent paternalism, leaders show care and nurturance to employees out of a genuine concern for employee welfare; and employees show deference and loyalty out of respect and appreciation for the employer's care and protection (Aycan, 2006). Most research on paternalism as a leadership style, as well as this study, focus on the construct of benevolent paternalism. However, in the case of exploitive paternalism: care and nurturance is only provided to elicit employee compliance. All benefits for employees are contingent upon fulfilling the manager's organizational objectives. Here employees show loyalty to keep privileges (such as access to critical resources controlled by the manager).

Authoritative and authoritarian leadership behaviors can also be distinguished by the intent of the leader (Aycan, 2006, Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Both approaches share the behavior of 'control', but in the case of the authoritarian approach; management uses rewards and punishments to make employees comply. Here, subordinates show compliance to receive rewards or avoid punishments (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In contrast the authoritative manager exercises control over subordinates, but the underlying intent is to promote subordinates' general welfare or further develop their skills (i.e. benevolence) (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In this case, employees feel rules are there

for their benefit, respect the leader and comply willingly (Aycan, 2006). In the validation study, Aycan's measure of benevolent paternalistic leadership behavior was positively associated with a measure of authoritative leadership (convergent validity), and negatively associated with authoritarian leadership and exploitive paternalism measures (discriminant validity) (2006).

Since 2000, research on paternalism as a leadership style has progressed to where five measures have evolved (Mather, Aycan, & Kanungo, 1996; Aycan et al., 2000; Cheng, Chou & Farh, 2000; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Aycan, 2006). The most recent, by Aycan (2006) has 21 items under five dimensions: Family atmosphere at work, Individualized relationships, Involvement in employees' non-work lives, Loyalty expectation, and Status hierarchy and authority. As a system of cultural values, numerous studies have shown paternalism to be associated with and to flourish alongside the cultural values or dimensions of high power distance and high cultural collectivism (House et al., 2004; Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Paternalistic Leadership and Power Distance

Paternalism is endorsed in hierarchical societies, or those with high power distance (Aycan, 2006; Gelfand et al., 2007, and Hofstede & Hofstede, 2005). A leader's status is ascribed by virtue of his/her position, age and experience. In societies with high power distance and high paternalism, the workplace relationship is based on the assumption of a power inequality between a leader and his/her subordinates (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008), and this inequality in the distribution of power is generally approved and not resented. In this dynamic, the leader has the power to determine subordinate

wants and needs in the workplace, and to provide benefits; which subordinates can only reciprocate through their loyalty and deference (Aycan, 2006). In situations like this (high paternalism and high power distance), subordinates expect their leaders to promote patronage relationships (Kabasakal & Bodur, 1998).

Paternalistic Leadership and Collectivism

Paternalism is also endorsed in highly collectivistic cultures (Gelfand et al., 2007; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). To underscore their association and common co-occurrence; in both Turkey and China, paternalistic leader behavior in the workplace is associated with the collectivist cultural values of higher conformity, greater interdependence and greater responsibility-taking towards others (especially within one's in-group) (Ho & Chiu 1994; Aycan, 2006). In contrast, the individualistic values of autonomy, self-reliance and self-determination were negatively associated with paternalism. Here again, a paternalistic leader's involvement in employees' personal lives is desired and expected, versus possibly being seen as a violation of privacy in less collectivistic cultures (Aycan, 2006). In cultures high on collectivism and paternalism, when workplace situations arise where there is in-group conflict, (conflict within a leader's group of subordinates) the leader will step in as a mediator to restore group harmony. His/her decision will be considered final, and the dispute ended (Aycan, 2006).

Paternalism and Organizational Context

The current Turkish business context contains high power distance and collectivistic values (Aycan et al., 2000; Aycan, 2001 & 2006; House et al., 2004).

Here it is argued that paternalistic leadership may function as a particularly appropriate management strategy (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006 & 2008). Since collectivists place great value on maintaining relationships and emphasize obligation and loyalty, the importance of obligation and loyalty in a personal exchange relationship fits well with the dynamics of paternalistic relationships.

Another salient factor in Turkey is traditionalism, which often differs according to organizational context, (Fischer et. al, 2005; Gelfand et al., 2007). Traditionalism coincides with a stronger emphasis on the value of familism (similar to paternalism) where relationships within the family unit are extended to other domains, and the author believes this will be more evident in family-owned firms, (Aycan, 2001, Mango, 2006). Modifiers of traditionalism within a culture include: industry, sector, ownership, educational systems and demographic characteristics, (Gelfand et al., 2007). Research in the Turkish workplace has found multinational organizations, larger organizations, as well as those in sectors that have more contact with international business, such as finance and IT were more likely to use more traditional Western HRM practices, and display less traditionalism. Differing preferences by demographic characteristics have also been documented; a cohort effect has been observed in the Turkish workplace, where the younger, more educated generation tended to display and prefer more Western and individualistic values and supervision in the workplace (Aycan, 2001; Fikret-Pasa, 2000). Additional support came from a 2005 methodological review of levels of analysis in cross cultural organizational research, which stated: “The effect of national culture on organizational practices will be stronger for indigenous organizations compared with multinational organizations”, (Fischer, Redford, Ferreira, Harb and Leal-Assmar, 2005).

Therefore, paternalistic leadership behavior is expected to be stronger and more evident in the workplace of (Turkish) family-owned companies, as compared to multinational corporations (MNCs) operating in Turkey. MNCs will show a lower level of paternalistic leadership behavior.

Hypothesis 1: Multinational corporations (MNCs) are expected to have a lower mean level of paternalistic leadership behavior than family-owned companies.

Collectivism

Individualism and collectivism have been characterized as “cultural syndromes”, or cognitive structures that help one organize or interpret the world by focusing attention on certain patterns or themes in the subjective elements of the environment, such as values, norms, beliefs, and assumptions (Robert & Wasti, 2002).

According to Triandis (1995), individualism is the tendency to treat the self as the most meaningful social unit, and individualistic societies stress the development and differentiation of a unique personality and identity, autonomy, and the primacy of personal goals and needs. In contrast, the most meaningful social units in collectivist societies are the groups to which people belong, such as the family, neighborhood, or workplace, and one’s identity, is defined by membership in these groups. In collectivistic societies, the impact of group membership on self-definition results in a desire to maintain in-group harmony, and a tendency to subordinate personal preferences and priorities to those of the group (Gelfand, Bhuvak, Nishi, & Bechtold, 2004). While individualism and collectivism were originally conceptualized as opposite ends of a unidimensional continuum by Hofstede in 1980, more recent work of Triandis (1995) has suggested that the syndromes of individualism and collectivism are independent or

discrete dimensions, and that both can co-exist in all individuals (Triandis, 1995) as well as societies (Schwartz, 1994).

Turkey is considered to be a moderately to highly collectivistic culture, with especially high in-group and family collectivism (Goregenli, 1997); ranking 5th in the GLOBE 2002 findings, (contrasting sharply with the US rank of 51st of 62), (House et al., 2004). Feelings of belongingness to, and efforts or sacrifices for, the in-group are a large part of one's identity in such a culture. Employees have strong feelings of belonging to their supervisor's group and work accordingly, with high in-group loyalty. Collectivist individuals may also support the belief that positive outcomes result from collective efforts and not only individual efforts (Niles, 1998).

In cross-cultural psychology the constructs of individualism and collectivism have been evaluated at both the cultural level and the individual level, and most recently, at the organization level as well. While collectivism at the cultural level has been described above; at the individual level of analysis, individualism and collectivism have been measured and conceptualized as individual difference variables (Triandis, Bontempo, Villareal, Asai & Lucca, 1988), and are referred to as idiocentrism and allocentrism, respectively. Idiocentrism is characterized by adherence to notions such as independence, uniqueness, and self-reliance; while allocentrism is suggestive of interdependence, belongingness to in-groups, and compliance with the wishes of the in-group (Robert & Wasti, 2002).

Collectivism at the Organizational Level

The continuing importance of organizational culture “can be attested to by its growing body of literature and its effects on employee behavior, above and beyond individual difference or personality variables” (Robert & Wasti, 2002). In Fischer and colleagues’ 2005 examination of influences across levels of culture, they argue that national culture should not be considered as a homogenous entity, (Fischer et al., 2005). This is supported by Schein’s explanation of subcultures at the level of the organization, (Schein, 1990). Organizational culture has been (broadly) defined as: "what a group learns over a period of time" and specifically what is "taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think and feel" in given situations and in response to existing problems or issues, (Schein, 1990). On a basic level, Schein posits the existence of subcultures among groups from a broader culture: “any definable group with a shared history can have a culture and within an organization there can therefore be many subcultures”, and that these subcultures/subgroups can differ widely. “It is perfectly possible for coexisting units of a larger system to have cultures that are independent and even in conflict with each other”, (Schein, 1990).

