

YAŞAR UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES
PSYCHOLOGY PROGRAMME

MASTER THESIS

**THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER'S
GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES AND LEADER'S
GENDER IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN
PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEADER
EFFECTIVENESS**

ZEYNEP ÇAĞIRAN

THESIS ADVISOR: ASST. PROF. DR. EVRİM GÜLERYÜZ

2019 İZMİR.

MASTER THESIS JURY APPROVAL FORM

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the Master degree.


14.06.2019

Asst.Prof. Evrim GÜLERYÜZ

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the Master degree.


14.06.2019

Asst.Prof. Nevra CEM ERSOY

I certify that I have read this thesis and that in my opinion it is fully adequate, in scope and in quality, as a thesis for the Master degree.



14.06.2019

Asst.Prof. Sinan ALPER

14.06.2019

Assoc.Prof.Dr. Çağrı BULUT

DIRECTOR OF THE GRADUATE SCHOOL OF SOCIAL SCIENCES

ABSTRACT

THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER'S GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES AND LEADER'S GENDER IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEADER EFFECTIVENESS

Zeynep Çağırın

MA, Psychology

Advisor: Asst. Prof. Dr. Evrim Güleriyüz

2019

Considering organizational success, leadership is one of the important facets to decrease some negative organizational outcomes, such as job dissatisfaction, high turnover rates, and employee stress. Leadership styles were found to be strong predictors of leader effectiveness. However, according to previous study results the effectiveness of leadership styles were differed. The aim of this research is to examine the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness as well as satisfaction with the leader as an integrative approach by using paternalistic, autocratic, participative, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership together. The data was collected from 300 employees in different workplaces. The multiple regression analysis results showed that the transformational leadership style was the best predictor of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. Paternalistic leadership was also found to be a strong predictor of leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. Moreover, based on Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) which considers the congruence between gender roles and leadership roles, the effect of leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on the effectiveness of leadership styles was investigated. According to three-way interaction analysis results, there was not any interaction effect of leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes in the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. The results, limitations and practical implications of this research are discussed.

Keywords: Leadership styles, paternalistic leadership, autocratic leadership, participative leadership, transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, leader effectiveness, satisfaction with the leader, gender role attitudes.

ÖZ

ALGILANAN LİDERLİK STİLLERİ VE LİDER ETKİLİLİĞİ ARASINDAKİ İLİŞKİDE ÇALIŞANLARIN CİNSİYET ROL TUTUMLARI VE LİDERİN CİNSİYETİNİN ARACILIK ROLÜ

Zeynep Çağırın

Yüksek Lisans, Psikoloji

Danışman: Dr. Öğr. Üyesi Evrim Güleriyüz

2019

Örgütsel başarıyı dikkate aldığımızda liderlik, iş memnuniyetsizliği, yüksek işten ayrılma oranları ve çalışan stresi gibi çeşitli olumsuz örgütsel sonuçları azaltmak için önemli faktörlerden biridir. Liderlik stilleri, lider etkililiğinin güçlü yordayıcıları olarak bulunmuştur. Ancak, önceki çalışma bulgularına göre liderlik stillerinin etkililiğinin farklılaştığı bulunmuştur. Bu çalışmanın amacı, liderlik stilleri ve lider etkililiği ile liderden memnuniyet arasındaki ilişkiyi bütüncül bir yaklaşımla babacan, otoriter, katılımcı, dönüşümcü, etkileşimci, tam serbesti tanıyan liderlik stillerini birlikte incelemektir. Veriler, farklı iş yerlerinde çalışan 300 çalışandan toplanmıştır. Çoklu regresyon analizi bulguları dönüşümcü liderliğin liderlik etkililiği ve liderden memnuniyeti en iyi yordadığını göstermiştir. Babacan liderliğin de liderlik etkililiği ve liderden memnuniyetin güçlü yordayıcısı olduğu bulunmuştur. Ayrıca, cinsiyet rolleri ve liderlik rolleri arasındaki uyumu gözeten Rol Uyum Teorisi'ne (Eagly & Karau, 2002) dayanarak liderlik stillerinin etkililiği üzerinde liderin cinsiyetinin ve çalışanın cinsiyet rol tutularının rolü incelenmiştir. Üç yönlü etkileşim analizi bulgularına göre liderlik stilleri ve lider etkililiği arasındaki ilişkide liderin cinsiyetinin ve çalışanın cinsiyet rol tutumlarının etkileşim etkisi yoktur. Çalışmanın bulguları, sınırlılıkları ve pratik uygulamaları tartışılacaktır.

Anahtar sözcükler: Liderlik stilleri, babacan liderlik, yetkeci liderlik, katılımcı liderlik, dönüşümcü liderlik, etkileşimsel liderlik, serbesiyetçi liderlik, lider etkililiği, liderden memnuniyet, cinsiyet rol tutumları.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

Firstly, I would like to huge thanks my advisor Asst. Prof. Dr. Evrim Güteryüz for her advices, feedbacks, knowledge, and help during my graduate education and in preparing my thesis research. I am very grateful to her for her understanding, goodwill, making me gain different perspectives and making me feel comfortable in this challenging period.

I also want to thank our head of department Prof. Dr. Emre Özgen for his advices and support when I need help during my graduate education. I thank my lecturers Asst. Prof. Dr. Berrin Özyurt and Asst. Prof Dr. Elif Sevgi Durgel who I get benefit from their knowledge and experience. In addition, I thank my jury members Asst. Prof. Dr. Nevra Cem Ersoy and Asst. Prof. Dr. Sinan Alper for their informative comments and criticisms.

Moreover, I thank my friends Dilşad Yerli, Batuhan Çora, Ece Kosova, Ceren Saka, Merve Binzat, Fatma Uygun, my cousin Ayşegül Selçuk, and Müge Bilgi, Hülya Şahin, İlknur Özoğlu and Ayla Perköz for their huge efforts to make me to reach the participants in this research.

Lastly, I am so grateful to my lovely mom Nesrin Çağırın and my lovely dad Vahit Çağırın for their endless love, trust, and devotion. I am so grateful to them for always supporting and encouraging me during my whole life, and making me feel the luckiest person. I owe everything to my family.

Zeynep Çağırın

İzmir, 2019

June 14, 2019

TEXT OF OATH

I declare and honestly confirm that my study, titled “THE MODERATING ROLE OF FOLLOWER’S GENDER ROLE ATTITUDES AND LEADER’S GENDER IN THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND LEADER EFFECTIVENESS” and presented as a Master’s Thesis, has been written without applying to any assistance inconsistent with scientific ethics and traditions. I declare, to the best of my knowledge and belief, that all content and ideas drawn directly or indirectly from external sources that are indicated in the text and listed in the list of references.

Zeynep Çağırın

Signature

.....

June 14, 2019

TABLE OF CONTENT

ABSTRACT.....	iii
ÖZ.....	iv
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	v
TEXT OF OATH.....	vi
TABLE OF CONTENT.....	vii
LIST OF TABLES.....	x
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xi
LIST OF ABBREVIATION.....	xii
CHAPTER 1.....	1
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
CHAPTER 2.....	3
2. LITERATURE REVIEW.....	3
2.1. Leadership.....	3
2.2. Leader Effectiveness.....	4
2.3. Leadership Styles.....	7
2.3.1. Paternalistic Leadership.....	9
2.3.1.1. Paternalistic Leadership and Effectiveness.....	10
2.3.2. Autocratic/Authoritarian Leadership.....	12
2.3.2.1. Autocratic Leadership and Effectiveness.....	12
2.3.3. Participative/Democratic Leadership.....	14
2.3.3.1. Participative Leadership and Effectiveness.....	14
2.3.4. Full Range of Leadership Model.....	16
2.3.4.1. Transformational Leadership.....	17
2.3.4.1.1. Components of Transformational leadership.....	18

2.3.4.1.2. Transformational Leadership and Effectiveness.....	19
2.3.4.2. Transactional Leadership.....	21
2.3.4.2.1. Components of Transactional Leadership.....	22
2.3.4.2.2. Transactional Leadership and Effectiveness.....	23
2.3.4.3. Laissez-faire Leadership.....	24
2.4. The Effect of Gender Role Attitudes on Leadership Styles and Effectiveness...	24
2.4.1. Gender and Stereotypes.....	25
2.4.2. Role Congruity Theory.....	26
2.4.3. Gender and Effectiveness of Leadership Styles.....	26
CHAPTER 3.....	34
3. METHOD.....	34
3.1. Participants and Procedure.....	34
3.2. Measures.....	34
3.2.1. Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire.....	34
3.2.2. Participative Leadership Questionnaire.....	35
3.2.3. Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire.....	35
3.2.4. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.....	35
3.2.5. Leader Effectiveness.....	36
3.2.6. Job Satisfaction Survey (Supervision).....	36
3.2.7. Perception of Gender Scale.....	37
3.2.8. Demographic Variables.....	37
3.3. Data Analysis.....	37
CHAPTER 4.....	38
4. RESULTS.....	38
4.1. Explanatory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.....	38

4.2. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations among the Research Variables and Reliabilities of the Questionnaires.....	43
4.3. The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Leadership Styles and Leader Effectiveness and Leader Satisfaction.....	45
4.4. The Results of Three-way Interaction Analysis for the Moderation Effect of Leader’s Gender and Followers’ Gender Role Attitudes on the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Leader Effectiveness and Satisfaction with the Leader.....	46
CHAPTER 5.....	59
5. DISCUSSION.....	59
5.1. Factor Structure of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ).....	59
5.2. Findings of the Research.....	60
5.3. Practical Implications.....	64
5.4. Limitations.....	65
REFERENCES.....	66
APPENDICES.....	78
APPENDIX A: Informed Consent Form.....	78
APPENDIX B: Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire.....	79
APPENDIX C: Participative Leadership Questionnaire.....	80
APPENDIX D: Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire.....	81
APPENDIX E: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire.....	81
APPENDIX F: Leader Effectiveness Scale.....	82
APPENDIX G: Job Satisfaction Survey (Supervision).....	82
APPENDIX H: Gender Perceptions Scale.....	83
APPENDIX I: Demographics Variables.....	84
APPENDIX J: MLQ License of Usage.....	85

LIST OF TABLES

Table 1.....	39
Table 2.....	42
Table 3.....	44
Table 4.....	45
Table 5.....	46
Table 6.....	48
Table 7.....	49
Table 8.....	51
Table 9.....	52
Table 10.....	53
Table 11.....	55
Table 12.....	56
Table 13.....	57

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure 1.....	33
Figure 2.....	48
Figure 3.....	50
Figure 4.....	51
Figure 5.....	52
Figure 6.....	54
Figure 7.....	55
Figure 8.....	56
Figure 9.....	58

LIST OF ABBREVIATION

CFA: Confirmatory Factor Analysis

CFI: Comparative Fit Index

EFA: Explanatory Factor Analysis

ECVI: Expected Cross Validation Index

GLOBE: Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness

KMO: Kaiser-Meyer Olkin

LISREL: Linear Structural Relations

MLQ: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

NNFI: Non-normed Fit Index

RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation

SPSS: Statistical Package of the Social Sciences

SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Squared

TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index

X^2 : Chi-square Statistics

CHAPTER 1

1. INTRODUCTION

Leadership has been an interesting and widely studied topic for researchers, especially in social sciences. However, studying leadership effectiveness is important because it is one of the strong factors related to organizational success (Silverthorne, 2005). Leadership effectiveness has been found associated with many positive organizational outcomes such as employee satisfaction, performance, motivation, organizational commitment, low turnover rates and organizational citizenship behavior (Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006; Yousef, 2000; Cahundhry & Javed, 2012). To understand effective leadership, many theories or approaches were produced. It was seen that leadership styles are the predictors of effective management (Balaraman, 1989). However, some researchers argued that while some leadership styles are perceived effective others are not (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). In this regard, cultural characteristics were found to have an influence on perceiving leadership styles as effective or not (Cheng & Lin, 2011; Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian & House, 2012).

Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness project showed the perception of the effectiveness of leadership styles change in different cultural contexts (Dorfman et al., 2012). Especially cultural values such as power distance, individualism/collectivism, gender egalitarianism, uncertainty avoidance were found to play an important role in perceived effectiveness (Newman & Nollen, 1996; Silverthorne, 2005). Nevertheless, most of the leadership studies are conducted in Western countries. Even if there are studies conducted in non-Western contexts for leadership, more studies are needed because the conditions in the environment and perceptions of people continue to change. These changes in conditions or perceptions also occur in organizational contexts. That's why new leadership approaches have emerged. In addition, all societies in Western or non-Western context cannot be similar. The perceptions or expectations about leadership styles can change even within a country after a while. To understand this change, conducting new researches are needed. In addition, most of the researches in the literature focus only on the new leadership styles or traditional leadership styles, therefore there is a gap to evaluate

them together. This research focuses on which of the styles that leaders display in Turkey is perceived mostly effective by the followers. It considers not only traditional or new leadership styles; they are evaluated together. Therefore, this research aims to show which of the leadership styles should be adopted by leaders in order to improve organizational outcomes and success.

Moreover, not only culture has an influence on leadership styles and leader effectiveness but also gender perceptions have an influence on this relationship (Aycaan, 2008; Cheng & Lin, 2011). As a result of having an increase in the number of women in the work life and having leadership roles, researchers started to focus on gender roles in leadership. Based on the role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002), the congruence between gender roles and leadership styles have been investigated in order to understand their influence on leadership effectiveness. Studies showed that when women and men exhibit similar leadership behaviors, employees might perceive them differently (Eagly and Karau, 2002).

In this research, it is expected that, even if male and female leaders show the same leadership styles, female leaders can be perceived less or more effective than their male counterparts. For example, when female leaders show a leadership behavior, which is more suited to the masculine roles, such as autocratic leadership, they can be evaluated negatively because of the incongruence with their gender role. Therefore, understanding the perceptions of employees about gender role is important in organizational contexts, because this can obstruct leader effectiveness for both men and women. The contribution of this research is to show the most effective leadership style that can be related to further positive organizational outcomes and showing the role of gender perceptions which can have an influence on the effectiveness of leadership styles.

CHAPTER 2

2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Leadership

Leadership has been a phenomenon that is needed especially in business life from past to present. It has been a widely studied topic for researchers. Many fields in social sciences are interested in leadership studies. Particularly, it has been a significant topic in work and organizational psychology (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). Studies showed that leadership has an important effect on organizational success and management (Silverthorne, 2005) and it has been found that an effective leadership has positive relations with organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction, organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment (Nguni, Slegers & Denessen, 2006), high performance (Yousef, 2000), motivation (Cahundhry & Javed, 2012) and productivity (Elpers & Westhuis, 2008). As leadership is studied by many researchers, many definitions have been coined. For example, Barrow (1976) defined leadership as “the behavioral process of influencing individuals or groups toward set goals” (p. 231), Robbins (1998) explained leadership is “the ability to persuade others to seek set of objectives enthusiastically” and House and Wright (1997) defined leadership is “the ability to influence, motivate and contribute towards the effectiveness of the organizations of which they are members” (as cited in Silverthorne, 2005, p. 59).