Further rationale for examining individualism-collectivism at the organizational level comes from the Gelfand et al., 2007 review of cross-cultural organizational behavior, where the authors urge for greater refinement in the level of analysis for all variables applied cross culturally, and lament the bias of individual level observations being entrenched at both the level of theory and measurement. As well as, the trend of existing research to apply individual-level theory to the cultural-level, and vice versa.

They encourage future research to examine cultural differences at the dyad, team, and work unit level, *such as the organization* (emphasis added), (Gelfand et al., 2007).

Existing research on Turkish organizations points to higher organizational collectivism being associated with HR practices that emphasize more collectivistic values, such as strong interpersonal relationships, informal hiring practices, greater loyalty to the group, in-group members and to seniority. All of which are less formalized and more difficult to measure than more formalized Western HR management practices which are said to be constructed from a “rational” basis, (Aycan, 2001). Organizations displaying high organizational individualism would be more likely to use formalized HR practices, participatory decision making, merit based pay and promotion, a Management By Objective (MBO) system, formal job evaluation and the use of educational information and structured interviews (Aycan, 2001; Robert & Wasti, 2002).

To the best of this author’s knowledge, while many studies such as the GLOBE describe both constructs no literature could be found which specifically examined the level of organizational collectivism in conjunction with paternalistic leadership behavior, (Gelfand et al., 2007; House et al. 2002; and Robert & Wasti, 2002). Since paternalistic leadership behavior is associated with collectivistic cultural values (Aycan, 2006), and was considered part of the HR practices of collectivistic organizations (or those with HR practices conducive to organizational collectivism), (Robert & Wasti, 2002) the two can be expected to be positively associated.

Hypothesis 2: Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with organizational collectivism.

As was the case with paternalistic leadership behavior (Aycan, 2001; Fikret-Pasa, 2000), organizational collectivism is expected to be stronger and more evident in the workplace of (Turkish) family-owned companies, (which were considered to have higher levels of traditional values as compared to multinational corporations operating in Turkey. Therefore MNCs are expected to show a lower level of organizational collectivism. This echoes Fischer and colleagues, “The effect of national culture on organizational practices will be stronger for indigenous organizations compared with multinational organizations”, (Fischer et al., 2005)

Hypothesis 3: Multinational corporations (MNCs) are expected to have a lower mean level of organizational collectivism than family-owned companies.

Leader-Member Exchange

The leadership theory of leader-member-exchange (LMX) examines leaders' influence through the dyadic relationships between leaders and each of their subordinates, and assesses the quality of the supervisor-subordinate relationship, (Dansereau, Graen, & Haga, 1975; Ilies, Nahrgang & Morgeson, 2007). LMX draws on social exchange theory, with its norms of reciprocity; and posits that leaders develop different types of exchange relationships with their followers and that the quality of these relationships affects important leader and member attitudes and behaviors (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Ilies et al., 2007). Research has demonstrated LMX to have a significant influence on outcomes such as task performance, job satisfaction, organizational commitment, (especially commitment to the supervisor) as well as the extent to which workers go beyond their employment contract, (organizational citizenship behaviors, or OCBs), (Gerstner & Day, 1997). While nearly all research on this construct has been in a “Western” context, the

same relationship between job satisfaction and LMX, has been observed in Turkish samples (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006, 2008). In the Pellegrini & Scandura 2006 study, within a Turkish sample, LMX and job satisfaction were significantly associated ($r = .39, p < 0.01$). Therefore an association was expected for this study.

Hypothesis 4: Employee LMX will be positively associated with employee job satisfaction.

The construct of paternalistic leadership overlaps somewhat with LMX; both cover the dyadic relationship between supervisor and employees and affect employee job outcomes such as job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In both paternalistic leader behavior and LMX, employees with better supervisor-subordinate relationships may report more positive work outcomes such as job satisfaction. In the case of paternalistic leadership the leader often does not treat all subordinates the same, but categorizes them in to in-group and out-group members, with in-group members benefitting more from the leader's patronage (Cheng, 1995; Gelfand et al., 2007; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Paternalistic leadership as a construct is also believed to differ from LMX in that the exercise of paternalistic leadership is more personal in nature, higher in emotional affectivity, less transactional, and to stretch beyond the workplace. With the leader acting in a more senior, parental role; making decisions as to what is best for their subordinates, and working to create a family atmosphere at work (Aycan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

In Pellegrini & Scandura (2006), paternalistic leadership behavior and LMX were found to be highly correlated ($r = 0.59, p < 0.01$). Therefore an association was expected for this study.

Hypothesis 5: Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with employee leader member exchange (LMX).

Job Satisfaction

As shown by existing studies of the Turkish work context, paternalistic leadership has a positive impact upon job satisfaction in more collectivistic and high power distance cultures, (Aycaan et al., 2000; Aycaan, 2006; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006; Gelfand et al., 2007). In the Pellegrini & Scandura 2006 study, paternalistic leadership and job satisfaction were significantly associated ($r = .39, p < 0.01$). Therefore an association was expected for this study.

Hypothesis 6: Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with employee job satisfaction.

In general, job satisfaction research reveals employees in Western and in capitalistic-developed cultures to score slightly higher on job satisfaction measures than those in Eastern cultures and in socialist developing cultures (Gelfand et al., 2007). While the meaning of job satisfaction is considered consistent across countries with the same language and cultural backgrounds, the farther away from a common language and culture background, the greater the differences in the construct's meaning (Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller & Ilies, 2001). To illustrate: one measure of job satisfaction, the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which is composed of nine facets (Pay, Promotion, Benefits, Contingent rewards, Supervision, Co-workers, Operating procedures, Nature of work,

and Communication), was found to have different factor structures in American and Singaporean employee samples (Spector , 1985; Spector & Wimalasir, 1986). When the data were forced in to a parsimonious four factor solution, the facet items loaded very differently for the US and Singaporean samples; with the Singaporean sample diverging most from the US sample for the facets of: Nature of the work itself, Coworkers, Communication, and Operating procedures (Spector & Wimalasir, 1986).

Which job characteristics (intrinsic or extrinsic) contribute to satisfaction, also vary by culture, with intrinsic factors being less generalizable. In a 49 country study, extrinsic job characteristics such as pay were strongly and positively related to job satisfaction in all nations, while intrinsic job characteristics such as satisfaction with the work itself, tended to produce motivating satisfaction *only* in wealthier countries with good governmental social welfare programs, and low collectivist and power distance values (Huang & Van de Vliert, 2003). Huang & Van de Vliert also found intrinsic job characteristics to have a weaker association with job satisfaction in countries which were poorer (with little or no governmental social welfare programs) and had higher collectivist and high power distance values.

In the Turkish context, a workplace with high paternalism and in-group collectivism, intrinsic job characteristics (such as satisfaction with the work itself) have largely been found to be less influential than extrinsic factors such as pay, promotion, and working environment (Aycan, 2001; Bodur, 2002; Aycan & Fikret-Pasa, 2003). The influence of pay on job satisfaction was also documented in a 1998 study of Turkish workers across professions and job levels; which found pay to be the best overall predictor of job satisfaction, with age, sex (being male), number of children and

seniority/tenure also positively associated with job satisfaction (Bilgic, 1998). Employee marital status was found to have no relation, (Bilgic, 1998).

Job level was found to be related to job satisfaction in individualistic cultures, but not as strongly in collectivistic cultures (Huang & Van de Vliert 2003). Research has also found culture to moderate the impact of job satisfaction on withdrawal behaviors (the opposite of OCBs); with a stronger relationship existing in more individualistic cultures, and in cultures with low-power distance (Gelfand et al., 2007).

In some cases in the Turkish context, job level is associated with satisfaction, but initial (small) studies reveal inconsistencies. A study comparing university academic (faculty and graduate level) employees to administrative employees (staff-job level); found academic employees to have significantly higher overall satisfaction, and specifically satisfaction with the job content (an intrinsic factor); while administrative employees scored higher on satisfaction with colleagues, other work groups, and the work environment (Kusku, 2003). In contrast, a study of Turkish healthcare workers across 21 health centers, used the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), and found income and working environment to be the most important predictors of job satisfaction; with no consistent relationship between job level (midwife, health technician, nurse, general practitioner) and satisfaction (Bodur, 2002).

An emerging influence on job satisfaction, was that of a large generational cohort effect, (Nichols, Sugar & Tasiran, 2003). This study involved manufacturing employees within three very large Turkish manufacturing firms (N = 356), situated in or adjacent to the urban area known as the "Izmit Triangle" (Nichols et al., 2003). Even after controlling for seniority and job level, younger manufacturing employees were found to

have significantly lower satisfaction when compared to their older counterparts, with regards to: overall job satisfaction, pay, physical conditions, the range of job tasks and their perceived influence at work. These younger manufacturing employees were demographically different in that they were more educated (more likely to have a high school education) and more urban, (more likely to have been born in a city) than older cohorts. They were less likely to endorse the item “I strongly support the company” and more likely to endorse “I keep my ideas to myself”; possibly signaling generational differences in career expectations (Nichols et al., 2003).