It can be seen that there are common essentials in the definitions of leadership. For example, leadership is not a single phenomenon that contains only the leader. It is based on an interaction between the leader and people around the leader such as followers, supervisors and leader’s peers (Merchant, 2012). Therefore, social interaction is an important factor for leadership. Besides, one of the essential factors is the influence. Yukl (1994) specified influence and persuasion are two essential abilities of a leader (Winston & Patterson, 2006, p.11) and influence tactics of a leader is a sign of his or her effectiveness as a leader (Merchant, 2012). Another factor that is essential for leadership is motivation. Leaders need to have persuasion abilities to motivate their subordinates to change their attitudes or behaviors for achieving the requirements of the tasks for the organization. These factors reflect the qualities of effective leaders as mentioned in the definitions. In addition, it was referred that

understanding leadership and leader effectiveness is important in figuring out how followers can be motivated and how organizational goals can be achieved (Silverthorne, 2005).

2.2. Leadership Effectiveness

Leadership effectiveness is evaluated as the result of having an influence on followers, team members or an organization (Yukl, 2013). Landy and Conte (2013) defined leadership effectiveness as “a situation that occurs when a leader changes a follower’s behavior, resulting in both leader and follower feeling satisfied and effective” (p.479). According to Yukl, effective leadership can be seen when there is a high performance of the team or organization when achievement of goals become easier, and when followers have positive perceptions and attitudes about the leader such as trust, respect, satisfaction or committed to his or her requests (Yukl, 2013). Landy and Conte (2013) support that effective leadership creates a win-win position between the leaders and followers in the organizations.

Leadership effectiveness is very important in management for an organization. For example, in a study of banks, researchers stated that there is an intensive need for effective leadership because of having high turnover rates, long working hours, employee stress and job dissatisfaction (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016). If employees are not satisfied with their jobs, they become less committed and have an intention to quit work. Leadership was found an important effect on job satisfaction and organizational commitment (Lok & Crawford, 2004). Therefore, there is a need to have managers with leadership qualities who use human and material resources in the most efficient way in order to sustain an organization with its goals (Tahaoğlu & Gedikoğlu, 2009). Effective leaders can reach the desired goals of the organization through influencing followers in the desired way (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014). Burke and Collins (2001) made a statement about how to be an effective leader. According to them, leaders should have many skills such as coaching subordinates, develop their skills, communicate them in a clear way, make right decisions, detect conflicts and solve problems. However, compromising on what makes effective leaders could not be easy for a long time.

Researchers have long been tried to investigate the characteristics that distinguish leaders from non-leaders and they also have investigated how some leaders

are more effective than others. For this reason, many approaches and theories have been produced to assess leadership effectiveness. 'Trait Approach' was the earliest approach that focuses on traits to distinguish leaders from others. Personal characteristics of leaders such as their physical features (height, age, appearance), ability (speech, intelligence) and personality traits (introversion-extraversion trait, emotional control, dominance) draw attention (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). However, it was seen that exact traits of effectiveness were changing for different leaders, the list of traits are limitless and relative importance of those traits are subjective.

After the Trait Approach, the importance of leader behaviors was concerned. 'Style Approach' was emerged and it was focused on what leaders do rather than who they are. Leaders were thought that they could learn how to behave and how to use an appropriate leadership style to be effective leaders (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001). The studies from Ohio State University found that 'consideration' and 'initiating structure' behaviors and University of Michigan studies showed that 'task-oriented' and 'relation-oriented' behaviors can basically explain leadership styles (Landy & Conte, 2013). Consideration and relation-oriented behaviors showed that leaders concern more on the needs of the followers, understanding their problems, having trust between leaders and followers, and supporting them, whereas, initiating structure and task-related behaviors showed that leaders pay more attention on achieving the task, controlling activities of followers, criticizing about unsuccessful work, assigning tasks to followers (Landy & Conte, 2013; Silverthorne, 2005; Yukl, 2013).

However, previous theories ignorance on situational factors caused the emergence of 'Contingency Approach'. This approach offers to consider the effect of the situation on leadership practices (Landy & Conte, 2013). The popular theories of this approach mentioned by Yukl (2013, p.164-167) are Fiedler's LPC Contingency Model (1967), Leadership Substitutes Theory (Kerr & Jermier, 1978), House's Path-Goal Theory (1971), Hersey and Blanchard's (1977) Situational Leadership Theory, Fiedler's (1986) Cognitive Resources Theory. The key suggestion of the Contingency Theories is the effectiveness of specific leader behavior is dependent on the situation and these behaviors are not always seen effective in all situations (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001, p.169). Namely, the effectiveness of leader behavior on subordinates' satisfaction or performance can be affected by followers' self-efficacy, role clarity,

task skills, task structure, followers' needs, coordination of activities or resources (Yukl, 2013). For example, according to Cognitive Resources Theory, an authoritative leader can be perceived more effective if the leader has more information and skill about the job than followers, however, a participative leader's behavior can be more effective if followers have knowledge about the job as much as the leader (Yukl, 2013).

Lastly, both leadership and all social elements in life can be affected by alteration and need to be renewed. Therefore, the development of new approaches to leadership phenomenon will continue (Eraslan, 2004). Former leadership perspectives paid attention to the discrimination of task-oriented or directive style and people-oriented or participative style of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Eraslan (2004) argues that the conception of traditional leadership can be defined as the whole characteristics related to have necessary qualifications, skills, and experience in order to gather a particular group of people to motivate them to reach the specific goals. However, today's leadership is not limited to the process of influencing and mobilizing people to reach particular goals (Eraslan, 2004).

The new leadership approaches focus on the leaders who guide people to adapt changing conditions in the environment, make them cope with the problems, and prepare the environment in which subordinates can work happily (Aydın, 2009). Although autocratic and authoritarian leaders still exist, today's effective leaders are expected to listen to their subordinates, make them participate in decisions and pay attention to their needs (Bass & Riggio, 2006). According to Burns (1978) and Bass (1985), the classification of contemporary leadership theories is transactional and transformational leadership (Ercan & Sığrı, 2015, p.97). Transactional/Transformational leadership model was noted by Bass (1990) as a new paradigm (Den Hartog & Koopman, 2001, p.173). Bryman (1992) called this paradigm as 'New Leadership' because it combines the concepts of different leadership approaches and it involves consideration of different approaches such as trait, behavior and contingency approach to clarify leadership (Silverthorne, 2005, p.69). Bass & Riggio (2006) mentioned that transformational leadership is seen to be the most convenient model for effective leadership in the present time, and it has become the most prevalent used theory of leadership. In the next section, transformational and transactional leadership styles and some other mostly used styles (autocratic, participative, paternalistic and laissez-faire) by leaders will be explained in detail.

2.3. Leadership Styles

In the literature, it can be seen that there are lots of studies show the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness. Academics and practitioners have been interested in the effectiveness of leadership styles for a long time (Burke & Collins, 2001). Balaraman (1989) indicated that leadership styles are the predictors of effective management. Leadership styles and effectiveness also have associations with other organizational outcomes. Study results showed there is a positive relationship between leadership and organizational outcomes such as perceived leader effectiveness, altruistic behavior, extra effort for work, commitment and satisfaction (Peachey & Burton, 2011). Some styles that leaders adopted are perceived as very effective. For example, it was stated that managers who show transformational leader behavior were seen the most effective leaders and both subordinates and employers are satisfied with these managers (Burke & Collins, 2001, p.245). Recently, many researchers investigated the effect of transformational leadership on effectiveness and they found similar results (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivsubramaniam, 1996; Dumdum, Lowe & Avolio, 2002; Hater & Bass, 1988). On the other hand, there are some leadership styles, which are found less effective. The laissez-faire leadership style was found negatively associated with effectiveness (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016) and authoritarian/autocratic leadership style was found as an ineffective style (Balaraman, 1989). These results indicate the effectiveness of leaders is influenced by leadership styles. In addition, leadership styles can affect organizational outcomes such as job satisfaction or dissatisfaction, high or low organizational commitment and intention to quit work (Abualrub & Alghamdi, 2012; Saleem, 2015; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

As mentioned, leadership has associations with both effectiveness and job satisfaction (Peachey & Burton, 2011). In Rad and Yarmohammadian's (2006) study, it was stated that employee job satisfaction depends on leadership styles and results showed that employees are more satisfied with their leaders who show employee-oriented leadership behaviors rather than task-oriented behaviors. Satisfaction with the leader is one part of job satisfaction. The same study showed that employee satisfaction was found high especially in supervision satisfaction. Similarly, Dumdum, Lowe & Avolio's (2002) meta-analysis showed transformational leadership affect satisfaction with the leader and the job. On the other hand, it was revealed that turnover intentions of employees were affected by person-oriented leadership behavior through

organizational commitment and job satisfaction (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, 2015). In addition, there is some evidence that satisfaction with the leader has a mediation effect on the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness (Shrestha, 2012). Considering all, some organizational outcomes such as turnover rates and job dissatisfaction that affect organizational persistence and productivity can be overcome by appropriate effective leadership behaviors.

On the other hand, culture has a role in influencing human behaviors and expectations in different nations. It has also an influence on organizational behaviors in the workplaces in those nations (Jogulu & Wood, 2008). The relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness can be affected by cultural characteristics, therefore, appropriate leadership behaviors can be changed in different places. For example, researchers mentioned some leadership styles such as participative leadership are culturally sensitive (Dorfman, Javidan, Hanges, Dastmalchian & House, 2012). Hofstede's national culture model, which includes scores of power distance, individualism, masculinity and uncertainty avoidance, is a good way to understand the relationship between leadership and culture (Giritli & Topçu-Oraz, 2003). Aycan and Gelfand (2012) mentioned that directive leadership behaviors of managers, such as high close monitoring and low participation, were found effective and satisfied in cultures which are high on power distance and collectivism than in individualistic and small power distant cultures. The Global Leadership and Organizational Behavior Effectiveness (GLOBE) project showed that societal culture affects leadership behaviors through leadership expectations of these nations, therefore, leaders are found effective if they behave according to the expectations of societies (Dorfman et al., 2012). Newman & Nollen (1996) found a support that organizational work unit financial performance is high if management practices have congruence with national culture.

It should be considered that appropriate leadership behaviors cannot be the same across cultures. Therefore, the effectiveness of leadership can be influenced by cultural characteristics and it should be researched in order to understand and increase organizational success. Because most of the studies are conducted in the Western context, there should be more research to understand the mechanisms of cultural features on leadership in different places in non-Western cultures. It was seen that leadership styles are affected by the characteristics of a certain culture (Gerçek, 2018),

and perceived effectiveness of that styles can be very different across organizations in various cultures. In this section, leadership styles which are mostly used by leaders in Turkey such as paternalistic, autocratic, participative, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership will be introduced and their relationship with leader effectiveness will be explained.

2.3.1. Paternalistic Leadership

Paternalism as a cultural dimension is mostly seen in Eastern countries and also in Middle-East and Latin America (Aycan 2006). The individual level of paternalism such as paternalistic leadership is also prevalent in organizational contexts of those countries. The definition of paternalism made by Webster (1975) is that “the principle or system of governing or controlling a country, a group of employees, etc. in a manner suggesting a father’s relationship with his children” (as cited in Aycan, 2006, p.446). Aycan (2006) interpreted this definition as there was a dyadic and hierarchical relationship between the employees and superiors. In this relationship, the expectation from superiors is to provide care, guidance, and protection to the employees in their work and non-work lives, and the expectation from employees is to show loyalty and respect to their leaders. Paternalistic leaders act like parents to their followers and there are two dimensions such as autocratic and nurturing or authoritative and benevolent (Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013). Researchers described authoritative paternalism as focusing more on the duty (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001, p.566) and show authority and control (Pellegrini & Sandura, 2008). Leaders have authority over their employees and control the employees’ activities by making decisions on their own (Gerçek, 2018). Benevolent paternalism is described as the superior’s generosity and concern for the well-being of both their employees and families of employees. (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001, p.566). In addition, according to Farh and Cheng (2000), morality is the third dimension of paternalistic leadership (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p.573). Morality shows that leaders do not have an aim to use their authority to have a personal gain and act like a modal for employees (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008).

Aycan (2006) described these paternalistic behaviors as five characteristics. Creating a family atmosphere in the workplace, establishing close and individualized relationships with subordinates, getting involved in the non-work domain, expecting

loyalty, and maintaining authority/status are the behaviors that shown by paternalistic leaders. She explained when paternalistic leaders create a family atmosphere at work; they act like a father to followers and give advice to followers' professional work lives and private lives as a father. Leaders who establish a close and individualized relationship with their followers try to understand their personal problems, concern their welfare, and interest both their work and private lives. Leaders who involve in followers' non-work domains provides financial or consultant help to their followers, and attend their events such as a wedding. Leaders also expect loyalty from their followers and they expect followers to attend if there is an emergency in the organization. Lastly, paternalistic leaders maintain their authority and status difference at work and they expect followers to believe that the leader knows the best for them. They expect to conform to their decisions (Aycan, 2006, p. 449). Paternalistic leadership is highly seen and valued in high power distant and high collectivistic cultures. Researchers stated that in countries which have high power distance values, children see that the father is the authority figure in the family and he deserves the respect and deference (Dorfman et al., 2012, p.505). In those cultures, this reflects in the organizations. Turkey's collectivism and power distance scores were found higher on the average scores of all countries (Fikret-Paşa, 2000). In addition, Turkish leaders were also found to show paternalistic behaviors to their employees (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001; Dorfman et al., 2012) as expected.

2.3.1.1. Paternalistic Leadership and Effectiveness

Perception of the effectiveness of paternalistic leadership is very sensitive to cultures. For example, paternalistic leader behaviors in individualistic and low power distance cultures are perceived ineffective because followers in that cultures perceive their paternalistic leader violate their private life and being exploitative and repressing (Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013). On the other hand, these leaders were found very effective in collectivistic and high power distance cultures. The reason for negative perception of paternalism in the Western context is that perceiving these leaders as authoritarian, however, in non-Western cultures such as China, India, Japan, Mexico and Turkey, employees are found satisfied with the reciprocate care and protection of paternal authority (Chen, Eberly, Chiang, Farh & Cheng, 2011; Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). They focus more on the benevolent dimension of paternalistic

leadership. The reason for perceiving paternalism positively in collectivistic cultures is explained by Aycan (2006). She mentioned that some constructs in collectivism are correlated with paternalism such as high conformity, responsibility-taking for other people, and interdependence (p.450). These three features in collectivism make subordinates to have a positive perception to paternalistic leaders.