Organizational collectivism has been related to job satisfaction for allocentric employees, in the Turkish workplace (Robert & Wasti, 2002). Work group characteristics have been found to similarly affect allocentric employees in China (Hui & Yee, 1999). Here allocentrics experienced higher job satisfaction in a warm and congenial work group, while the same conditions were associated with lower satisfaction, for highly idiocentric employees (Hui & Yee, 1999). Finally, a large 2002 study of government and university employees in Turkey (N = 916), linked job satisfaction to organizational collectivism, ($r = .39, p < .01$), (Wasti, 2002).

A last example of how greatly managers’ collectivism, paternalism, and resulting employee hiring practices in Turkey may all jointly affect employee job satisfaction (or how employee-organizational “fit” can evolve): in a study of 217 entrepreneurs with 1,140 employees; Yetim & Yetim found entrepreneurs’ (managers) orientations on paternalism, collectivism and power distance to significantly predict their employees’ job satisfaction. These authors hypothesized this situation evolved as managers selected employees whose cultural backgrounds and expectations were congruent with their own

cultural orientations; and employees were further shaped by the organizational socialization process (Yetim & Yetim, 2006).

With collectivism being so strongly tied to job satisfaction in the context of a highly paternalistic workplace, organizational collectivism is expected to act as a moderator of the relationship between employee reported LMX and employee job satisfaction.

Hypothesis 7: Organizational collectivism will moderate the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction. The relationship at high levels of organizational collectivism, will differ than that found at low levels of organizational collectivism.

Organization Citizenship Behaviors

Conceptions of what constitutes extra role (or citizenship) behavior, can vary across cultures, within a culture, across industries and organizations, and within an organization (Vey & Campbell, 2004). Organ's theory of five categories of OCBs: altruism, conscientiousness, civic virtue, courtesy, and sportsmanship, has primarily been validated in Western nations (Organ, 1988). Research has questioned the factor validity of the OCB construct outside the US. Samples in the non-Western countries of Japan and Hong Kong, considered some behaviors in the OCB dimensions of courtesy and sportsmanship to be part of an employee's "in-role" performance (Lam, Chun & Law, 1999). Similar results have been obtained in Taiwan (Farh, Earley & Lin, 1997), but include additional 'emic' dimensions not identified in the West, such as interpersonal harmony and protecting company resources. Even in the US, some behaviors under the dimensions of conscientiousness and courtesy are often considered in role (Vey and Campbell, 2004).

Job Satisfaction and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

In a 2001 cross cultural review of job satisfaction, Judge and colleagues argued there was evidence for a significant (and relevant) relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs outside Western nations, as well as in the U. S. (Judge et al., 2001). A large 2002, Turkish study (N = 916), found the two to be related, ($r = .26, p < .01$), (Wasti, 2002). And in a 2007 U.S. meta-analytic study, all five dimensions of OCBs (as defined in Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman & Fetter, 1990), were found to be related to job satisfaction: between $r = .19$ and $r = .23$, (Hoffman, Blair, Meriac & Woehr, 2007). However, a recent U.S. investigation of OCBs and counterproductive work behavior (CWB) found no significant relationship between overall job satisfaction and frequency of OCBs, (Spector, Bauer & Fox, 2010). Even though the association between OCBs and job satisfaction varies by context; per Wasti's 2002 study, an association was evident in a Turkish sample, therefore in this study a significant association is expected.

Hypothesis 8: Job satisfaction will be positively associated with employee organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Collectivism and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

In a U.S. sample, Moorman and Blakeley (1995) found a positive association between allocentrism, or collectivistic values, and OCBs. The relationship was significant even after removing effects of common method variance and procedural justice. They suggest OCBs may be a way in which collectivistic employees show concern (Moorman & Blakeley, 1995). Collectivist norms and values have been related to the following aspects of organizational citizenship behavior in the U.S.: interpersonal helping, individual initiative, and loyal boosterism (Moorman & Blakeley, 1995).

Outside the U.S., a 2006 study of Israeli hospital nurses and their superiors, also found a link between collectivism and OCBs, with collectivist employees performing OCBs more frequently than their more individualistic counterparts (Cohen & Avrahami, 2006). Additionally, a 2007 study involving high school teachers found allocentrism to be positively related to the organizational citizenship behavior facets of civic virtue and altruism across five different subcultures within Israel (Arabs, Druze, orthodox Jews, secular Jews, and kibbutz teachers), (Cohen, 2007). Finally in Turkey, organizational collectivism was related to OCBs in a sample of government and university employees, (N = 916, $r = .29$, $p < .01$), (Wasti (2002).

Hypothesis 9: Organizational collectivism will be positively associated with OCBs.

Paternalism and Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

A study of over 1,000 academicians from public universities within Turkey, found trust in one's supervisor to mediate the relationship between organizational justice and citizenship behaviors (OCBs). High trust in one's supervisor could be considered evidence of a good, or benevolent paternalistic leader-subordinate relationship (Erturk, 2007). Also, the loyalty expectation of a paternalistic leader, at face value, shares aspects with the expectation of civic virtue, courtesy, and conscientiousness from employees: all of which are facets of OCBs.

Fischer and colleagues, (2005) proposed that both paternalism (or PL) and collectivism, with their emphasis on personalized relationships and interdependence with others, are expected to lead to higher levels of general support and specifically, helping behaviors. And finally, research in Asian contexts found an association between

paternalism and citizenship behaviors, (Cheng, Shieh, & Chou, 2002). While in this case it should be noted that the factor structures of paternalism and citizenship behaviors in the Chinese sample may differ from other contexts (the U.S. or Turkey); aspects of paternalistic leadership were significantly associated with citizenship behaviors, (Cheng et al., 2002). Therefore paternalistic leader behavior (PL) and organizational collectivism are both expected to be associated with OCBs in the current study.

Hypothesis 10: Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with OCBs.

Just as organizational collectivism is expected to affect the relationship between LMX and job satisfaction (Hypothesis 7), it is also expected to similarly moderate the relationship between employee job satisfaction and employee reported organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).

Hypothesis 11: Organizational collectivism will moderate the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs. The relationship at high levels of organizational collectivism, will differ than that found at low levels of organizational collectivism.

Chapter 2: Method

Participants

Data for this study was collected from multiple family-owned and multinational firms operating in urban areas of Turkey. Organizational ownership type was the primary level of analysis. A total of 332 completed surveys were obtained from participating organizations. The final family-owned sample consisted of 154 participants while the multinational sample had 159 participants, for a total sample of $N = 313$.

Participants completed the survey at their workplace in a private place of their choosing, and to maintain confidentiality, sealed their surveys in an envelope before dropping them in to a workplace collection box. A separate envelope was provided for their signed consent forms, which they included in their sealed survey packet. After checking that each survey had a signed consent form, the research team ensured that the consent documentation was kept separately from the survey data, to maintain anonymity.

While company ownership type was clearly noted by the research team, we were unable to gather information on employee job level, organizational industry or sector or company size.

Measures

Paternalistic Leadership

Developed by Ayca, (2006), to measure (benevolent) paternalism as a unique leadership style, this 21 item (five factor) scale was used to measure employees' reports of their supervisor's paternalistic leadership behavior. The five factors consist of: family atmosphere at work, individualized relationships, involvement in employees' non-work lives, loyalty expectation, and status hierarchy and authority. In the current study the coefficient alpha for this scale was .91 for the entire sample (both organization types, N = 313). Items are on a five-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 5 (*strongly agree*). All scales are listed in the Appendix.

Organizational Collectivism Culture

This study used the seven item organizational collectivism measure developed by Robert and Wasti (2002) as part of their Organizational Culture Scale. This measure was developed for use in Turkey and employed the authors' translation. The authors examined both organizational HR practices and employees' shared perceptions of their organization's HR practices. At the organizational level, HR practices are often associated with an underlying set of assumptions and values that could be used to form part of an organization's culture, (Robert & Wasti, 2002). This measure assess employees' perceptions of their organization's level of collectivism or collectivistic practices. In developing this measure, analyses revealed two sufficiently distinct factors of organizational individualism and collectivism (Robert & Wasti, 2002).

Characteristics of the two subscales include paternal caretaking of employees, a focus on group work outcomes and, the sense of a shared group fate (organizational collectivism); versus an emphasis on independent thinking and contributions, increased approval for competition as well as recognition and reward for individual merit (organizational individualism).

In the current study the coefficient alpha for this seven item organizational collectivism subscale was .88 for the entire sample (both organization types). Items are on a seven-point, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*strongly disagree*) to 7 (*strongly agree*).

Leader-Member Exchange

The LMX-7 (7 item) measure by Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, (1982) and Graen & Uhl-Bien, (1995) was used. The measure was translated in to Turkish by a bilingual graduate student, then back translated by another bilingual graduate student, (both native Turkish speakers). In the current study the 7 item version has a coefficient alpha of .84 for the entire sample. Items are on a five-point, Likert-type measuring agreement, from *strongly disagree* to *strongly agree*.