As mentioned, another cultural context in which having a positive perception to paternalistic leaders is power distance. The characteristics of paternalistic leaders such as authority and the status difference are correlated with cultural characteristics of power distance such as power inequality across people. In high power distant cultures, power inequality is acceptable and people have no problems with it (Aycan, 2006). Therefore, paternalistic leaders are perceived effective in these cultures, whereas, it is criticized in Western cultures because of unquestioned power inequality. In Turkey, it is seen that concerning with the followers' private problems is an important view of effective leadership (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001). There is a positive correlation between employee attitudes and paternalistic leadership in collectivistic cultures including Turkey due to close personal relationships, protection, and support provided by leaders for employees (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). It has been argued that paternalistic leadership has a positive effect on followers' attitudes and behaviors (Gerçek, 2018) and has a positive correlation with job satisfaction in Turkey (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). Göncü, Aycan, and Johnson (2014) found that paternalistic leadership is positively correlated with organizational citizenship behavior and enhance employees' trust to leaders. Paternalistic leaders are one of the perceived effective leaders not only in Turkish culture but also in the western cultures considering other related variables. For example, Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) mentioned that paternalism may work in business contexts in the North America and an evidence from United States proposed that even authoritarian leadership could produce satisfaction in task-oriented groups even if it is in the Western context (p.572). In addition, researchers found that in North America, paternalistic leadership was found to have a positive effect on organizational commitment (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p.572).

In this research, paternalistic leaders are expected to perceive effective by the raters. However, although paternalistic leader behaviors are expected to be effective by the perception of followers, it is not expected that the most effective leaders are

paternalistic. The reason is that, paternalism has an authoritarian dimension and even in Asian context, in which paternalism is highly seen, this dimension has negative correlations with benevolent and morality dimensions. Besides, it has negative correlations with outcomes such as commitment, trust, and satisfaction with leaders (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p.573). In addition, Çıraklar, Uçar, and Sezgin (2016) found that the benevolent dimension of paternalism has a positive correlation with organizational identification through trust in leader, however authoritarian dimension has a negative correlation with organizational identification and this relationship cannot be explained by trust in leader. Due to the globalization process, authoritarian dimension of paternalism is not perceived effective in non-Western contexts.

2.3.2. Autocratic/Authoritarian Leadership

Authoritarian leadership is described as the “behavior that asserts absolute authority and control over subordinates and demands unquestionable obedience from subordinates” (Cheng et al. 2004, as cited in Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013, p.208). In this style of leadership, all decisions are taken by the leader (Korkmaz, Aras, Yücel & Kıygın, 2013). Autocratic leaders believe that they know the best and make decisions on their own (Ertüreten et al., 2013). They do not expect subordinates to make a comment on tasks and produce an idea about the duties. They show a strict control on their employees and they expect them to obey the determined rules (Ertüreten et al., 2013). Because of having strict control and emotional instability of authoritarian leader, these leaders can be seen abusive (Ertüreten et al, 2013). They do not care the personal growth of employees and meet their needs. While autocratic leadership is a traditional and old-fashioned leadership style, it still exists in the organizations.

2.3.2.1. Autocratic Leadership and Effectiveness

In general, the autocratic leadership style was seen as an ineffective and destructive style, especially in the Western context in which high individualism and low power distance (Ertüreten et al., 2013). Study results indicate the effectiveness of autocratic style is endured in cultures, which are high on power distance and collectivism (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). Dorfman and Howell (1988) investigated the

influence of cultural measures on leadership roles, organizational commitment, performance and satisfaction with job and supervisor in multinational companies located in Mexico and Taiwan. They have found that directive leadership behaviors which are related to autocratic style was positively associated with employees' satisfaction with the leader and organizational commitment for Chinese and Mexican samples which have high power distance and collectivistic values. The effectiveness of autocratic leadership style in high power distant contexts can be explained by the decision making process of people. For example, in an autocratic style, decision-making was done by the leader and in high power distant cultures, decision making is expected from the person at the top in the hierarchy (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). Therefore, leaders who are at the top of the hierarchy is expected to make decisions by themselves. Moreover, autocratic leader behaviors can be effective when there is a crisis situation. In crisis situations, consultation takes more time to make decisions and Yukl (2013) state that a leader who knows what to do and behave in a decisive way could be more effective than using participative style (p.116). In addition, autocratic leaders are more effective when they are more competent on the task than the followers (Yukl, 2013, p.167).

However, one cannot say that autocratic leadership is always effective in a non-Western context with high collectivism and power distance. Although India's culture fits non-Western cultural features, in Balaraman's (1989) study it was shown that autocratic leadership is associated with ineffective leadership. Furthermore, it was seen that Turkish leaders' score on the autocratic leadership style was high (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012; Giritli & Topçu-Oraz, 2003). In a study that search ideal leader behaviors and ideal leadership styles, it was seen that autocratic style is one of the preferred styles with charismatic, participative and paternalistic leadership (Giray, 2010, p.33). However, some study results showed that there is a relationship between autocratic leaders and mobbing in the Turkish context. For example, researchers found that authoritarian leadership increases the likelihood of mobbing and this creates employees' low job satisfaction and low affective commitment (Ertüreten et al., 2013). Another study revealed that autocratic leadership has a positive correlation with burnout and intention to quit the job (Telli, Ünsar & Oğuzhan, 2012). Considering the literature based on the preferences for autocratic leaders in the Turkish context, in this study, it is expected that autocratic leaders will be perceived as effective leaders.

However, it is not expected that autocratic leaders will be the most effective leaders because of their oppressive and destructive aspect.

1.3.3. Participative/Democratic Leadership

Participative leadership is also called democratic leadership is one of the major types of leadership behaviors (Yukl, 2013). Participative leaders encourage their followers to make comments and participate in decision-making process. However, the participants can be peers and outsiders (Yukl, 2013). Leaders make decisions in consultation with the employees, so the employees are informed about the working process of duties. Also, employees get a chance to discuss the problems (Chen & Tjosvold, 2006). Making employees participate in the decision-making process can increase employee commitment and growth, and quality of the decision (Yukl, 2013).

1.3.3.1. Participative Leadership and Effectiveness

The participative style was accepted as one of the effective leadership styles. For example, Likert (1967) argue that participative style is the superior style than other three main styles that he identified such as exploitative-authoritative, benevolent-authoritative, and consultative (Giritli & Topçu-Oraz, 2003, p.254). According to the researchers, the most effective side of this type of leadership is to make employees gain motivation and power by sharing information about the duties (Korkmaz et al., 2013, p.701). There are some examples that show benefits of participative decision-making in organizations (Somech, 2003). For example, Scully, Kirkpatrick and Locke (1995) showed that supervisors and subordinates reported more positive affect and perceptions when there is participation. In addition, they have found that participation is very useful when the followers have information which their leaders do not have. Locke and Latham (1990) found that participation improves motivation of employees (Somech, 2003, p.1003), Smylie and colleagues (1996) showed that participation increases satisfaction of employees, and Armenakis et al. (1993) demonstrated that it increases commitment among employees (Somech, 2003, p.1003). Yukl (2013) noted the benefits of participative leadership based on situational variables and the participants.

The effectiveness of participative leadership on employee and organizational outcomes was found sensitive for different cultural contexts (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). Power distance is one of the cultural values that creates different perceptions of participative leadership. Researchers state that participative leader behaviors are not suited to characteristics of power distance because employees can see those leaders as weak and incompetent (Newman & Nollen, 1996). That is because people in high power distance cultures believe that leaders are the ones who have the highest knowledge and can be trusted to make the right decisions (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). It was found that participative leader behaviors could not improve employee performance and it had a counterproductive effect on employees' performance in Russia which has high power distance values (Welsh, Luthans & Sommer, 1993). However, Newman and Nollen's (1996) study showed that in low power distant cultures such as the U.S., participative behaviors of leaders make an increase in the profitability of work units, but it has no influence in high power distant cultures. Moreover, a study conducted in a hospital in Iran showed that although managers mainly demonstrate participative style, participative management did not increase hospital effectiveness and efficiency and researchers suggested that managers should adopt leadership styles according to the organizational culture and employees' organizational maturity (Rad & Yarmohammadian, 2006).

The effectiveness of participative leadership is proved and demonstrated in Germanic, Nordic Europe and Anglo clusters by GLOBE project which have high individualistic cultural values (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). However, there were some inconsistent results about the effectiveness of participative leadership in collectivistic cultures. Dorfman and colleagues (1997) investigated the effectiveness of leadership styles comparing different countries such as Mexico, United States, Taiwan, Japan, and South Korea. They have found that participative leadership slightly improve job satisfaction only in South Korea which is high in collectivism. When they investigate the relationship between job performance and participative leadership, only in the United States, which is highly individualist, there was a positive relationship. Participative leadership was found negatively correlated with commitment in Taiwan, which has high collectivistic cultural values (Dorfman, Howell, Hibino, Lee, Tate & Bautista, 1997). Saige and Aycan (2003) mentioned that participation is relevant to the whole group rather than individual participation in collectivistic cultures, which means

that decision approval of all group members is important in collectivistic cultures. Besides power distance and collectivism, in cultures high on uncertainty avoidance and low on gender egalitarianism (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012) there is a negative correlation with participative leadership. Yukl (2013) summarized that participative leadership cannot be effective if participants do not trust their leader or not want to take responsibility for the decisions, and if there is time pressure to share decisions.

Studies conducted in Turkey demonstrated that Turkish leaders show both participative and autocratic behaviors. Aycan and Fikret-Paşa (2003) found that participative leadership is highly preferred style after charismatic style by Turkish university students. Similarly, one study showed that participative leadership is found to be least preferred among four styles such as consultative, authoritarian, paternalistic and participative in a Turkish organization (Giritli, Öney-Yazıcı, Topçu-Oraz & Acar, 2013). Researchers argue that participative leader behaviors can be perceived in different meanings in Turkey compared to other cultural contexts (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal, & Bodur, 2001). In general, participative leaders show participation behaviors to increase decision quality, make employees to discuss the problems and produce ideas. In Turkey, ideal leaders are perceived as decisive because of their status and making decisions on their own. Although Turkish employees have this thought, they feel valued if their leaders let them participate the decision-making process. Development of decision quality and seeking consensus in ideas is not so important, but making employees feel that they belong to the group is expected in Turkish context (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal, & Bodur, 2001). Therefore, although Turkey is high on power distance, it is expected that participative leadership behaviors will be perceived effective, however, because of power distance cultural effect, participative leader behaviors may be perceived as leaders' inadequacy on the job.

2.3.4. Full Range of Leadership Model

Bass and Avolio (1991) developed a full range of leadership which includes transformational and transactional leader behaviors. It goes from laissez-faire to levels of transactional leadership and to transformational leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Transactional and transformational leadership theory has become a popular topic for researches for approximately 30 years. This theory was firstly introduced by Burns (1978) about political leadership (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p.755). Later, it was

improved by Bass (1985) and applied in management (Burke & Collins, 2001). Burns (1978) viewed transformational and transactional leadership were at the opposite end of a continuum (Silverthorne, 2005). However, according to Bass and Avolio (1990) transformational and transactional leadership styles were not different from each other. Silverthorne (2005) mentioned about Bass's argument that these two styles have the same purposes, however, they use different ways to reach these purposes. For example, Bass and Avolio see transformational leadership as an additive style to transactional leadership by providing understanding and maturity, increasing the motivation of the followers and their sense of self-worth (Silverthorne, 2005). In addition, the motivational potential of transformational leadership style exceeds the leadership models which are like leader-follower exchanges or transactions such as fulfilling followers' needs if their performance fulfills expectations (Hater & Bass, 1988).

2.3.4.1. Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership can be defined as a vision-based leadership. Transformational leaders behave as a model to motivate and inspire employees to show their best performance (Westerberg & Tafvelin, 2014). The dynamics of transformational leadership was pointed out by Hater and Bass (1988) that this style "involve strong personal identification with the leader, joining in a shared vision of the future, or going beyond the self-interest exchange of rewards for compliance" (p. 695). With the emphasis on vision and development of the individuals, transformational leadership has become a popular leadership style (Carless, 1998). Transformational leaders give importance on articulating a vision, encouraging development of subordinates, giving feedbacks, using a participative decision-making with subordinates, making a collaborative and trustful environment at work (Carless, 1998). One of the aims of transformational leaders is to make followers reach higher performance beyond expectations (Bass & Riggio, 2006) and begin the change in organization with growth (Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013). As mentioned in the previous section, motivating followers is the important feature of a leader. Bass (1985) referred transformational leaders motivate followers with increasing their awareness of the importance of the determined outcomes, making followers to transcend their own self-interests, and activate followers' higher-order needs (Hater & Bass, 1988; Silverthorne, 2005), therefore, they have an effect on subordinates. They enhance their

subordinates' performance, commitment, potency and cohesiveness (Bass, Avolio, Jung, Berson, 2003).

To measure these leadership styles Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) was developed by Avolio, Bass & Jung (1999) (Eagly, Johannesen & van Engen, 2003, p.571). MLQ is the most popular questionnaire to measure transformational leader behaviors. Four components of transformational leadership style were identified. These components have been determined by factor analysis, interviews observations and descriptions of employees' ideal leader (Bass et al., 2003). Transformational leaders use these one or more components to reach excellent results with their colleagues and followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The components are 'Idealized influence', 'Inspirational motivation', 'Intellectual stimulation', and 'Individualized consideration'.

2.3.4.1.1. Components of Transformational leadership

Idealized influence/Charisma. Idealized influence is strongly seen when leaders have a vision and sense of mission, have trust, respect and confidence, and have strong individual identification from their subordinates (Bass & Avolio, 1990). Subordinates admire, trust and respect to these leaders and they want to imitate their leaders. Because charismatic leaders or leaders with idealized influence are role models for their subordinates (Bass, 1997). These leaders can get the required extra effort from their subordinates to reach maximum performance (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In addition, these leaders are willing to take risks and they are self-confident, determined and highly competent (Bass, 1997). Idealized influence has two aspects as attribute and behavior. Antonakis and colleagues (2003) explained that "idealized influence (attributed) refers to socialized charisma of the leader, whether the leader is perceived as being confident and powerful, and whether the leader is viewed as focusing on higher-order ideals and ethics. Idealized influence (behavior) refers to charismatic actions of the leader that are centered on values, beliefs, and a sense of mission" (Antonakis, Avolio, & Sivasubramaniam, 2003, p. 264). Bass (1997) described charisma is an attributed idealized influence of leaders. Charismatic leaders are perceived as having an influence on followers with extraordinary capabilities.

Inspirational Motivation. Bass (1997) remarked inspirational motivation is related to idealized influence / charisma components but not the same. Leader behaviors related

to inspirational motivation is identified as energizing employees by optimistic future viewing, reflecting an idealized vision, emphasizing goals, and telling employees that vision can be achieved (Antonakis et al., 2003). They are optimistic and enthusiastic and they imagine an attractive future for the followers. These leaders use simple language, symbols or images to inspire the followers by providing meaning and challenge (Bass, 1997). They aroused individual and team spirit (Bass et al, 2003).

Intellectual Stimulation. Bass (1997) explained intellectually stimulating leaders' behavior as encouraging creative thinking reframing problems and questioning assumptions. They create new perspectives to old problems and they want followers to behave in that way. They behave in a way that appeals to subordinates' sense of logic and analysis by making them think in a creative way and find solutions to different problems (Antonakis et al., 2003). Regardless of the leader's facilitation, followers become effective problem solvers (Bass & Avolio, 1990). These leaders do not make fun of followers' behavior and do not make public criticisms of their mistakes (Bass et al., 2003).

Individualized Consideration. Leaders who show individualized consideration behavior promotes to satisfaction of followers by advising and supporting them, care about individual needs of followers. They pay attention to subordinates' development, self-actualization (Antonakis et al., 2003), need for achievement and growth by behaving as a mentor and a coach (Bass et al., 2003). They provide feedback for employees (Bass & Avolio, 1990). In addition, these leaders know about individual differences and care about different needs and desires of followers (Bass et al., 2003). New opportunities about development and learning are designed for the subordinates by leaders (Bass, 1997).

2.3.4.1.2. Transformational Leadership and Effectiveness

Since the terms of transformational and transactional leadership styles was developed, it has been researched in many different settings consisting labs and fields. Health, military, architecture, industry, public or private sectors are involved in research of transformational leadership. Researchers noted that in these different work settings, if there is a transformational leader, high satisfaction, performance and effort is seen among employees (Howell & Avolio, 1993). Bass, Avolio, and Atwater (1996)

stated that if leaders are rated as transformational, followers show more effort, performance and satisfaction. Many positive associations found between transformational leadership and positive organizational outcomes. For example, it was found that transformational leadership is positively associated with procedural justice which has an effect on followers' trust and satisfaction (Silverthorne, 2005, p.89), organizational citizenship behaviors, performance, empowerment of employees, job and supervisory satisfaction (Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013, p.207). Negative job outcomes such as employees' job-related stress and role stress were found negatively associated with transformational leaders (Ertüreten, Cemalcılar & Aycan, 2013, p.207). In addition, Dvir et al.'s (2002) study demonstrated that if participants are trained as transformational leaders, they get higher performance and show more effectiveness (Bass et al., 2003, p.209). It has shown that transformational leadership is particularly popular to investigate.

Bass & Avolio (1990) stated that transformational leaders are more effective than transactional leaders without considering how effectiveness has evaluated or described. A meta-analysis study shows that components of transformational leadership have a higher correlation with effectiveness than components of transactional leadership (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivsubramaniam, 1996). Dum Dum et al.'s (2002) meta-analysis showed similar findings about the high positive correlation between transformational leadership and effectiveness. Moreover, researchers proved that some aspects of transformational leadership are universally confirmed across cultures (Den Hartog, House, Hanges & Ruiz-Quintanilla & Dorfman, 1999).

Transformational leaders are adaptive to changing situations and expectations of followers (Bass & Riggio, 2006). The universal effectiveness of transformational leaders may be due to meeting the changing needs of followers in different situations. Although many studies have conducted in the Western context, some studies showed that transformational leadership is seen more effective in collectivistic cultures (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). Kabasakal and Bodur's (2002) study of investigating the Arabic cluster's cultural features, which include Turkey, showed that leaders who show transformational behaviors are perceived positively. In addition, the decisions of transformational leaders were seen fairer in high power distant culture than cultures low on power distance (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012, p.1138). Hofstede's (1980) study demonstrated that Turkey is high on collectivism and power distance orientation

(Fikret-Paşa, 2000, p.415). In this research, it is expected that subordinates will perceive transformational leaders as the most effective leaders in the workplace.

Hypothesis 1a: Transformational leadership will be the most effective leadership style than the other styles in Turkey.

Bass and Riggio (2006) noted transformational leaders have more satisfied subordinates than other leaders who adopt different leadership styles. Two meta-analyses of Dum Dum et al. (2002) and Lowe et al. (1996) showed consistent results about high correlations between follower satisfaction and all components of transformational leadership. It was stated that considering the relationship between employees and supervisors is high on transformational leadership (Mathieu, Fabi, Lacoursière & Raymond, 2015). In addition, Sheresta (2012) found that satisfaction with the leader mediated the relationship between transformational style and leader effectiveness but it is not valid for the transactional style. Therefore, it is expected that followers are most satisfied with leaders who show transformational behaviors.

Hypothesis 1b: Transformational leadership will be the most satisfied leadership style than the other styles in Turkey.

2.3.4.2. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leaders are identified as “leaders who lead primarily by using social exchanges for transactions” (Robbins, 2007, as cited in Chaudhry & Javed, 2012, p.259). In this model of leadership, the relationship between the leader and subordinates is rest on exchanges or bargains (Howell & Avolio, 1993). The leaders contract an agreement with their followers about what is need to be done, and then, they monitor the working process and control the outcomes (Antonakis, Avolio & Sivasubramaniam, 2003). The leaders determine and provide the basic or other needs of their followers. Furthermore, they provide a reputation and prestige. They increase the followers’ sensitivity to the leader (Karip, 1998). In transactional leadership, there is a reciprocal relationship. Employees show their efforts for the requirements and leaders provide rewards for them (Silverthorne, 2005). However, the leader provides rewards based on followers’ success in completing their assignments (Bass et al., 2003). The effectiveness of the leader is related to the quality in this exchanging process. Employees, who perform well on the task, are provided for higher rewards

and reputation. On the other hand, employees who show poor performance are punished by the leader (Karip, 1998). The way of interests of transactional leaders is different from transformational leaders. Transactional leaders do not care more about the development of their subordinates compared to transformational leaders. They are not so interested in subordinates' creativity and innovativeness (Tengilimoğlu, 2005). They focus more on completing the requirements and attainment of the goals. However, if leaders want subordinates to perform beyond expectations, Bass (1998) referred that leaders need to show transformational behaviors (Judge & Piccolo, 2004). Transactional leaders prefer to avoid taking risks and care about time restrictions and concentrate on efficiency (Lowe et al., 1996, p.386). They sometimes delay decisions and focus on the follower mistakes in the tasks. Transactional leadership has two dimensions, which are 'Contingent reward' and 'Management-by-exception'.

2.3.4.2.1. Components of Transactional Leadership

Contingent Reward. Contingent reward refers that the leader determines the goals and inform the subordinates what they get when they meet these goals (Karip, 1998). Subordinates know what they must do and what they get after reaching determined goals. The leader uses rewards to motivate followers to get the expected outcomes. If this exchange relationship between leader and subordinates is mutual, the relationship continues with achievement of expected performance (Howell & Avolio, 1993). This component of transactional leadership is more constructive. There are some study results that show contingent reward behaviors of leaders has positively correlated with satisfaction and performance of subordinates (Howell & Avolio, 1993, p.892).

Management-by-exception. Transactional leaders sometimes focus more on mistakes, they can wait to make decision or keep away from intervene to the events when the things are not go wrong (Howell & Avolio, 1993). These behaviors are shown in the management-by-exception style. This component of transactional leadership has two forms, which are active and passive. In the active form of management-by-exception, the leaders control followers' performance on the tasks, observe them while they are doing their tasks and focus on their mistakes (Bass, 1997). In the passive form, leaders intervene to the actions only when the things go wrong (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996)

and standards are not met. The difference between active and passive form is related to the timing of leader's intervention (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

2.3.4.2.2. Transactional Leadership and Effectiveness

Bass claims that the best leaders can be both transformational and transactional (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p.755) because he did not see that these two styles are separate. In some situations, their effectiveness can change. For example, if organizations adopt innovative growth, transformational leadership will be effective, whereas, if they adopt a saving policy and stagnant growth, transactional leadership can be effective (Tengilimoğlu, 2005). However, according to results transactional leader behaviors were not found as effective as transformational behaviors. Bass and Avolio (1994) state that the components of transformational leadership are more effective than contingent reward leadership, but the contingent reward is still found effective (Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p.763). The meta-analysis study of Judge and Piccolo (2004) demonstrated that transformational and contingent reward leadership show the positive correlations with leadership criteria that are leadership effectiveness, followers' satisfaction with job and the leader, performance and motivation. Their meta-analysis also demonstrated that transformational leadership style had strong positive correlations with leader effectiveness and followers' satisfaction with the leader than contingent reward, whereas, contingent reward is significantly higher on followers' job satisfaction and leader job performance. Researchers argued that transactional contingent reinforcement was seen as the main effective leadership component before arising transformational leadership (Bass et al., 2003). It can be seen that the effectiveness of transactional leadership can be contingent upon its components.

There is less doubt on the effectiveness of contingent reward leadership. It was mentioned the contingent reward style of transactional leadership was found positively correlated with satisfaction, performance, and commitment of subordinates (Bass et al., 2003, p.208). However, while the contingent reward style was found effective, it had a less positive association with performance, and management-by-exception was found negatively correlated with performance (Burke & Collins, 2001, p.456). Researchers mentioned that the active form of management-by-exception style has a

positive correlation with effectiveness; however, passive form of management-by-exception has negative correlations with follower effectiveness (Bass, Avolio, Atwater, 1996). In Howell and Avolio's (1993) study, researchers expected that both transactional and transformational behaviors have contributions to unit performance, but, results showed that only transformational behaviors verified this expectation. Researchers of that study stated that supervisors should develop transformational behaviors for more effective leadership. It was concluded that there are some complicated results about the effectiveness of transactional leadership. In this research, transactional leadership style will be expected to have a positive correlation with perceived leadership effectiveness but it will not be effective as a transformational leadership style.

2.3.4.3. Laissez-faire Leadership

This leadership style can be defined as the absence or avoidance of leadership (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Leaders who adopt this style avoid making decisions, act reluctantly to take actions and solve problems, and do not give feedback to the subordinates (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuckinke, 2016). The leader neither act as an authority nor take the responsibilities of the position (Antonakis et al., 2003). Laissez-faire leadership is not like transformational and transactional leadership styles in a sense that they do not contribute to the development of employees and they do not satisfy the need of the subordinates by using rewards and other tools. This leadership style is seen the most passive and ineffective style (Antonakis et al., 2003) and employees are not satisfied with these leaders (Asrar-ul-Haq & Kuckinke, 2016).

2.4. The Effect of Gender Role Attitudes on Leadership Styles and Effectiveness

Formerly, conducting leadership studies for understanding whether there are gender differences in leadership positions was not easy because there were not so many women working in this position. When the number of women increase in working life and reach the leadership positions, researchers pay attention to the difference between men and women leaders in organizations.

Some early studies, approximately in 1970s, showed that leadership is not suitable for women, because of sex-role stereotypes (Hare, Koenigs & Hare, 1997,

p.438), it was thought that managerial positions can have the requirements of masculine traits such as being competitive, assertive and tough-minded (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996, p.6). Bass and colleagues (1996) mentioned that because of feminine traits, women were not expected to be successful leaders (p.6) or they had to show masculine behaviors to be successful (p.8). However, Rosener (1990) argue that women have a different way of leading than traditional masculine approach (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996, p.7) and Eagly (2007) mentioned female leaders show leadership behaviors, which are correlated with effective performance more than male leaders. There is a shift from masculine type to the feminine type of leadership in most modern organizational contexts and female leaders have more advantage in these contexts (Paustian-Underdahl, Walker & Woehr, 2014, p1). Some researchers stated that person-oriented leadership draws attention besides task-oriented leadership (Stelter, 2002) and the tendency of females to person-orientation can create valuing relationships between leaders and followers. Moreover, some of the researches showed male leaders were evaluated more positively than females in more masculine type of organizations, and female leaders were evaluated more positively in less masculine type of organizations (Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995) and others showed no difference between male and female leaders in their leadership roles (Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996, p.7). Hare, Koenign and Hare (1997) argue that if there are no actual differences between males and females, the differences between them can derive from self-fulfilling beliefs. For example, if group members do not think women to be a good leader, they can resist getting orders from a female leader or female leader also can believe this and behaves less confident in her leadership role. That is, the influence of gender on leadership can be seen quite complicated because of inconsistent results of the studies, but there is some evidence that gender have an effect on leadership evaluation.

2.4.1. Gender and Stereotypes

Before examining the relationship between leadership and gender, the definition of gender should be explained. Gender is sometimes used instead of sex. However, sex means that being a man or woman in biological (Dökmen, 2004, p.17), whereas, gender means that a society or culture attribute a meaning or expectation on being a man or woman. This covers a cultural structure and generally relates to the

psychological characteristics associated with the individual's biological structure (Dökmen, 2004, p.20). The society define the gender roles and expect women and men to carry out what is described related to their gender (Dökmen, 2004, p.30). Because of this, the perceptions of appropriate behaviors of men and women are affected by gender stereotypes (Wang, Chiang, Tsai, Lin & Cheng, 2013). For example, men are expected to show more 'agentic' characteristics such as being more competitive, having control, being assertive, dominant, and independent; women are expected to show more 'communal' characteristics such as being kind, helpful, sensitive to others, and nurturant (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p.783). Eagly and Karau (2002) mentioned that gender roles have a pervasive effect and gender stereotypes are activated automatically (p.574).

2.4.2. Role Congruity Theory

Traditionally gender stereotypes of men are related to the having breadwinner and high-status roles, whereas, for women it is related to staying at home or having low-status roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). These gender stereotypes continue to appear in organizational contexts and leadership. If people perceive incongruence between gender and leadership role, their evaluations change toward leaders' gender, especially for female leaders (Wang et al., 2013). Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) is one of the theories that reveal these differences in the evaluation of male and female leaders. According to this theory, there is a prejudice toward female leaders, which is related to the incongruence between their gender role and leadership role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In addition, this theory explains if women leaders show agentic leadership behaviors, there will be an incongruence between their gender and leadership roles, which may lead subordinates to have unfavorable perceptions about them (Wang et al., 2013, p101).

2.4.3. Gender and Effectiveness of Leadership Styles

In the literature, there are mix results about the effects of gender differences on leadership styles. Although there are some researches that show differences between men and women in terms of leadership styles, other studies demonstrated similarities between genders more than differences (Dökmen, 2004). Researchers argue that

gender differences in leadership is unquestionable for biological view (Chackraborty & Saha, 2017), however, some researchers support that experience of women and men are different even in their childhood. For example, they could play differently and use different methods to influence others (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, p.235). Therefore, when they reach a managerial position, they would bring different groups of skills (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, p.235).

In general, according to gender stereotypes, people expect women to use more interpersonally oriented leadership styles and men to use more task-oriented leadership styles to lead (Eagly & Johnson, 1990). Most researchers argue that female leaders tend to focus more on the relationships between employees but male leaders focus more on the task-related issues, and they differ in the influencing, communicating and acting processes (Chackraborty & Saha, 2017, p.131). Some leadership styles have more common features with communal or agentic characteristics, therefore, they have been found more suitable for male or female leaders. For example, transformational, participative leadership were found more related to females and autocratic, paternalistic and transactional leadership were found more related to males (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Bass, Avolio & Atwater, 1996). The differences in leadership styles between genders are due to the congruency with communal and agentic characteristics.