Job Satisfaction

Two measures were initially proposed for use. The nine facet, 36 item Job Satisfaction Scale by Spector (1985), and the three item excerpt from Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, (1982). Both measures were translated in to Turkish by a bilingual graduate student, and then back translated by another bilingual graduate student, (both

native Turkish speakers). The short three item measure was found to have poorer reliability (coefficient alpha of .67 in the final sample, versus .89 for the JSS), and was more weakly related to other variables of interest. It was dropped from further analyses as the author felt that the multifaceted JSS captured more of the content domain of job satisfaction, and was more relevant for the study's cross cultural purpose. The JSS has been extensively validated in the U.S. and in the current study the coefficient alpha for the total scale was .89 for the entire sample. Items are on a six-point forced choice, Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (*Disagree very much*) to 6 (*Agree very much*).

One of the subscales of the 36 item JSS scale, that of "Operating Conditions" was found to have very low (less than +/- .10), item-total correlations. Its items referred to administrative duties or burdens and included: "Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult", "I have too much paperwork", "I have too much to do at work", and "My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape". It was removed from all calculations and the revised JSS measure contained eight subscales. Also one item on the Pay subscale displayed an item-total correlation below .10; "Raises are too few and far between". It was removed from calculations.

Cronbach reliability indices varied by subscale and sample (family-owned or multinational). The current study's values are compared to Spector's 1985 validation sample in Table 1. In the current study, reliability values for the family-owned sample were higher for every subscale except Nature of Work, and with the exceptions of the Nature of Work and Communication subscales, the difference was approximately .20; (Ex: the Coefficient alpha for the Contingent Rewards subscale was .75 in the family-

owned sample, yet only .49 in the multinational sample). Indicating overall, a more diverse pattern of responses from employees in multinational organizations.

Table 1. *JSS Reliabilities by Subscale and Sample Type*

	Whole Sample	Family-owned	Multinational Owned	1985 US Sample
Pay	.50	.60	.47	.75
Promotion	.53	.64	.40	.73
Supervision	.68	.77	.52	.82
Benefits	.56	.71	.34	.73
Contingent Reward	.66	.75	.49	.76
Coworkers	.62	.72	.52	.60
Nature of Work	.75	.73	.75	.78
Communication	.56	.59	.55	.71
Total	.89	.92	.84	.91
	N = 313	N = 154	N = 159	N = 2,780

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

OCBs were measured with a behavioral frequency checklist developed by Spector, Fox, Goh & Bruursema, (2003). The 42 item scale was reviewed by translation experts and additional colleagues in Turkey. Three items were removed as they were judged to be irrelevant (“On your present job, how often have you bought Girl Scout cookies from a coworker?”) or not appropriate (simply not done) in the Turkish workplace (“How often have you given a written or verbal recommendation for a coworker?”, and “How often have you recruited people for your organization?”). The remaining 39 items were translated using the same process mentioned above. In the current study the coefficient alpha for this scale was .94 for the entire sample.

Items are on a five-point, scale of reported frequencies of: *Never, Once or twice, Once or twice a month, Once or twice a week, Every day*, and start with: “How often have YOU done each of the following things on your present job?”.

Demographic Questionnaire

The demographic variables selected, come from Aycan et al., 2000, and information judged to be important by the author to capture characteristics of participants and their relationship with their supervisor and organization. They include organization, supervisor and job tenure as well as educational level, age, marital status and sex. While an item on the employee’s job title was included, we were unable to collect this information, (it was not completed by participants).

Power Analyses

This study’s sample size of $N = 313$, with the two groups (or subsamples) consisting of $N = 154$ for employees in family-owned firms and $N = 159$ for multinational firms. For all correlational analyses (zero order correlations), all study variables were assumed to have at least a medium effect size (per Cohen 1992) of $r = .30$, which would require a sample size of 85 at the $p < .05$ level for adequate power (.80). Both ownership groups have at least 150 participants. It was not possible to accrue enough participants to reliably detect a small effect of only $r = .10$; (here a sample size of $N = 783$ would have been required).

For testing mean differences between groups, (for paternalistic leadership behavior and organizational collectivism) a medium effect size of $d = .50$ was assumed, and only $N = 64$ per group would be required for adequate power (.80) at the $p < .05$ level, (Cohen, 1992). For all statistical tests, the significance level of $p < .05$ was used.

Chapter 3: Results

Data Cleaning and Imputation

A total of 332 completed surveys were obtained. For records missing raw data (by variable), see Table 2. Four records were eliminated due to missing more than 10% of survey data. Next, if records were to be eliminated for missing any value (on five variables of interest), this would have left a total sample of only $N = 280$. In order to salvage usable data, judicious mean imputation was conducted on the two measures with distinct subscales (the 21 item, five subscale Paternalistic Leadership Behavior from Aycan, 2006 and the adapted 31 item, eight facet JSS or Job Satisfaction Scale, from Spector, 1985). If a record was missing only a single value per subscale, it was acceptable to impute the participant's mean from remaining completed items. Prior to imputation, missing data on the PL and JSS measures were examined to see if there was a pattern to the missingness by subscale, item or company type. No particular pattern was apparent. The item with the most missing, yet imputable, cases was on the Promotion subscale of the Job Satisfaction Survey: "I am satisfied with my chances for promotion", with six records missing a response.

Mean imputation was used on records that were not missing more than two datapoints (on the two measures): or 63 unique records, with a total of 78 data points being imputed; 24 data points on the PL scale, and 54 data points on the JSS. This broadened the sample size to 313 records, with no missing data on the five variables of

interest. For a final sample from family-owned organizations of N = 154, and a multinational sample of N = 159. Resulting in a total of 313 usable surveys.

Table 2. *Complete Initial Records by Variable (Total N = 332)*

Variable	N
Job Satisfaction	280
Paternalistic Leadership	310
OCBs	317
LMX	332
Org. Collectivism	332

Demographics

Comparison of the two samples' demographic information can be seen in Table 3. Age and tenure means and standard deviation values are displayed in Table 4, while Table 5 lists education levels by company type. The two samples are very similar in demographic makeup, including education level. While employees in family-owned firms did have an extra year (on average) in their current jobs (M = 4.44 years vs. M = 3.48 years), this difference wasn't significant at the $p = .05$ level, $t(303) = 1.93, p = .06$.

Table 3. *Demographic Information*

	Family-owned Firms	Multinational Firms
	Percent	
Male	64	58.3
Female	36	41.7
Married	62.3	63.5
Single	34.4	34.6
Divorced	1.3	0.6

Table 4. *Age and Tenure by Organization Type.*

	Family-owned Firms		Multinational Firms	
	Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Age	30.93	7.13	30.77	7.67
Organizational Tenure	5.63	5.46	5.97	5.53
Job Tenure	4.43	4.44	3.48	4.16

Table 5. *Education Level by Organization Type.*

Education Level	Family-owned firms (N = 151)	Multinational Firms (N = 155)
	Percent	
Elementary school	16.2	20.8
Middle school	7.1	6.3
High school	29.2	30.8
2 year Vocational school	14.9	13.8
Bachelor's degree	26	22
Graduate education	4.5	3.8

*Note for education level data: N = 151 for family-owned sample and N = 155 for multinational sample.

Study Variables

For the five variables of interest, the means, standard deviations and maximum possible values are displayed by company type in Table 6. Hypotheses one and three both concerned mean differences between the two samples on (PL) paternalistic leadership behavior (H1) and organizational collectivism (H3); with family-owned firms expected to show higher levels of both.

As hypothesized, both employee-reported paternalistic leadership behavior $t(311) = 4.96, p < .05$ and organizational collectivism $t(311) = 6.10, p < .05$ were significantly higher in family-owned firms. The family-owned sample also showed significantly less variance in their paternalistic leadership behavior scores, than the multinational group, per Levene's Test of Variance ($s^2 = 227.79$ vs. 308.07). Additional mean differences between samples were also found for LMX and OCBs, with employees from family-owned firms exhibiting significantly higher scores than their Turkish counterparts in multinational organizations on LMX $t(311) = 6.76, p < .05$ and OCBs $t(311) = 5.75, p < .05$. Job satisfaction levels showed no mean difference across company type, however the distribution for employees in MNCs was markedly more peaked and total scores were more tightly clustered with significantly less variability, per Levene's test for unequal variances. Variance in the family-owned sample ($s^2 = 717.63$) was roughly twice that of the multinational sample, ($s^2 = 359.15$).

Further examination of the paternalistic leadership measure revealed significant mean differences on four of the five subscales; in all cases the family-owned sample displayed higher mean scores.

The only subscale with a non-significant difference between samples was that of “Non-work Involvement”. Paternalistic leadership subscale means and standard deviation values by sample are displayed in Table 7.