However, not only how male and female leaders tend to adopt different or similar styles, but also how they are perceived by others is important. Studies, which show evidence for gender differences, started to focus on perceptions of leadership (Aldoory & Toth, 2004, p.160). Johnson and colleagues (2008) tried to show whether male and female leaders are associated with more communal and agentic styles than each other are and how they are evaluated if they are high on these styles. It was found that communal leadership is more associated with females and agentic leadership is more associated with males as expected. Female leaders who show more sensitivity as a communal feature are perceived more positively than males who show sensitivity. A male leader who show more strength as an agentic feature were perceived more positively than females who show more strength and more sensitivity. Gardiner and Tiggeman (1999) have found that if behaviors of female leaders are not suitable with the expectations of evaluator's, they are evaluated negatively as leaders (Stelter, 2002, p.96). Similarly, it was mentioned that male and female leaders would be perceived effective if they have leadership styles congruent with their gender roles (Eagly, Karau

& Makhijani, 1995). Therefore, it was thought that men and women who show the same leadership style could be perceived differently according to the evaluator's perception about the congruency between leadership and gender role.

Early studies as prior to 1990s, have focused more on the task-oriented and person-oriented leadership styles among men and women, and the leadership dimension lied from directive style and democratic style (Chakraborty & Saha, 2017). One of the popular studies was conducted by Eagly and Johnson (1990) to understand the relationship between gender and leadership styles. They have conducted a meta-analysis study and have investigated 162 studies, which compare men and women leaders. They have found that as well as male leaders, females show task-related behaviors however; it was found that women tend to show more democratic and participative leadership and they show less autocratic style than male counterparts do.

Uğurlu (2009) mentioned about Bartol and Butterfield's (1976) study which is about the interaction between the leadership style and gender of the leader in the evaluation of leadership behavior (p.22). Researchers have presented readings about male and female leaders and asked university students to evaluate four types of leadership styles including autocratic and democratic styles of both female and male leaders. Participants have read the materials and evaluated female leaders more positively than male leaders for democratic style, and autocratic leadership style evaluated more positively when a male leader presented it.

Some researchers investigated different outcomes related to leadership styles and gender influence. In a study, it was investigated that interaction between authoritarian and benevolent leadership styles and leader gender which have an influence on subordinate performance (Wang et al., 2013). Researchers found that even authoritarian leadership was negatively related to subordinate performance, it was stronger more female leaders than males. However, benevolent leadership was found to increase subordinate performance and was stronger for male leaders.

In another meta-analysis study of Eagly, Karau and Makhijani (1995), it was found that men and women leaders are equally effective; however, there are some differences in masculine organizational contexts. For example, it was found that male leaders tend to be more effective than female counterparts in leadership roles which was more appropriate for men, whereas, female leaders were found to more effective

in leadership roles which was more suited for women. Women were found more effective in leadership roles that was more feminine and have the requirements of interpersonal abilities, get along with others. In contrast, men were found more effective in masculine positions that requires task ability, control over people. These findings showed that if there is a congruence between leadership role and gender role, leaders perceived more effective. More current meta-analysis study of Paustian-Underdahl, Walker and Woehr (2014) found the similar results that females are evaluated more effective than males in the feminine type of organizations such as business and education.

Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky (1992) conducted a meta-analysis study to examine the evaluation of males and female who occupy leadership roles. They have examined whether employees are biased against female leaders. They have found that there is a small tendency for employees to evaluate female leaders less favorably than males. However, this tendency is mostly seen when female leaders have masculine based leadership style such as autocratic or directive style. As a result, if females and males have the same leadership styles, followers have evaluated them differently. In this research, it was expected that if followers have traditional stereotyped gender role, participative female leaders will be found more effective than participative male leaders and autocratic male leaders will be found more effective than female leaders who show autocratic behaviors due to the congruency in leadership styles and gender roles.

Hypothesis 2a: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show participative leader behaviors will be perceived more effective by their followers than participative male leaders.

Hypothesis 2b: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show participative leader behaviors will be more satisfied by their followers than participative male leaders.

Hypothesis 3a: When the followers have traditional gender role, female leaders who show autocratic leader behaviors will be perceived less effective by their followers than autocratic male leaders.

Hypothesis 3b: When the followers have traditional gender role, female leaders who show autocratic leader behaviors will be less satisfied by their followers than autocratic male leaders.

In the literature, there are not so many sources for the perceptions of paternalistic leadership in terms of gender. Rigg and Sparrow (1994) indicate that male leaders tend to show more paternalistic and authoritative behavior, however, female leaders tend to behave more people-oriented in leadership. (Chackraborty & Saha, 2017, p.129). Although paternalistic leadership has benevolent features, because of its autocratic aspect, male leaders are expected to be perceived as more effective.

Hypothesis 4a: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show paternalistic leader behaviors will be perceived less effective by their followers than paternalistic male leaders.

Hypothesis 4b: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show paternalistic leader behaviors will be less satisfied by their followers than paternalistic male leaders.

After transformational leadership style has become popular, gender researches in leadership have started to conduct on transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. Although transformational and transactional leadership are not seen very related to gender roles, transformational leadership has some communal characteristics such as mentoring and considering the improvement of followers and care about their needs (Eagly & Johannessen-Schmidt, 2001, p.787). Therefore, transformational leadership is seen as more suited for the female gender role. Bass, Avolio & Atwater (1996) investigated whether female and male leaders were rated as showing more transformational, transactional or laissez-faire styles than each other. Furthermore, participants rated the outcome variables about leaders such as being effective, satisfied by followers and securing extra effort from followers. Results showed that female leaders were rated as showing transformational behaviors more than male leaders and followers rated that they were more satisfied with female leaders, female leaders were perceived as more effective than males, and also, female leaders were rated by followers to secure extra effort.

One popular research about gender differences in leadership styles was conducted by Carless (1998). She investigated gender differences in transformational

leadership with a sample of male and females working in a bank in Australia. The followers did not report any difference in showing transformational leadership behaviors between males and females. However, self-ratings of leaders have shown that females use transformational leadership behavior more than males especially in interpersonally oriented behaviors such as participative decision-making process, team contribution, caring of individual needs and praising individuals.

In their meta-analysis study, Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt & van Engen, (2003) found that, even if the difference was not large, women show more both transformational behaviors and contingent reward behaviors which is a component of transactional leadership. Men were found to show more active and passive forms of transactional leadership. In addition, female leaders were found more effective than male leaders.

Burke and Collins (2001) found that based on the self-ratings of leaders, females reported more transformational and contingent reward leadership behaviors than males. These two styles were found to be the most effective styles, respectively. One of the least effective styles, which are the active form of management-by-exception style, was found to be used by male leaders. In addition, they have found differences in perceived effectiveness of some management skills. Females are found to report high levels of perceived effectiveness in communicating, coaching and developing skills. These skills were found to correlate with the transformational leadership style.

Based on the findings of those studies, it was seen that female leaders tend to use more transformational behaviors and contingent reward behaviors than males. In the literature, these leadership styles were found more effective than other styles and women are perceived more effective because they use these styles more. However, in this research, it is expected that if male and female leaders use transformational and transactional styles equally, they will be perceived differently in their effectiveness. Korabik and colleagues (1993) study showed that when male leaders show feminine characteristics such as being benevolent, they were rated as less effective (Aldoory & Toth, 2004, p.161).

Hypothesis 5a: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show transformational leadership behaviors will be perceived more effective by their followers than transformational male leaders.

Hypothesis 5b: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show transformational leadership behaviors will be more satisfied by their followers than transformational male leaders.

Hypothesis 6a: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show transactional leader behaviors will be perceived less effective by their followers than transactional male leaders.

Hypothesis 6b: When the followers have traditional gender role perceptions, female leaders who show transactional leader behaviors will be less satisfied by their followers than transactional male leaders.

In conclusion, examining the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness is important because effective leadership can provide to reach the desired goals of the organization (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014) and it was seen that leadership styles are found to be the predictors of leader effectiveness (Balaraman, 1989). However, the traditional and new leadership styles were not preferred to investigate together, in the literature. Therefore, it is difficult to make evaluations based on the relative values and contributions of different leadership styles on leadership effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. This research aimed to show the effect of leadership styles on leader effectiveness as an integrative approach, that means both universal and culturally sensitive leadership styles were investigated together. Moreover, based on Role Congruity Theory when leaders' roles and gender roles are not congruent, leader effectiveness may be perceived differently by the evaluators. Therefore, examining the effect of gender and gender role attitudes, especially in cultures with low gender egalitarianism, is important. In the literature, many studies did not find the effect of gender on leadership effectiveness, however, there is a gap in revealing the effect of followers' gender role attitudes beside the effect of leader's gender. Therefore, it was aimed to show the importance of the effect of both leader's gender and gender role attitudes of followers on the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader. The research model was shown in Figure 1.

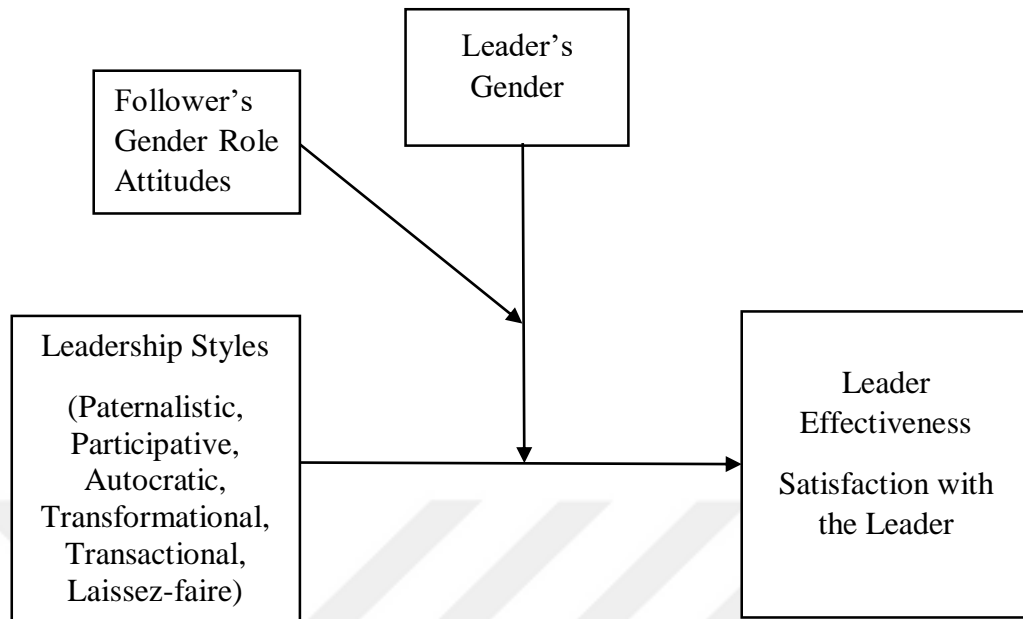


Figure 1. Research model: three-way interaction effect of leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on the relationship between leadership style and leader effectiveness and satisfaction with the leader.

CHAPTER 3

3. METHOD

3.1. Participants and Procedure

The participants of this study were 300 employees who are working in various organizations. 170 (56.7%) of the participants were female. Their ages ranged from 18 to 66 ($M = 34.69$, $SD = 9.18$). Majority of them (47,7%) had bachelor's degree, 18% high school, 16% master degree, 13.7% associate degree, and few of them (3%) had primary and middle school degrees. 112 of them (37.3%) had female leaders. The participants had different kinds of occupations. Predominantly, government officers, teachers, nurses, sales assistants, engineers, and psychologists were participated. After applying univariate and multivariate outlier analyses, the data consists of 291 participants.

The data was collected via online and paper and pencil form of survey. Participants, who were asked to participate via online survey, were given a survey link in some occupational group sites of social media in which they were the members of those groups. Others were asked in their work place to participate. Before asking to completing the survey, the executives and employees were informed and read the informed consent form. Only the volunteers were participated and there was no reward for participation. The survey took approximately 30 minutes in average. In general, completed surveys were taken immediately after the participants finished them. However, not having enough time of participants in their work place, some surveys were taken after one week.

3.2. Measures

3.2.1. Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire α

This questionnaire was developed by Ayca (2006). It was used to measure leaders' paternalistic behaviors that is perceived by their followers. It has 21 items and five factors consist the paternalistic leader behaviors such as 'creating a family atmosphere at work', 'establishing individualized relationships', 'involvement in employees' non-work lives', 'expecting loyalty' and 'maintaining hierarchy and authority' (Ayca, 2006). This questionnaire has 5-point rating scale ranging from 1

(Definitely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree). The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was found .85.

3.2.2. Participative Leadership Questionnaire

Participative leader behaviors were measured with Sinha's (1995) Participative Leadership Questionnaire. This questionnaire consists of 10 items and have 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Definitely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree). Aycan and Fikret-Paşa (2003) adapted into Turkish. The Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the scale was found .72.

3.2.3. Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire

Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire which was developed by Cheng, Chou, Wu, Huang and Farh (2004) was measured to leaders' autocratic behaviors. There were 9 items and Cronbach Alpha coefficient of the questionnaire was found .89. It was a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Definitely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree). Giray (2010) adapted this questionnaire into Turkish. However, Turkish form of this questionnaire consists of 12 items. Three items were added on the original scale of Cheng and colleagues (2004) from Fikret-Paşa's (2000) scale to measure supervisor's autocratic behavior. After applying factor analysis, one item was rejected and there were 11 items in the end.

3.2.4. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles was measured with the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X-Short Form) which is developed by Avolio and Bass (1995). The use of right of this questionnaire was obtained from website of MindGarden, Inc. (www.mindgarden.com). The MLQ has two forms as the Leader Form and the Rater Form. In this research, only the Rater Form of the MLQ was used. The Rater Form is used to measure perceived transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leader behaviors. There are 5-point rating scales with ranging from 0 (Not at all) to 4 (Frequently). The MLQ 5X-Short Form consists of 45 items. Twenty items are to measure transformational behaviors with its five sub-scales. Twelve items are for measuring transactional leadership with its three sub-scales and four items for laissez-faire leadership. Each of the sub-scales of transformational and transactional leadership is measuring with four items. Lastly, nine items are to measure leader's effectiveness, satisfaction with leader, and readiness

to exert extra effort on job. In this research, the first 36 items that used for perceived leader behaviors was evaluated. The Cronbach alpha coefficient of original version of the MLQ ranged from .74 to .94 for total scale, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire in total and their components (Dönmez, 2014). Turkish version of the MLQ was obtained from the same website. However, validity and reliability of different language versions including Turkish are not guaranteed from MindGarden, Inc. Therefore, all Turkish and English items of the MLQ, the author's translation and one popular Turkish translation which was done by Akdoğan (2002) of this questionnaire were rated and regulated by four academicians. The most selected Turkish items by four academicians were accepted and used in this questionnaire.

3.2.5. Leader Effectiveness Scale

To measure leader effectiveness, 4-item Leader Effectiveness Scale was used. This scale was developed by Chen and Tjosvold (2005) and adapted into Turkish by Yılmaz (2014). The original form of the scale consists of five items. This is a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Not at all) to 5 (Frequently). After analyzing to adaptation into Turkish, one item was rejected and four items were left, therefore, one factor structure of the scale was verified. Leader Effectiveness Scale by Yılmaz (2014) was preferred to use in this research because it measures the perceived general effectiveness of the leader without emphasizing cultural and contextual features.

3.2.6. Job Satisfaction Survey (Supervision)

Supervisory satisfaction of employees was measured by Spector's (1997) Job Satisfaction Survey. There are 36 items with 8 sub-scales of total satisfaction. It was a Likert-type scale ranging from 1 (Definitely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree). These sub-scales are pay, promotion, supervision, fringe benefits, contingent rewards, operating conditions, coworkers, nature of job and communication. The Cronbach alpha coefficients for sub-scales were found .75, .73, .82, .73, .76, .62, .60, .78 and .71, respectively. Total reliability score of the scale was .91. Turkish adaptation of the scale was done by Ceylan (2010). In this research, only the 4-item supervision sub-scale was used (item numbers are 3, 12, 21 and 30). Two (number 12 and 21) of four items were negatively scored.

3.2.7. Perception of Gender Scale

Perception of Gender Scale was developed by Altınova and Duyan (2013) to assess the people's perception of gender. It is a 5-point Likert type scale ranging from 1 (Definitely disagree) to 5 (Absolutely agree). It consists of 25 items with the Cronbach Alpha value of .87. The 2., 4., 6., 9., 10., 12., 15., 16., 17., 18., 19., 20., 21., 24. and 25. items are negatively coded. The scale score range from 25 to 125 which high score means participants' perception of gender is positive.

3.2.8. Demographic Variables

Participants' age, gender, leader's gender, education status, occupation, type of sector (education, health, etc.) was asked. In addition, the participants were asked how long they have been in work life, how long they have been working in their work place, how long they have been working with their leaders and whether or not they had management duties in their work place.

3.3. Data Analysis

For data analysis SPSS 22.0 was used. Means, standard deviations and reliabilities were computed. First purpose of analyzing the data is to understand which of the leadership styles is the best predictor of leader effectiveness. To determine the relationship between leadership styles and leadership effectiveness, multiple regression analysis was used. Second purpose is to understand whether there is an effect of leader's gender and followers' gender perceptions on the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness. To determine the moderation effect of leader's gender and participants' perception of gender on the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness, three-way interaction analysis was conducted using PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). In addition, confirmatory factor analysis was conducted to analyze the structure of Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) was used for confirmatory factor analysis.

CHAPTER 4

4. RESULTS

In this section, the analysis of the data collected from the research survey will be presented. It will start with the results of the explanatory and confirmatory factor analysis for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). Later, descriptive statistics, correlations among research variables and reliabilities of the questionnaires will be demonstrated. Then, multiple regression analysis will be applied to understand which of the leadership styles is the best predictor for leadership effectiveness. Finally, three-way interaction analysis will be applied to understand the moderation effect of leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes on the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness.

4.1. Explanatory Factor Analysis and Confirmatory Factor Analysis for the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

The reliability and validity of Turkish version of the MLQ did not guaranteed by the publisher. Therefore, to test the psychometric soundness of the scale, reliability analysis, explanatory factor analysis (EFA) and confirmatory factor analysis (CFA) was conducted. First, to test the distribution of the items that measure the main components of the MLQ, which are transformational, transactional and laissez-faire items, three factors were chosen in explanatory factor analysis in SPSS. Principle component analysis (direct oblimin rotation) was applied. The communality estimates of the items were checked and four items (item number 4, 17, 22 and 27) were removed from the analysis because of having scores under .40. Then the analysis was repeated. Two items (item number 13 and 14) were removed because of loading two factors at the same time. Table 1 shows the means, standard deviations, factor loadings and communality estimates of the MLQ items after the six items removed from the analysis.

The value of Kaiser-Meyer Olkin (KMO) was .95 and Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was significant ($p = .00$). These results demonstrated that this sample is adequate and the factor analysis is appropriate to be applied. The Eigenvalues of the three factors was above 1. The three factors represent 61.56% of the total variance.

The first factor explained 48.81%, the second factor explained 8.52%, and the last factor explained 4.22% of the variance. All items had factor loadings above .50.

Table 1. Factor loadings from a three-factor model of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (N = 264)

Item numbers	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	F1	F2	F3	<i>h</i> ²
MLQ21	3.44	1.271	.884			.801
MLQ36	3.50	1.211	.868			.776
MLQ25	3.53	1.221	.830			.724
MLQ10	3.31	1.348	.830			.681
MLQ16	3.22	1.204	.826			.653
MLQ31	3.19	1.383	.817			.800
MLQ19	3.42	1.240	.814			.666
MLQ26	3.36	1.326	.797			.658
MLQ30	3.34	1.223	.784			.749
MLQ18	2.93	1.336	.770			.519
MLQ1	3.32	1.188	.766			.617
MLQ9	3.53	1.068	.763			.522
MLQ29	3.05	1.209	.753			.550
MLQ15	3.25	1.337	.707			.622
MLQ11	3.47	1.202	.698			.477
MLQ32	3.39	1.241	.684			.659
MLQ23	3.48	1.143	.678			.583
MLQ35	3.72	1.150	.677			.568
MLQ34	3.34	1.217	.664		-.319	.566
MLQ2	3.62	1.061	.639			.519
MLQ8	3.52	1.167	.634			.572
MLQ3	2.17	1.264		.768		.674
MLQ28	1.87	1.083		.726		.564
MLQ12	2.02	1.202		.716		.656
MLQ20	2.33	1.208		.706		.436
MLQ33	2.32	1.257		.665		.474
MLQ5	2.02	1.238		.655		.617
MLQ7	2.15	1.245		.591		.611
MLQ24	2.87	1.260			-.831	.705
MLQ6	2.93	1.319		.331	-.517	.449

Note. F1 = Transformational leadership, F2 = Laissez-faire leadership, F3 = Transactional leadership, *h*² = Communality estimates.

The EFA results showed that the components of the MLQ for this research was not fit with the components of the original questionnaire developed by Bass and Avolio (1995) which was mentioned in the previous sections. It was seen that all the items, except one item, of transformational leadership and all items of contingent reward sub-dimension of transactional leadership were loaded in the first factor. All laissez-faire leadership items and three of management-by-exception (passive) items were loaded in the second factor. The third factor consisted of one item of management-by-exception (active) sub-dimension of transactional leadership and one item of transformational leadership. In addition, according to the results of the EFA, five sub-dimensions of transformational and three sub-dimensions of transactional leadership could not supported in this research.

This research's factor analysis results about the structure of the MLQ are consistent with some studies that were conducted out of the U.S. Hetland and Sandal (2003) assessed the empirical soundness of the MLQ in a Norwegian sample and found that all transformational and contingent reward items were loaded in the first factor, laissez-faire and management-by-exception (passive) items were loaded in the second factor, and management-by-exception (active) factor were loaded in the third factor. The researchers called the laissez-faire and management-by-exception (passive) dimension as passive-avoidant leadership. Similarly, Edwards et al. (2012) investigated the factor structure of the MLQ in the U.K. sample and found that laissez-faire and management-by-exception (passive) leadership are the same concept, and contingent reward sub-dimension of transactional leadership has a high and positive correlation with transformational leadership. In addition, Den Hartog et al. (1997) investigated the MLQ structure in Dutch organizations and showed that passive management-by-exception items were included in laissez-faire leadership, and when they considered this structure, Cronbach alphas of these scales were increasing above .70. However, they have suggested that the three-factor structure of the MLQ can be named as inspirational, rational-objective, and passive leadership instead of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership, respectively.

Second, confirmatory factor analysis was applied to the MLQ to confirm the factor structure of the questionnaire and show the goodness of fit indices of the model. LISREL 8.51 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 2001) was used for this analysis. Four models were compared with each other. Model 1 is a one-factor model that represents three

dimensions as one factor. Model 2 is a two-factor model that represents MLQ consists of transformational and transactional leadership. Model 3 is a three-factor model that shows the original structure of the MLQ according to Bass and Avolio (1995). Model 4 is a three-factor model according to the factor structures representing in Table 1. EFA was applied to all four models before testing of them with confirmatory factor analysis. To show the fit indices of four models, chi-square goodness of fit index (X^2), root mean square error of approximation (RMSEA), comparative fit index (CFI), expected cross validation index (ECVI), Tucker-Lewis index (TLI) or non-normed fit index (NNFI), and standardized root mean squared (SRMR) were evaluated.

Chi-square statistic (X^2) shows “the degree of discrepancy between the data’s variance/covariance pattern and that of the model being tested” (Matsunaga, 2010, p.106). RMSEA “estimates the amount of error of appropriation per model degree of freedom and takes sample size into account” (Kline, 2005, as cited by Matsunaga, 2010, p.106). TLI and CFI are the major incremental fit indices (Matsunaga, 2010). TLI is also known as NNFI in the literature. This index was first used in comparison of possible models in factor analysis and then modified for structural equation model (Çerezci, 2010). NNFI is not affected by sample size. CFI takes into account the sample diameter size and the degree of freedom in the evaluation of the model (Çerezci, 2010, p.65). CFI is a form of normed fit index (NFI) that become insensitive to the sample diameter. It prevents low estimation of compliance with NFI (Çerezci, 2010, p.65). SRMR shows that the average value the standardized residuals between observed and predicted covariance (Matsunaga, 2010). ECVI is used to determine which sample diameter is best matched to the predicted model (Çerezci, 2010). This index is an approach based on chi-square goodness of fit index (Çerezci, 2010).

According to researchers, if a model shows good fit, the indices need to fulfill some degrees. For example, X^2 statistic should not be significant (Singh, 2009), however, p value of X^2 is affected by sample size and if the sample size is too large the p value would be significant which in turn result in rejecting the null hypothesis (Çapık, 2014). The value of X^2/df is used because it is not highly affected by sample size (Çapık, 2014). The value of X^2 divided by its degrees of freedom should not exceed 3.0 to show a reasonable fit (Iacobucci, 2010). It is recommended that RMSEA should be below .80 to be acceptable, CFI and TLI should be above .90 (Matsunaga, 2010). The value of SRMR should be lower than .09 to be acceptable (Iacobucci,

2010). There is no determined value of ECVI, however, the lowest value of ECVI among the compared models is preferred (Çerezci, 2010).

The goodness of fit indices of four models were shown in Table 2. CFI value of Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 is .93, .90, .81, and .90, respectively. Although Model 1 has the highest value, except Model 3, all models have acceptable fit indices. TLI value of Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 is .92, .89, .79, and .89, respectively. Model 1 has the acceptable value, however, the values of Model 2 and Model 4 are very close to Model 1. ECVI value of Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 is 2.33, 4.18, 9.03, and 3.99, respectively. Model 1 has the smallest ECVI value, however, Model 1 is a one-factor model and the value of ECVI increases when the number of factors increase (Çerezci, 2010). Therefore, Model 4 has the smallest value among other models that have more than one factor. SRMR value of Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 is .037, .051, .080, and .051, respectively. All models have acceptable SRMR values. RMSEA value of Model 1, 2, 3, and 4 is .082, .081, .10, and .073, respectively. Model 4 is the only model among other models that has acceptable RMSEA indices. This shows the best fit among other models. Except Model 3, the value of X^2/df is below .3 for all three models. However, the smallest X^2/df value belongs to Model 4 and that represents the best fit among other models. Based on the fit indices, except the chi-square and RMSEA there is small amount of differences between all models. When considering the chi-square and RMSEA indices of all models, Model 4 has the more acceptable fit indices than other models.

Table 2. Goodness of fit indices of four models

Model	X^2	p	df	X^2/df	RMSEA	CFI	ECVI	TLI	SRMR
Model 1	561.90	.001	189	2.973	.082	.93	2.33	.92	.037
Model 2	1094.44	.001	376	2.910	.081	.90	4.18	.89	.051
Model 3	2467.43	.001	591	4.17	.10	.81	9.03	.79	.080
Model 4	1031.21	.001	402	2.565	.073	.90	3.99	.89	.051

Note. X^2 : Chi-square goodness of fit index, p : P-value, df: Degrees of Freedom, RMSEA: Root Mean Square Error of Approximation, CFI: Comparative Fit Index, ECVI: Expected Cross Validation Index TLI: Tucker-Lewis Index, SRMR: Standardized Root Mean Squared

4.2. Descriptive Statistics, Correlations among the Research Variables and Reliabilities of the Questionnaires

Means, standard deviations, correlations among the variables and Cronbach alpha reliability scores were demonstrated in Table 3. The highest correlation was seen between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness ($r = .88, p < .01$). The second highest correlation was seen between transformational leadership and satisfaction from leader ($r = .83, p < .01$). These results could be verified the relationship of transformational leadership with leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction is higher than the other leadership styles. In addition, there was a high correlation between leadership effectiveness and leader satisfaction ($r = .83, p < .01$). Moreover, leadership effectiveness has positive and significant correlations with paternalistic ($r = .75, p < .01$) and participative leadership ($r = .74, p < .01$), and it has negative and significant correlations with autocratic ($r = -.32, p < .01$), transactional ($r = -.23, p < .01$) and laissez-faire leadership ($r = -.63, p < .01$). Satisfaction with the leader has positive and significant correlations with paternalistic ($r = .72, p < .01$) and participative leadership ($r = .76, p < .01$), and it has negative and significant correlations with autocratic ($r = -.41, p < .01$), transactional ($r = -.29, p < .01$) and laissez-faire leadership ($r = -.65, p < .01$).

The reliability scores of the questionnaires used in this research were higher than .70 which means there is sufficient evidence for their reliability. Only the reliability score of the transactional leadership was below .70 ($\alpha = .34$). This means that transactional leadership could not be involved in the analysis. Having low number of items of this scale could be the reason for low reliability score.

Table 3. Descriptive statistics, correlations, and reliability scores for the research variables

Variables	<i>M</i>	<i>SD</i>	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
1. Paternalistic Leadership	3.44	.68	<i>(.96)</i>									
2. Participative Leadership	3.32	.84	.77**	<i>(.91)</i>								
3. Autocratic Leadership	3.26	.68	-.25**	-.46**	<i>(.83)</i>							
4. Transformational Leadership	3.40	.94	.78**	.78**	-.33**	<i>(.96)</i>						
5. Transactional Leadership	2.90	.99	-.08	-.26**	.46**	-.16**	<i>(.34)</i>					
6. Laissez-faire leadership	2.09	.89	-.41**	-.48**	.31**	-.60**	.38**	<i>(.86)</i>				
7. Leader Gender ^a	.62	.48	-.006	.017	-.08	.004	-.08	.07	-			
8. Gender Role Attitudes	4.08	.65	.19**	.16**	-.03	.22**	-.02	-.33**	-.08	<i>(.93)</i>		
9. Leader Effectiveness	3.60	1.16	.75**	.74**	-.32**	.88**	-.23**	-.63**	-.03	.23**	<i>(.95)</i>	
10. Satisfaction with the Leader	3.58	1.01	.72**	.76**	-.41**	.83**	-.29**	-.65**	-.04	.22**	.83**	<i>(.84)</i>

Note. *N* = 291.

Cronbach's alpha reliability scores were given in italics in parentheses on the diagonal.