Significance tests for the subscales are as follows: for the subscale “Creating a Family Atmosphere at Work”, $t(311) = 3.10, p < .05$, the Individualized Relationships subscale showed a large mean group difference; $t(311) = 5.14, p < .05$; as did the “Loyalty Expectation” subscale $t(311) = 4.65, p < .05$, and the subscale representing the power distance aspect of the paternalistic supervisor-subordinate relationship “Status and Authority”, $t(311) = 6.64, p < .05$.

Table 6. *Variable Descriptive Statistics by Company Type.*

	Family-owned Firms (N = 154)			Multinational Firms (N = 159)			Max. Possible
	Mean	SD	Maximum	Mean	SD	Maximum	
Paternalistic Leadership Behavior	71.34	15.09	105	62.15	17.55	95	105
Organizational Collectivism	21.79	6.43	35	17.32	6.53	33	35
LMX	25.09	5.63	35	20.65	5.99	35	35
Job Satisfaction	114.49	26.00	179	112.92	18.18	183	186
OCBs	114.66	27.31	195	97.72	24.73	179	195

Family-owned Firms (N = 154)

Multinational Firms (N = 159)

Table 7. *Paternalistic Leadership Subscales by Company Type.*

PL Subscale	Maximum Possible	Family-owned Firms (N = 154)		Multinational Firms (N = 159)	
		Mean	SD	Mean	SD
Family Atmosphere at Work	25	16.42	5.09	14.73	4.49
Individualized Relationships	20	13.31	3.80	10.85	4.64
Non-work Involvement	20	12.50	3.38	11.83	3.27
Loyalty Expectation	15	10.26	2.45	8.64	3.64
Status & Authority	25	18.95	3.91	15.39	5.48

Correlational Findings

Zero order correlations for study variables including education level, are displayed by company type in Table 8. For all statistical analyses, unless noted, sample sizes are $N = 154$ for family-owned firms and $N = 159$ for multinational firms. All tests were two-tailed and utilized a $p = .05$ significance level.

Hypotheses two, four, five, and six concerned the supervisory variables of employee-rated paternalistic leadership behavior and LMX. All relationships showed strong, positive correlations in both samples: Employee ratings of supervisor paternalistic leadership behavior (PL) were positively associated with employee-rated organizational collectivism, (H2: Family-owned $r = .54$, MNC $r = .53$). Employee LMX was related to job satisfaction (H4: Family-owned $r = .67$, MNC $r = .60$), and PL was related to both employee LMX, (H5: Family-owned $r = .66$, MNC $r = .54$) and job satisfaction (H6: Family-owned $r = .55$, MNC $r = .39$).

Hypotheses eight, nine and ten involved organizational citizenship behaviors. Here a clear difference by company type was observed. All three relationships were non-significant in the case of family-owned firms and positive in multinational firms. In other words, job satisfaction, paternalistic leadership behavior and organizational collectivism were all positively related to OCB frequency in the multinational sample, but not in the family-owned sample. The relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs; (H8: Family-owned $r = .04$ n.s., MNC $r = .24$), for organizational collectivism and OCBs, (H9: Family-owned $r = .15$ n.s., MNC $r = .44$), and for PL and OCBs, (H10: Family-owned $r = .10$ n.s., MNC $r = .22$).

In the case of hypothesis nine, (organizational collectivism and OCBs) the observed correlations were significantly different from one another ($z = -2.81, p < .05$). Also, while not a specified hypothesis, the correlations between LMX and OCBs also differed in magnitude between samples: Family-owned $r = .10$ n.s., MNC $r = .39$; $z = -2.73, p < .05$.

Other Analyses

For family-owned firms, educational level was negatively or non-significantly correlated with all five study variables, while for employees in MNCs, it was significantly and positively correlated. More specifically, in family-owned firms, as education level increased, employees' reports of supervisory paternalistic leader behavior, as well as their own LMX and job satisfaction significantly decreased, (the correlations between education and organizational collectivism, and education and OCBs were in the negative direction, but were non-significant). However, in multinational firms, higher education levels were associated with increased levels of perceived supervisory paternalistic leader behavior and levels of organizational collectivism, as well as greater employee LMX, job satisfaction and frequency of OCBs.

Examination of these correlations across the two samples reveals large differences, and when tested all five pairs are significantly different. All tests used a 2-tailed Z transformation, $p < .05$). For the relationship between education and PL: Family-owned $r = -.24$, MNC $r = .22$; $z = -4.10$. Similarly the relationship between education and LMX differs: Family-owned $r = -.22$, MNC $r = .43$; $z = -5.99$.

As does the relationship between education and job satisfaction: Family-owned $r = -.21$, MNC $r = .30$; $z = -4.10$; the relationship between education and OCBs: Family-owned $r = -.14$ n.s., MNC $r = .36$; $z = -4.54$, and lastly the relationship between education and organizational collectivism: Family-owned $r = -.10$ n.s., MNC $r = .47$; $z = -5.35$.

Table 8. *Zero Order Correlation by Company Type*

	Mean	SD	1. PL.	2. Org. Coll	3. OCB	4. JSS	5. LMX
1. Paternalistic Leadership – Fam.	71.34	15.09	(.91)				
Paternalistic Leadership – MNC	62.15	17.55	(.91)				
2. Organizational Collectivism – Fam.	21.79	6.43	.54*	(.89)			
Organizational Collectivism – MNC	17.32	6.53	.53*	(.87)			
3. OCBs – Fam.	114.66	27.31	.10	.15	(.94)		
OCBs – MNC	97.72	24.73	.22*	.44*	(.92)		
4. Job Satisfaction (JSS) – Fam.	118.07	26.79	.55*	.59*	.04	(.92)	
Job Satisfaction (JSS) – MNC	116.18	18.95	.39*	.64*	.24*	(.85)	
5. Leader-Member-Exchange – Fam.	25.09	5.63	.66*	.69*	.10	.67*	(.86)
Leader-Member-Exchange – MNC	20.65	5.99	.54*	.80*	.39*	.60*	(.80)
6. Education – Fam.	3.42	1.49	-.24*	-.10	-.14	-.21*	-.22*
Education – MNC	3.22	1.51	.22*	.47*	.36*	.29*	.43*

* Correlation significant at the .05 level (2-tailed)

Note: Family-owned sample: (N = 154, Education: n = 151); MNC sample: (N = 159, Education n = 155).

Moderation Analyses

In examining if employee reported organizational collectivism had any moderating effects upon the relationships between employee LMX and job satisfaction (Hypothesis 7) and job satisfaction and OCBs (Hypothesis 11), a series of multiple regressions were used; modeled after Fox, Spector and Miles's (2001) examination of moderated regression involving the effects of negative emotions on the relationship between job stressors and counterproductive work behavior (CWB). For moderation analyses, all predictor variables (the independent variables of interest, LMX and job satisfaction, and the moderator organizational collectivism) were mean centered. Regression results for moderation hypotheses seven and eleven are displayed in Table 9. For each tested relationship, support for moderation was considered evident if the predictor*moderator product term added a significant increment to predicted variance (R^2). The relationship at high levels of organizational collectivism, was expected to differ from the relationship found at low levels of organizational collectivism.

While there was little information in the literature about company type serving as a moderator, support was found for moderation in both relationships (LMX--job satisfaction) and (job satisfaction—OCBs), both only in multinational firms. Despite family-owned firms displaying *higher* levels of organizational collectivism, no support was found any moderation effects. Significant moderation effects are displayed in Figures 1 and 2.

For employees in multinational firms, both of the relationships showed a significant moderation/interaction with organizational collectivism.

For the LMX – job satisfaction relationship, ($\beta = .32, p < .05$) the product term of the moderator (organizational collectivism) and predictor (LMX) added a large increment to overall predicted variance, (.09) and the overall model, $F\text{-change}(1,155) = 26.76, p < .05$. As can be seen in Figure 1, the moderator had little effect at low levels of LMX: Here increases in organizational collectivism had no effect upon job satisfaction scores. However when employees report high levels of LMX, increases in their organization's level of collectivism are clearly associated with increases in job satisfaction.

For the second relationship, that of job satisfaction -- OCB as moderated by organizational collectivism, the product term of the moderator (organizational collectivism) and predictor (job satisfaction) ($\beta = -.27, p < .05$) added a significant increment of .05 to the overall model variance, $F\text{-change}(1,155) = 26.76, p < .05$. As can be seen in Figure 2, when job satisfaction is low, organizational collectivism dramatically affects OCB frequency (higher perceived levels of organizational collectivism are associated with higher OCBs. However, when job satisfaction is high, this difference still appears, but is lessened.

Table 9. Results of Moderated Regression Analysis for Organizational Collectivism as Moderator

Dependent Variable	Step	Independent Variable	Family-owned		Multinational	
			Total R ²	▲R ²	Total R ²	▲R ²
Job Sat.	1	LMX	.45*	.45*	.36*	.36*
	2	Org. Collect.	.49*	.04*	.43*	.07*
	3	LMX * Org. Collect.	.49*	.00	.52*	.09*
OCB	1	Job Sat.	.00	.00	.06*	.06*
	2	Org. Collect.	.02	.02	.19*	.13*
	3	Job Sat. * Org. Collect.	.00	.00	.24*	.05*

Note. N = 154 for Family-owned and N = 159 for MNCs.

* p < .05.

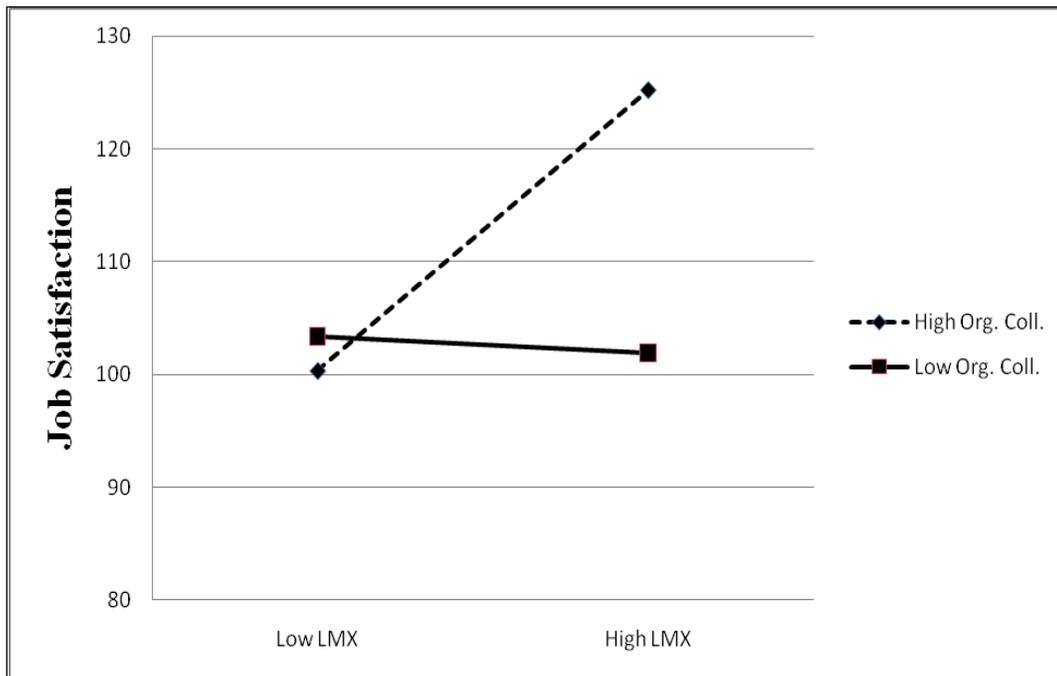


Figure 1. In Multinational Firms: Organizational Collectivism Moderates the Relationship Between LMX and Job Satisfaction.

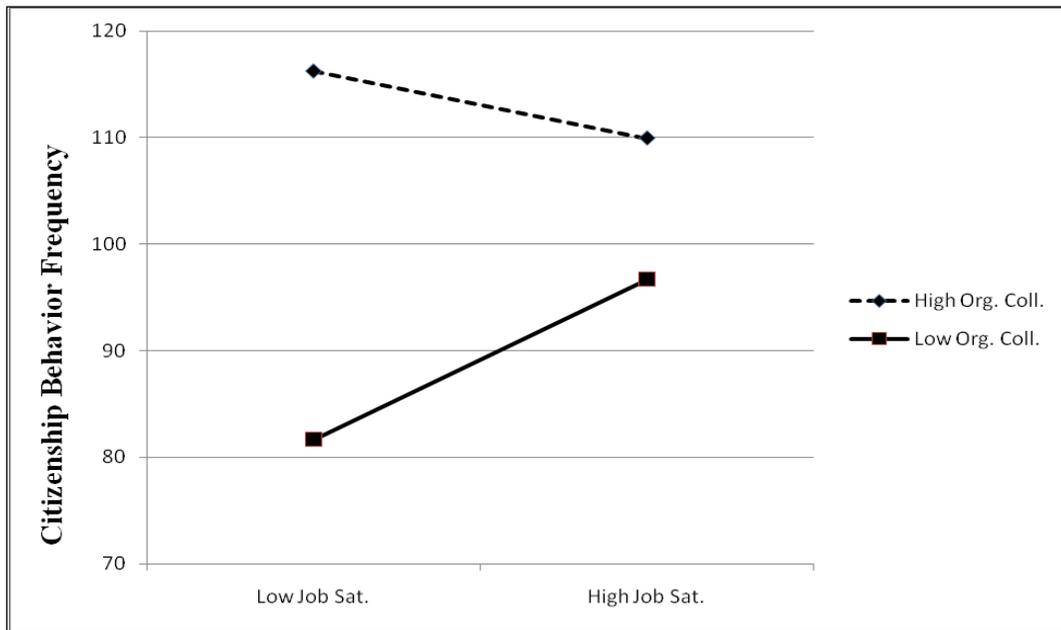


Figure 2. In Multinational Firms: Organizational Collectivism Moderates the Relationship Between Job Satisfaction and OCB Frequency.

Table 10. *Statistical Results by Hypothesis.*

Hypothesis	Finding	Test
1. Multinational corporations (MNCs) are expected to have a lower mean level of paternalistic leadership behavior than family-owned firms.	Supported	$t(311) = 4.96, p < .05.$
2. Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with organizational collectivism.	Supported in both samples	Both sample correlations are sig. at $p < .05.$
3. Multinational corporations (MNCs) are expected to have a lower mean level of organizational collectivism than family-owned firms.	Supported	$t(311) = 6.10, p < .05.$
4. Employee LMX will be positively associated with employee job satisfaction.	Supported in both samples	Both sample correlations are sig. at $p < .05.$
5. Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with employee leader member exchange (LMX).	Supported in both samples	Both sample correlations are sig. at $p < .05.$
6. Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with employee job satisfaction.	Supported in both samples	Both sample correlations are sig. at $p < .05.$

Table 10. (Continued) Statistical Results by Hypothesis.

Hypothesis	Finding	Test
7. Organizational collectivism will moderate the relationship between <u>LMX and job satisfaction</u> .	Supported only in MNC sample	Increment in R^2 of product term (.09) was significant ($\beta = .32, p < .05$).
8. Job satisfaction will be positively associated with employee organizational citizenship behaviors (OCBs).	Supported only in MNC sample	Family-owned: $r(152) = .04$, n.s. MNCs: $r(157) = .24$.
9. Organizational collectivism will be positively associated with OCBs.	Supported only in MNC sample. Relationships \neq in magnitude: $z = -2.81, p < .05$.	Family-owned: $r(152) = .15$, n.s. MNCs: $r(157) = .44$.
10. Paternalistic leadership behavior will be positively associated with OCBs.	Supported only in MNC sample	Family-owned: $r(152) = .10$, n.s. MNCs: $r(157) = .22$.
11. Organizational collectivism will moderate the relationship between <u>job satisfaction and OCBs</u> .	Supported only in MNC sample	Increment in R^2 of product term (.05) was significant ($\beta = -.27, p < .05$).

Chapter 4: Discussion

Major Findings

The current study examined the relationships between paternalistic leadership behavior (PL), employee rated organizational collectivism and employee LMX, job satisfaction and frequency of OCBs, in two samples: companies which were either owned and managed by a single family, or multinational firms operating in Turkey. All participating employees were Turkish speaking and worked for organizations in urban Turkish settings. All hypotheses involving correlational relationships and mean differences were supported. The two moderation hypotheses (H7 and H11), were only supported in the multinational sample, (see Tables 9 and 10). All relationships between the variables (in other words, their correlations), with the exception of OCBs, were similar across the two types of companies; yet the family-owned sample displayed higher levels of PL, LMX, organizational collectivism and OCBs.

Family-owned firms were considered to be more traditional, and their employees were expected to display higher levels of the more emic Turkish cultural values of paternalism and collectivism, in comparison to employees in multinational firms. As hypothesized, employees in the family-owned sample reported higher levels of PL and organizational collectivism.

This is in accordance with the expectation in Fischer, that the “effect of national culture on organizational practices will be stronger for indigenous organizations compared with multinational organizations”, (pg. 38: Fischer et al., 2005).

“We would expect that the effect of sociocultural variables on organizational practices is stronger in indigenous (owned and operated by nationals) organizations than in multinational organizations. Therefore, the status of the organization (multinational versus indigenous organization) is expected to be a moderator of all the relationships between socio-cultural dimensions and organizational practices.”