^a0 = female, 1 = male.

***p* < .01

4.3. The Results of Multiple Regression Analysis for the Leadership Styles and Leader Effectiveness and Leader Satisfaction

The multiple regression analysis was conducted for showing the effect of leadership styles on leader effectiveness which is demonstrated in Table 4. When the predictive effect of leadership styles on leadership effectiveness was investigated, it was seen that there was significantly high and positive relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness ($R = .90, p = .001$). The leadership styles were explained 80% of the variance in leader effectiveness. As expected, transformational leadership predicts leader effectiveness more than the other leadership styles ($B = .77, t = 12.136, p < .001$). Therefore, *Hypothesis 1a*, which is about the transformational leadership is the best predictor of leader effectiveness than other leadership styles, was supported.

The predictor which has the second highest contribution to predict leadership effectiveness is paternalistic leadership ($B = .23, t = 2.928, p = .004$). In this research, there was no hypothesis about relative predictive values of leadership styles on leader effectiveness rather than transformational leadership, however, it was expected that paternalistic leadership is one of the positive predictor of leadership effectiveness in Turkey. Laissez-faire leadership (passive avoidant leadership) negatively predicted leadership effectiveness ($B = -.21, t = -5.03, p < .001$). Autocratic leadership and participative leadership styles were not statistically significant in the prediction of leader effectiveness ($p > .05$).

Table 4. Multiple regression results for the effect of leadership styles on leader effectiveness

Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Constant</i>	.374	.292		1.279	.20
Paternalistic L.	.233	.080	.138	2.928	.004
Participative L.	.080	.068	.058	1.165	.24
Autocratic L.	-.007	.051	-.004	-.165	.89
Transformational L.	.774	.064	.631	12.136	.001
Laissez-faire L.	-.217	.043	-.166	-5.039	.001

Note. $R = .90, R^2 = .81, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .80, F_{(5, 285)} = 245.88, p = .000.$
 $N = 291.$ L = Leadership style.

Second, multiple regression analysis was conducted for showing the predictive contributions of leadership styles on satisfaction with the leader which is demonstrated in Table 5. When the predictive effect of leadership styles on satisfaction with the leader was investigated, it was seen that there was significantly high and positive relationship between leadership styles and leader satisfaction ($R = .87, p = .001$). The leadership styles were explained 77% of the variance in leader satisfaction. Comparing with other leadership styles transformational leadership has the highest predictive contribution to satisfaction with the leader. ($B = .42, t = 6.981, p < .001$). According to the results of the analysis, *Hypothesis 1b*, which is about the transformational leadership is the best predictor of satisfaction with the leader than other leadership styles, was accepted.

All leadership styles in this research predict satisfaction with the leader significantly. Participative leadership ($B = -.22, t = 3.383, p = .001$) and paternalistic leadership ($B = -.2, t = 2.772, p = .006$) positively predict satisfaction with the leader. However, laissez-faire leadership ($B = -.27, t = -6.667, p < .001$), autocratic leadership ($B = -.11, t = -2.383, p = .02$) negatively predict satisfaction with the leader.

Table 5. Multiple regression results for the effect of leadership styles on satisfaction from leader

Variables	<i>B</i>	SE	β	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
<i>Constant</i>	1.618	.281		5.762	.001
Paternalistic L.	.212	.077	.144	2.772	.006
Participative L.	.222	.066	.185	3.383	.001
Autocratic L.	-.117	.049	-.079	-2.383	.018
Transformational L.	.428	.061	.401	6.981	.001
Laissez-faire L.	-.275	.041	-.243	-6.667	.001

Note. $R = .87, R^2 = .77, \text{Adjusted } R^2 = .76, F_{(5, 285)} = 191.65, p = .000.$
 $N = 291.$ L = Leadership style.

4.4. The results of Three-way Interaction Analysis for the Moderation Effect of Leader's Gender and Followers' Gender Role Attitudes on the Relationship between Leadership Styles and Leader Effectiveness and Leader Satisfaction

The relationship between leadership styles, leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction was shown above. In this research, it was also investigated whether there was an effect of leader's gender and followers' gender role in this relationship. To

examine the effect of leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes on the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness, three-way interaction analysis, also known as moderated moderation analysis (Hayes, 2013), was done. This analysis is convenient because the influence of leader's gender on the effect of leadership styles on leader effectiveness is dependent on followers' gender role attitudes.

Model 3 was used for analyzing the three-way interaction model in PROCESS (Hayes, 2013). Johnson-Neyman technique (Hayes, 2013) was used to "identify the values of the moderating variable for which the independent and dependent variables showed a significant association" (Cabello & Fernandez-Berrocal, 2015, p.8). Figure 1 shows the research model. In three-way interaction analysis, leadership styles, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes were used as indicator variables and leadership effectiveness as a criterion variable. Leadership styles were paternalistic, participative, autocratic and transformational leadership, the criterion variables were leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction, the primary moderator was the leader's gender, and the secondary moderator was followers' gender role attitudes. Figure 1 shows the research model. Laissez-faire leadership was not included in the analysis because of not having a hypothesis about it and transactional leadership was not included in the analysis due to its low reliability score under .70. Leadership styles, leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction were analyzed one by one in the analysis. Because PROCESS enables us to analyze the relationship between only one predictor, one outcome (criterion) variable, and more than one moderator variables at a time.

First, participative leadership was tested. It was expected that when followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female leaders who show participative behaviors will be rated more effective than males (*Hypothesis 2a*). It was tested with all two-way interactions (participative leadership \times leader's gender, participative leadership \times followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (participative leadership \times leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes). The results of the analysis were shown in Table 6. Two-way interactions were not significant. The significance value of the moderation analysis on leader effectiveness was equal to .051 ($b = -.34$, $t(283) = -1.95$, $p = .052$). Generally, it is accepted that having a p value lower than .05 is necessary in order to be support the research (alternative) hypothesis. However, considering the number of analysis

that we conducted using the same data, it would be better to use more conservative p-threshold of .001. Therefore, the analysis was not revealed any significant three-way interaction among participative leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by leader's gender of the effect of participative leadership on leader effectiveness did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 2a* was rejected. Figure 2 shows the three-way interaction plot of participative leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness.

Table 6. Results of the three-way interaction effect of participative leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
PL X Leader's Gender	.091	.103	.378	-.112	.295
PL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.055	.081	.497	-.105	.217
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.059	.149	.693	-.352	.234
PL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.347	.177	.051	-.697	.002

Note. PL = Participative Leadership.

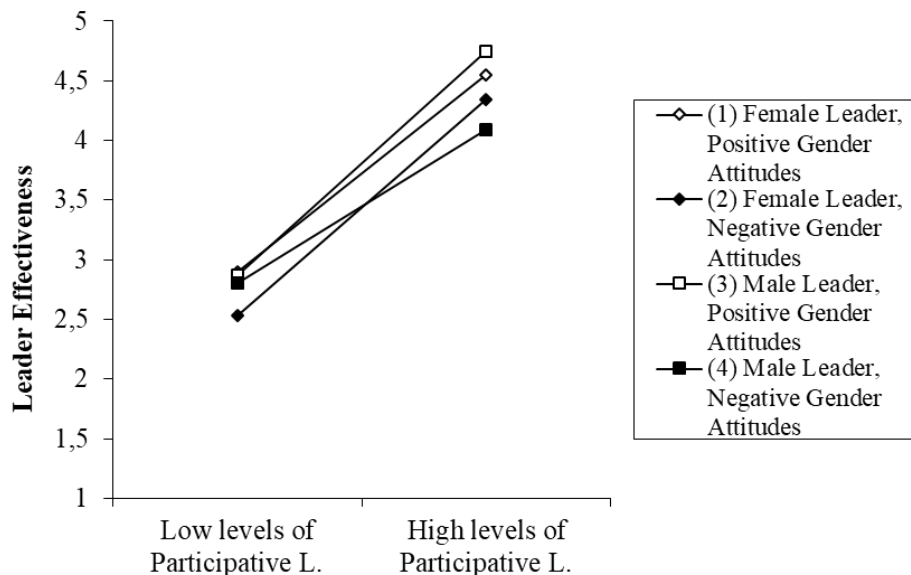


Figure 2. Three-way interaction plots of participative leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

In addition, it was expected that when followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female leaders who show participative behaviors will be rated more satisfying than males (*Hypothesis 2b*). It was tested with all two-way interactions (participative leadership × leader's gender, participative leadership × followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (participative leadership × leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes). The results were shown in Table 7. Two-way interactions were not significant. Moderation analysis on satisfaction with the leader was not revealed any significant three-way interaction among participative leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes ($b = -.23, t(283) = -1.10, p > .05$). This demonstrates that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between participative leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by leader's gender of the effect of participative leadership on satisfaction with the leader did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 2b* was rejected. Figure 3 shows the three-way interaction plot of participative leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 7. Results of the three-way interaction effect of participative leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CI	
PL X Leader's Gender	.018	.094	.847	-.168	.205
PL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.066	.088	.450	-.106	.240
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.108	.127	.392	-.359	.141
PL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.234	.211	.268	-.650	.181

Note. PL = Participative Leadership.

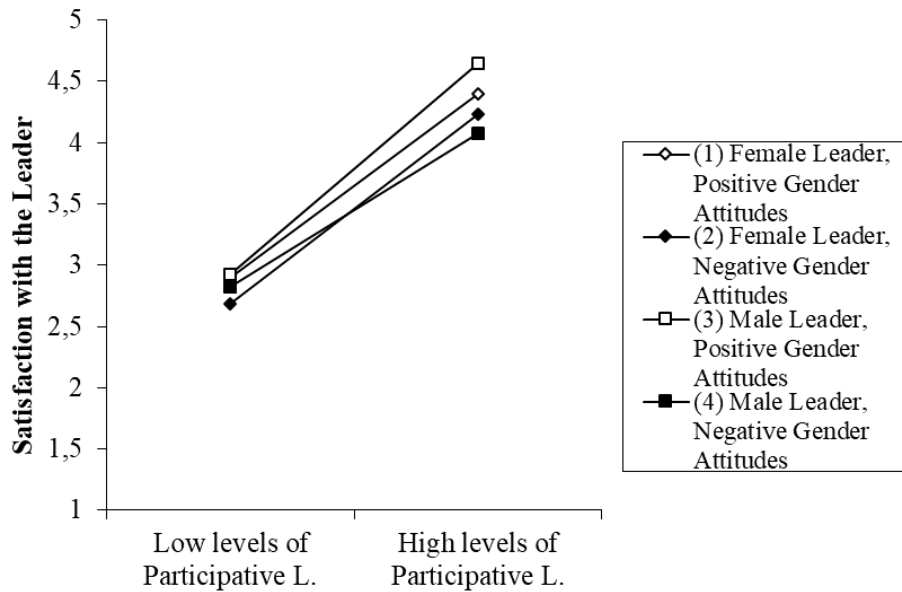


Figure 3. Three-way interaction plots of participative leadership, leader’s gender and follower’s gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

It was expected that when followers’ have traditional gender role attitudes, female autocratic leaders will be rated less effective than males (*Hypothesis 3a*). It was tested with all two-way interactions (autocratic leadership \times leader’s gender, autocratic leadership \times followers’ gender role attitudes, leader’s gender \times followers’ gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (autocratic leadership \times leader’s gender \times followers’ gender role attitudes). Table 8 shows the results of the analysis. There was not any significant relationship between two-way interactions. Moderation analysis on leader effectiveness was not revealed any significant three-way interaction among autocratic leadership, leader’s gender and followers’ gender role attitudes ($b = -.02$, $t(283) = -.064$, $p > .05$). It means that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between autocratic leadership, leader’s gender and followers’ gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 3a* was rejected. Figure 4 shows the three-way interaction plot of autocratic leadership, leader’s gender and follower’s gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 8. The three-way interaction effect of autocratic leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
AL X Leader's Gender	.087	.208	.676	-.323	.497
AL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.045	.170	.792	-.381	.291
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.070	.205	.730	-.474	.332
AL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.022	.343	.948	-.697	.653

Note. AL = Autocratic Leadership.

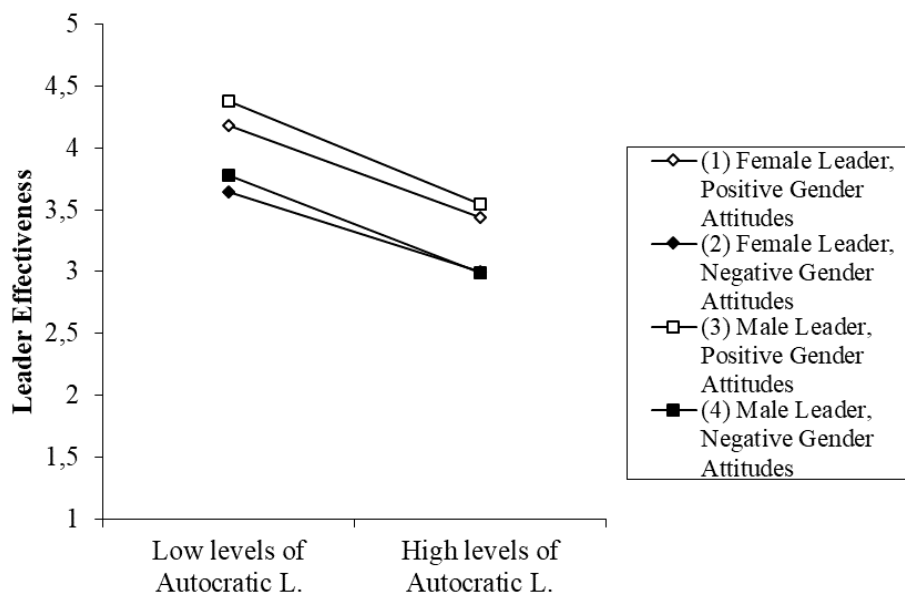


Figure 4. Three-way interaction plots of autocratic leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness.

Moreover, it was expected that when followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female autocratic leaders will be rated less satisfying than males (*Hypothesis 3b*). It was tested with all two-way interactions (autocratic leadership \times leader's gender, autocratic leadership \times followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (autocratic leadership \times leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes). The results were shown in Table 9. Two way interactions did not show any significant relationship. Moderation analysis

on satisfaction with the leader was not revealed any significant three-way interaction among autocratic leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes ($b = -.16, t(283) = -.570, p > .05$). This demonstrates that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between autocratic leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by leader's gender of the effect of autocratic leadership style on satisfaction with the leader did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 3b* was rejected. Figure 5 shows the three-way interaction plot of autocratic leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness.

Table 9. The results of the three-way interaction effect of autocratic leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
AL X Leader's Gender	.042	.176	.811	-.305	.390
AL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.116	.153	.445	-.418	.184
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.150	.173	.385	-.492	.190
AL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.168	.294	.568	-.748	.412

Note. AL = Autocratic Leadership.