While the relationships, between paternalistic leadership (PL), LMX, job satisfaction and organizational collectivism, all of which were significant, were similar across both samples, notable differences between the two samples were evident in how OCBs and education level related to other variables. In the family-owned sample, OCB frequency was not related to any of the four other study variables; the correlations were all non-significant, (even though this sample showed a significantly higher level of OCBs). The reverse was true for the MNC sample: here OCBs were positively and significantly correlated with PL, organizational collectivism, LMX and job satisfaction, yet employees in multinational firms displayed lower levels of OCBs. These findings indicate that OCBs may be considered as more of a “part of the job” in family-owned firms.

Education level was also positively correlated to all five study variables in the multinational sample, yet negatively related to PL, LMX and job satisfaction in the family-owned sample.

Additionally, only in the multinational sample did organizational collectivism interact with the relationships between LMX and job satisfaction, and job satisfaction and OCBs. No moderation/interaction effects were found in the family-owned sample.

One unifying possible explanation for this pattern of results could be that PL and LMX (both characteristics of the supervisor-subordinate relationship) along with an organization's level of collectivism can be viewed as an organizational culture cluster, or syndrome. Here ownership, or company type would be associated with specific values held by management and the resulting behaviors displayed by employees. This is consistent with the more traditional family-owned and managed firms exhibiting higher levels, on this set of related factors.

If PL, LMX and organizational collectivism can be thought of as an organizational cultural cluster, then it could be argued that these levels were suppressed in the MNC sample by the intervening values and behaviors resulting from a comparatively more Western philosophy of management. This is also consistent with the lower level of OCBs found in the MNC sample, as their lower levels of paternalism and collectivism could be argued to contribute to less overall helping behavior (Fisher et al., 2005).

PL and LMX were strongly related to each other and to job satisfaction. As both PL and LMX are measures of (good) leader-subordinate relations, their correlation is not entirely unexpected. This corresponds to the findings of Pellegrini & Scandura, (2006), and is in congruence with paternalistic leadership, having a positive impact on positive employee attitudes in collectivistic and high power distance cultures, (Gelfand et al., 2007).

A possible alternative explanation for the differing levels of PL between the two samples: in family-owned firms paternalism may function as an overriding variable (when familial or patriarchal relationships within the family are extended beyond family boundaries and applied to all vertical hierarchical relationships (Aycan, 2006). Or in the context of multinational firms, PL may mean something else; as a construct it may not be equivalent to that which is being measured in family-owned firms. Just as the importance of intrinsic and extrinsic factors to job satisfaction are not uniform across cultures and contexts (Vey & Campbell, 2004) or the factor structure of job satisfaction (Spector & Wimalasiri, 1986) and OCB (Lam, Chun & Law, 1999) measures, load differently across different cultures and contexts.

Moderation Effects

Here, the hypothesized moderation relationships were partially supported. Interaction effects were found in the multinational sample only. In MNCs organizational collectivism affected the relationships (between H7: LMX -- job satisfaction and H11: job satisfaction -- OCBs) differently at high vs. low levels. As can be seen in Figure 1, for H7, when employees report low LMX, organizational collectivism had no effect on job satisfaction, but at high levels of LMX, higher organizational collectivism is associated with much higher job satisfaction while respondents reporting low levels of organizational collectivism showed essentially no increase in job satisfaction, regardless of their level of LMX.

If organizational collectivism is seen as a positive antecedent of good worker outcomes (in the same manner as paternalism) then it makes sense that the highest levels of job satisfaction would be found under both high LMX and organizational collectivism.

In Hypothesis 11 (how organizational collectivism affects the relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs), Figure 2 reveals a different type of interaction. Here when job satisfaction is low, the level of organizational collectivism has a large effect upon OCB frequency, and a large discrepancy is seen for participants reporting high vs. low organizational collectivism. When job satisfaction is high, there is less of a difference in OCBs between those with high or low organizational collectivism; it seems to influence OCBs less than the presence of high job satisfaction. The moderator analyses for the family-owned sample were non-significant, as neither job satisfaction nor organizational collectivism were significantly correlated with OCBs in this group.

Organizational Citizenship Behaviors

The author believes that the marked sample differences on OCBs (higher levels being found in the family-owned sample, yet no significant relationships between OCB and other variables) point to OCBs (in family-owned companies) being less discretionary, and more likely in these contexts of higher paternalism and organizational collectivism. In this more traditional setting with its higher levels of paternalistic leadership behavior, organizational collectivism and more familial-type relationships in the workplace, OCBs are more of a “part of the job” or part of the organizational-level culture. Here, the context is a stronger determinant than levels of job satisfaction or LMX.

According to Fischer and colleagues, in cultures displaying higher levels of power distance, paternalism and collectivism, increased levels of helping behavior would not be unexpected, (Fischer et al., 2005). Evidence exists in the current literature for OCBs not necessarily being equivalent across contexts, or discretionary; and conceptions of what constitutes extra role behavior varies across cultures (Vey & Campbell, 2004; Gelfand et al., 2007; Hoffman et al., 2007). As do cases where no significant relationship between job satisfaction and OCBs was found, per Spector and colleagues' 2010 U.S. study, (Spector, P. E., Bauer, J, & Fox, S., 2010).

Another dimension to consider in inter-workplace relationships, which may affect OCBs and what's considered *extra-role* helping behavior, is that relationships may be conceptualized differently in contexts of high power distance and in-group collectivism. Here personal relationships are often more important than issues of procedure or formal evaluation. This likely contributes to the inappropriateness of 'informing' on one's coworkers; additionally the Turkish word for coworker ("yardimci işçi.", or "is arkadasi."), translates literally to English as "friend".

Educational Level

The differences in how study variables related to educational level by sample were unexpected. In MNCs, education level was positively associated with all five study variables, while in family-owned firms education was inversely related to PL, LMX and job satisfaction.

A possible reason for the negative relationships of education level with PL, LMX and job satisfaction could be that more highly educated employees may prefer a less paternalistic work culture or have adopted less traditional attitudes on workplace relationships. Aycan describes this tension and ongoing cultural differences within Turkey as likely results of recent modernization and adoption of more Western business practices, (Aycan, 2001; Mango, 2006).

In the case of employees working in multinational firms, a very different picture emerges. Here, all study variables were significantly and positively associated (correlations range from .22 to .47) with education level. The positive relationships between increased education and greater LMX, job satisfaction and OCBs make sense in a more Western workplace context, but the author is uncertain how to interpret the positive association of education with PL and organizational collectivism. These differences may be an indicator of very different work cultures, with education being positively associated with all good work outcomes in the MNC sample, while more highly educated employees in the more traditional family-owned sample simply experience less satisfaction with their workplace cultures, supervisors and jobs, compared to their counterparts with less education.

While the two samples have similar profiles in educational level (frequency data from Table 4), any examination of effects by educational level is somewhat limited by not knowing the industry sector or size of participating organizations, for employee data.

Limitations to the Current Study

The lack of information on participating organizations, such as how many companies were sampled, their size or sector, and especially which employees worked at which company, or if they supervised someone was limiting and may have hampered or obscured the detection of effects of interest. As part of the agreement made prior to data collection, researchers were unable to keep this information.

While dyad level data would have been beneficial, often in business contexts of higher power distance, forms of feedback from subordinates about their superiors are rarely sought, (ex.: 360 degree feedback). Unfortunately the research team was unable to gather employee/coworker and employee/supervisor dyadic ratings of participating employees. Multiple inquiries to advanced graduate students and senior faculty in Turkey revealed that this type of survey (on one's coworkers or boss) was simply not done in the Turkish workplace, and would have been considered inappropriate. We were asked specifically to not try to collect this type of information. Since it would likely have resulted in refusals to participate or universally positive responses (filling out a "happy sheet" or "Christmas-treeing" the survey), it was not pursued.

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research should include a replication of the current study, and strive to include employee company identification data as well as organizational sector, industry and size. Also gathering data from employees at all levels of the organization would allow patterns of observed relationships to be examined for equivalence at all levels of the organizational hierarchy (noting job level).

Since PL is typically found in workplace contexts that display high levels of power distance and collectivism, including some measure of power distance (whether at a cultural, organizational, or individual level), is suggested. As is including a person-level measure of individualism/collectivism (like the IND-COL by Triandis et al., 1988). Also, collecting data from additional types of organizations (such as government offices, or educational institutions), or rural Turkish organizations could also be included in future research. In closing, this study illustrated the importance of organizational ownership type as a significant contextual modifier of the pattern of relationships in a single nation. It addresses the call for more international organizational research at levels other than the person-level. Here, the more indigenous organization type showed stronger levels of the traditional values of paternalistic leadership behavior and organizational collectivism; which in turn, affected several of the hypothesized relationships.

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Appendix

Paternalistic Leadership Scale, (Aycan, 2006).

Please indicate your opinion about each supervisor behavior by thinking TO WHAT EXTENT YOUR SUPERVISOR performs that behavior:

Please indicate your responses to each item by using the scale below.

1	2	3	4	5
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Neutral	Agree	Strongly Agree

FACTOR 1: Family atmosphere at work

- Behaves like a family member (father/mother or elder brother/sister) towards his / her employees.
- Provides advice to employees like a senior family member.
- Creates a family environment in the workplace.
- Feels responsible from employees as if they are his or her own children.
- Protects employees from outside criticisms.

FACTOR 2: Individualized relationships

- Places importance to establishing one-to-one relationship with every employee.
- Places importance to knowing every employee in person (e.g. personal problems, family life etc.).
- Shows emotional reactions, such as joy, sorrow, anger, in his or her relationships with employees.
- Closely monitors the development and progress of his or her employees.

FACTOR 3: Involvement in employees' non-work lives

- Does not hesitate to take action in the name of his or her employees, whenever necessary.
- Is ready to help employees with their non-work problems (e.g. housing, education of the children, health etc.) whenever they need it.
- Attends special events of employees (weddings and funeral ceremonies, graduations etc.)
- Is prepared to act as a mediator whenever an employee has problem in his or her private life (e.g. marital problems).

Paternalistic Leadership Scale, (Aycan, 2006). (*Continued*)

FACTOR 4: Loyalty expectation

- Expects loyalty and deference in exchange for his or her care and nurturance.
- Does not consider performance as the most important criterion while making a decision about employees (e.g. promotion, lay-off).
- Places more importance to loyalty than performance in evaluating employees.

FACTOR 5: Status hierarchy and authority

- Is disciplinarian and at the same time nurturant, (sweet & bitter).
- Believes that s / he knows what is best for his or her employees.
- Asks opinions of employees about work-related issues, however, makes the last decision himself or herself.
- Wants to control or to be informed about every work-related activity.
- Despite establishing close relationships with employees, keeps his or her distance.

Organizational Culture Scale, (Robert & Wasti, 2002).

1	2	3	4	5	6	7
Strongly disagree	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Neutral	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Strongly Agree

Organizational collectivism (OC) items:

1. Management and supervisors are protective of and generous to loyal workers.
2. Decisions about changes in work methods are taken jointly by supervisors and employees.
3. Employees are taken care of like members of a family.
4. Everyone shares responsibility for the organizations' failures as well as success.
5. Regardless of hierarchical level, employees take each other's views into consideration.
6. Once someone is hired, the organization takes care of that person's overall welfare.
7. Everyone is kept informed about major decisions that affect the success of the company.

Organizational individualism (OI) items:

1. Each worker is encouraged to realize his or her own unique potential.
2. People with good ideas make sure management knows the idea was theirs.
3. Employees' ability to think for themselves is valued.
4. Individuals who stand out in a high performing group are recognized.
5. Employees value independence in their job.
6. Competition between employees is accepted.

LMX-7 (Graen, Novak & Sommerkamp, 1982).

Items 1 – 6 use this five point Likert scale

1	2	3	4	5
<i>Strongly Disagree</i>	<i>Disagree</i>	<i>Neutral</i>	<i>Agree</i>	<i>Strongly Agree</i>

1. I usually know where I stand with my supervisor.
2. My supervisor understands my problems and needs.
3. My supervisor recognizes my potential.
4. Regardless of how much formal authority he/she has built into his/her position, my supervisor would be personally inclined to help me solve problems in my work.
5. Again, regardless of the amount of formal authority your leader has, I can count on my supervisor to "bail me out," even at his or her own expense, when I really need it.
6. My supervisor has enough confidence in me that he/she would defend and justify my decisions if I were not present to do so.

Item 7 uses the five point Likert scale with the anchors of: “Extremely Effective to Extremely Ineffective”.)

7. How would you characterize your working relationship with your leader?

Job Satisfaction Scale, (Spector, 1985).

1	2	3	4	5	6
Disagree Very Much	Disagree	Disagree Somewhat	Agree Somewhat	Agree	Agree Very Much

Pay

I feel I am being paid a fair amount for the work I do.
Raises are too few and far between.
I feel unappreciated by the organization when I think about what they pay me.
I feel satisfied with my chances for salary increases.

Promotion

There is really too little chance for promotion on my job.
Those who do well on the job stand a fair chance of being promoted.
People get ahead as fast here as they do in other places.
I am satisfied with my chances for promotion.

Supervision

My supervisor is quite competent in doing his/her job.
My supervisor is unfair to me.
My supervisor shows too little interest in the feelings of subordinates.
I like my supervisor.

Fringe Benefits

I am not satisfied with the benefits I receive.
The benefits we receive are as good as most other organizations offer.
The benefit package we have is equitable.
There are benefits we do not have which we should have.

Contingent Rewards

When I do a good job, I receive the recognition for it that I should receive.
I do not feel that the work I do is appreciated.
There are few rewards for those who work here.
I don't feel my efforts are rewarded the way they should be.

Operating Conditions

Many of our rules and procedures make doing a good job difficult.
My efforts to do a good job are seldom blocked by red tape.
I have too much to do at work.
I have too much paperwork.

Job Satisfaction Scale, (Spector, 1985). (*Continued*)

Coworkers

I like the people I work with.

I find I have to work harder at my job because of the incompetence of people I work with.

I enjoy my coworkers.

There is too much bickering and fighting at work.

Nature of work

I sometimes feel my job is meaningless.

I like doing the things I do at work.

I feel a sense of pride in doing my job.

My job is enjoyable.

Communication

Communications seem good within this organization.

The goals of this organization are not clear to me.

I often feel that I do not know what is going on with the organization.

Work assignments are not fully explained.

Three Overall Job Satisfaction items: (Seashore, Lawler, Mirvis & Cammann, 1982). Part of the Michigan Organizational Assessment Questionnaire.

This measure was administered, but was not used in any analyses.

All in all, I am satisfied with my job.

In general, I don't like my job.

In general, I like working here.

Behavioral Checklist of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors, (Spector, Fox, Goh, & Bruursema, 2003).

“How often have YOU done each of the following things on your present job?”

1= Never 2= Once or twice 3=Once or twice a month 4= Once or twice a week 5= Every day

1. Helped co-worker with personal matter such as moving, childcare, car problems, etc.
2. Picked up or dropped off co-worker at airport, hotel, etc.
3. Covered a co-worker's mistake.
4. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a work problem.
5. Lent a compassionate ear when someone had a personal problem.
6. Lent money to a co-worker.
7. Lent car or other personal property to co-worker.
8. Changed vacation schedule, work days, or shifts to accommodate co-worker's needs.
9. Helped a less capable co-worker lift a heavy box or other object.
10. Brought candy, doughnuts, snacks, or drinks for co-workers.
11. Went out of the way to give co-worker encouragement or express appreciation.
12. Defended a co-worker who was being "put-down" or spoken ill of by other co-workers or supervisor.
13. Drove, escorted, or entertained company guests, clients, or out-of-town employees.
14. Helped co-worker learn new skills or shared job knowledge.
15. Helped new employees get oriented to the job.
16. Used own vehicle, supplies or equipment for employer's business.
17. Offered suggestions to improve how work is done.
18. Offered suggestions for improving the work environment.
19. Came in early or stayed late without pay to complete a project or task.
20. Volunteered for extra work assignments.
21. Worked weekends or other days off to complete a project or task.

Behavioral Frequency Checklist of Organizational Citizenship Behaviors items
(Continued)

22. Brought work home to prepare for next day.
23. Volunteered to attend meetings or work on committees on own time.
24. Said good things about your employer in front of others.
25. Gave up meal and other breaks to complete work.
26. Volunteered to work at after-hours or out-of-town events.
27. Contributed and/or sent cards/flowers for co-worker birthdays/special occasions.
28. Picked up meal for others at work
29. Took time to advice, coach, or mentor a co-worker.
30. Finished something for co-worker who had to leave early.
31. Helped a co-worker who had too much to do.
32. Took phone messages for absent or busy co-worker.
33. Informed manager of co-worker's excellent performance.
34. Developed extracurricular activities for co-workers (e.g., sport team)
35. Organized office celebrations for holidays and co-workers' birthdays, retirement, etc.
36. Volunteered to help a co-worker deal with a difficult customer, vendor, or co-worker.
37. Decorated, straightened up, or otherwise beautified common work space.
38. Spent extra time helping a co-worker prepare/edit/rehearse a presentation or paper.
39. Assisted a co-worker with device or equipment such as computers, copy machines, etc.

Demographic Questionnaire

The following demographic data were collected:

”Please provide the following information”

1. Age (in years)
2. Sex: Male / Female
3. Marital status:
 - Married
 - Single
 - Divorced
 - Widowed (due to a reason other than divorce)
4. Education level:
 - Elementary school
 - Middle school
 - High school
 - 2-year vocational school
 - University
 - Graduate education
5. Company Name: We were unable to collect data on this item.
6. Job title: We were unable to collect data on this item.
7. How long have you been working in this organization? In years and months?
8. How long have you been working at your current position? In years and months?
9. How long have you been working with your current supervisor? In years and months?