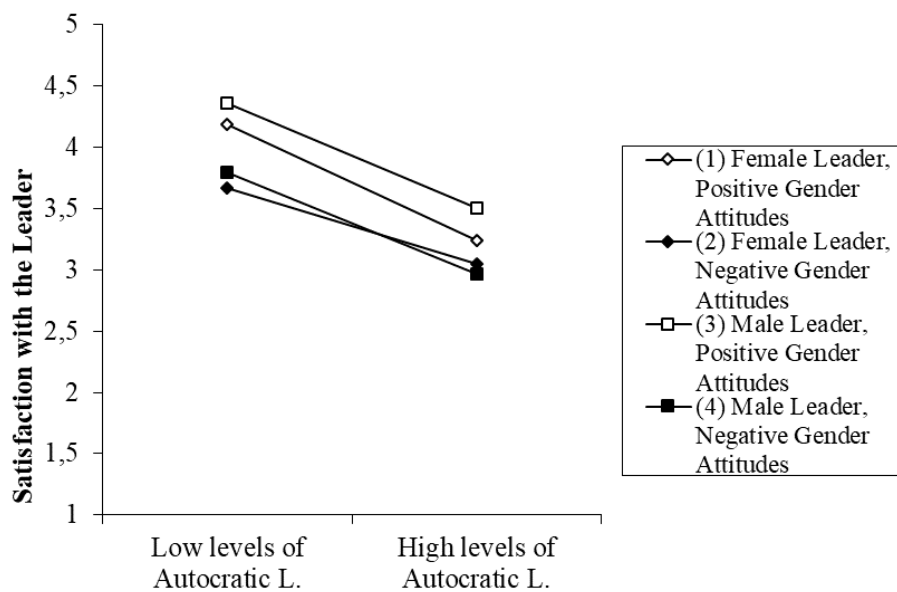


Figure 5. Three-way interaction plot of autocratic leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

It was expected that when followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female leaders who show paternalistic behaviors will be rated less effective than males (*Hypothesis 4a*). All of the two-way interactions (paternalistic leadership × leader's gender, paternalistic leadership × followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (paternalistic leadership × leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes) were tested. The results were shown in Table 10. Two-way interactions did not reveal significant relationship. Moderation analysis on leader effectiveness was not showed any significant three-way interaction among paternalistic leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes ($b = -.09, t(283) = -.491, p > .05$). This shows that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between paternalistic leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by the leader's gender of the effect of paternalistic leadership on leader effectiveness did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 4a* was rejected. Figure 6 shows the three-way interaction plot of paternalistic leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness.

Table 10. The results of the three-way interaction effect of paternalistic leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
PatL X Leader's Gender	.040	.130	.754	-.215	.296
PatL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.109	.088	.215	-.064	.282
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.051	.159	.748	-.262	.364
PatL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.095	.194	.623	-.478	.287

Note. PatL = Paternalistic Leadership.

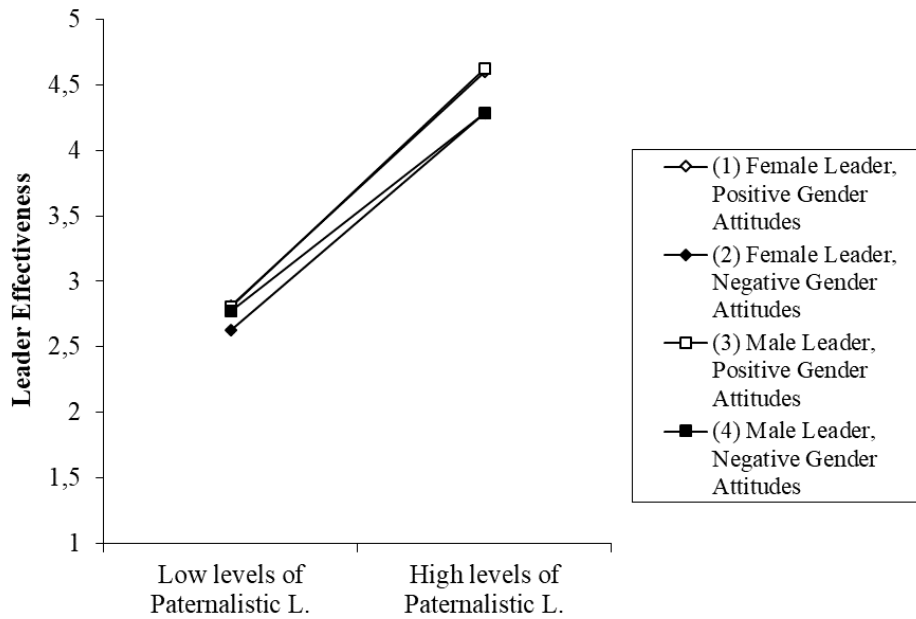


Figure 6. Three-way interaction plot of paternalistic leadership, leader’s gender and follower’s gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

Moreover, it was expected that when followers’ have traditional gender role attitudes, female leaders who show paternalistic behaviors will be rated less satisfying than males (*Hypothesis 4b*). It was tested with all two way interactions (paternalistic leadership × leader’s gender, paternalistic leadership × followers’ gender role attitudes, leader’s gender × followers’ gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (paternalistic leadership × leader’s gender × followers’ gender role attitudes). Two-way interactions were not significant. When the moderation analysis on satisfaction with the leader was conducted, it was found that there was no significant three-way interaction among paternalistic leadership, leader’s gender and followers’ gender role attitudes ($b = .01, t(283) = .075, p > .05$). Therefore, *Hypothesis 4b* was not supported. Figure 7 shows the three-way interaction plot of paternalistic leadership, leader’s gender and follower’s gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 11. The results of the three-way interaction effect of paternalistic leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
PatL X Leader's Gender	-.077	.134	.563	-.341	.186
PatL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.022	.108	.837	-.191	.236
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.011	.143	.936	-.270	.293
PatL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.018	.247	.940	-.468	.506

Note. PatL = Paternalistic Leadership.

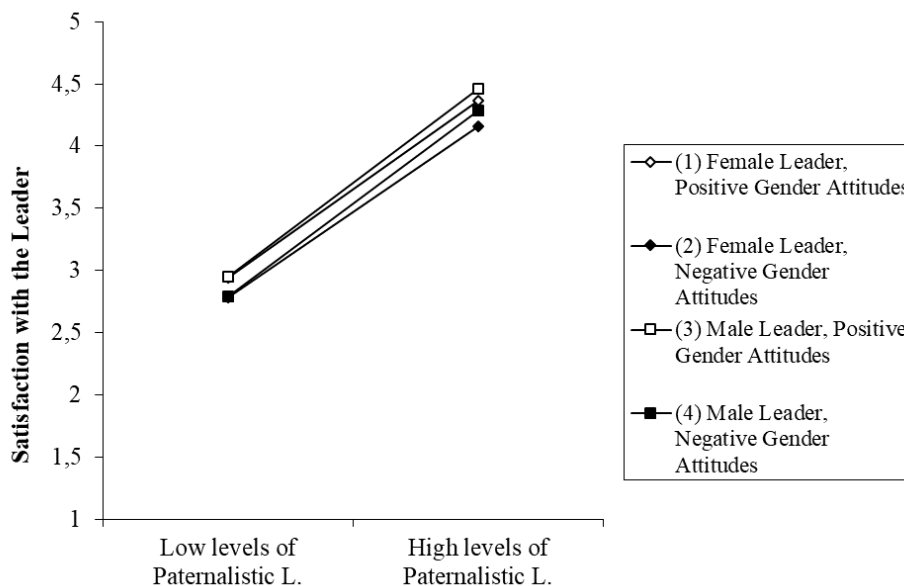


Figure 7. Three-way interaction plot of paternalistic leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

Lastly, transformational leadership was tested. It was expected that if followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female transformational leaders will be rated more effective than males (*Hypothesis 5a*). It was tested all two-way interactions (transformational leadership \times leader's gender, transformational leadership \times followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (transformational leadership \times leader's gender \times followers' gender role attitudes). The results were shown in Table 12. Two-way interactions were not significant. The analysis on leader effectiveness was not revealed

any significant three-way interaction among transformational leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes ($b = -.12, t(283) = -1.19, p > .05$). This shows that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between transformational leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by leader's gender of the effect of transformational leadership on leader effectiveness did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 5a* was rejected. Figure 8 shows the three-way interaction plot of transformational leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness.

Table 12. The results of the three-way interaction effect of transformational leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
TFL X Leader's Gender	-.024	.066	.710	-.155	.106
TFL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.077	.049	.120	-.020	.175
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.019	.119	.869	-.254	.215
TFL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.128	.107	.233	-.340	.083

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership.

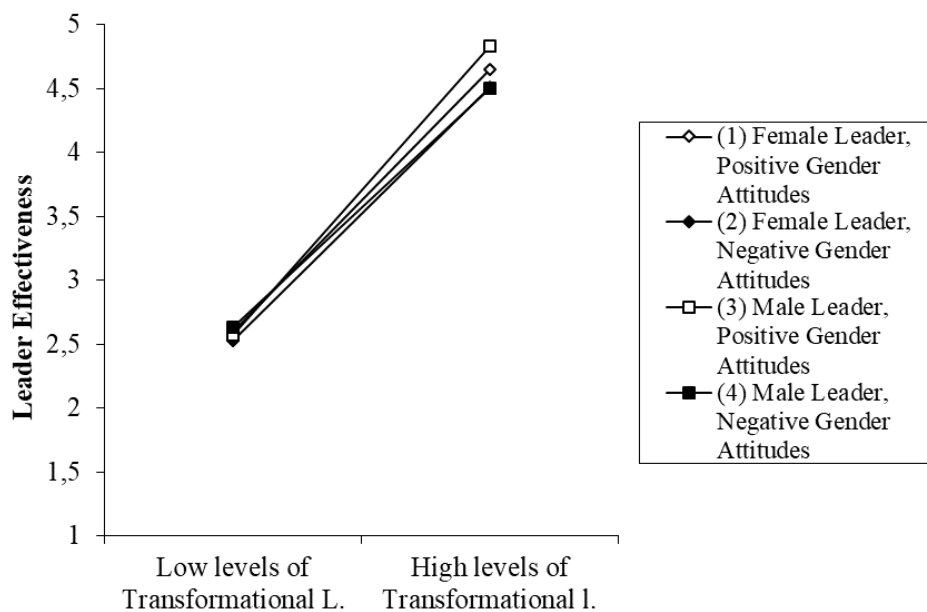


Figure 8. Three-way interaction plot of transformational leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on leader effectiveness

It was expected that if followers' have traditional gender role attitudes, female transformational leaders will be rated more satisfying than males (*Hypothesis 5b*). It was tested all two-way interactions (transformational leadership × leader's gender, transformational leadership × followers' gender role attitudes, leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes) and the three-way interaction (transformational leadership × leader's gender × followers' gender role attitudes). The results were shown in Table 13. Instead of leader effectiveness when leader satisfaction added to the analysis, two way interactions did not show any significant relationship. The analysis on satisfaction with the leader has not revealed any significant three-way interaction among transformational leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes ($b = -.08, t(283) = -.606, p > .05$). This shows that there is no evidence of three-way interaction between transformational leadership, leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes. The magnitude of the moderation by the leader's gender of the effect of transformational leadership on satisfaction with the leader did not depend on followers' gender role attitudes. Therefore, *Hypothesis 5b* was rejected. Figure 9 shows the three-way interaction plot of transformational leadership, leader's gender and follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader.

Table 13. The results of the three-way interaction effect of transformational leadership, leader's gender, follower's gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

	<i>B</i>	<i>SE</i>	<i>p</i>	95% CL	
TFL X Leader's Gender	.021	.076	.783	-.130	.172
TFL X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	.086	.064	.181	-.040	.212
Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.118	.139	.394	-.392	.155
TFL X Leader's Gender X Follower's Gender Role Attitudes	-.086	.142	.544	-.367	.194

Note. TFL = Transformational Leadership.

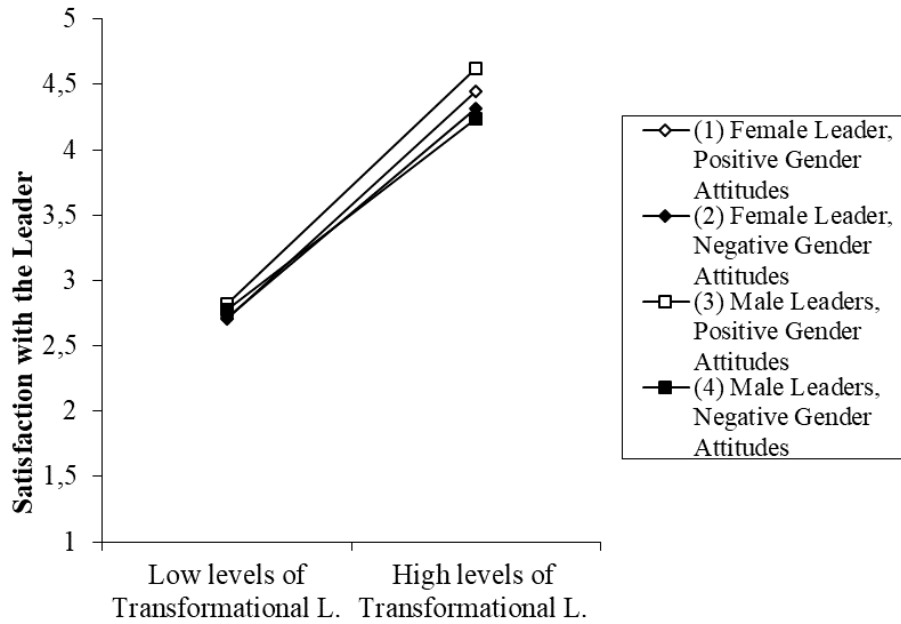


Figure 9. Three-way interaction plot of transformational leadership, leader’s gender and follower’s gender role attitudes on satisfaction with the leader

In conclusion, there could not be found any moderation effect of leader’s gender and followers’ gender role attitudes on the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness. The research results showed that the effect of leadership styles on leader effectiveness or leader satisfaction was not affected by leader’s gender and followers’ gender role attitudes. The possible reasons will be discussed in the next section.

CHAPTER 5

5. DISCUSSION

5.1. Factor Structure of the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ)

The confirmatory factor analysis was done for the MLQ because the publisher provides no information about the Turkish adaptation process of the questionnaire. In this research, Hypothesis 6a-b, which is about gender differences on the effectiveness of transactional leadership could not be evaluated in the analyses because of the low reliability score after applying factor analysis to the MLQ. One reason for low reliability score of transactional leadership may be having two items in the proposed model. In the original structure of the MLQ, transactional leadership consists of 12 items. In this research, all of the transformational items, except one item, and all of the contingent reward items create the first factor, all laissez-faire items and passive management-by-exception items create the second factor, and the third factor has consisted of one transformational and one active management-by-exception item. However, the factor analysis findings of our research were not consistent with the original structure of this questionnaire. In addition to this, many studies conducted out of the United States revealed different factor structures compared to the original factor structure. The findings of this study is consistent with majority of those studies. In those studies, researchers found that items of contingent reward were loaded in transformational leadership factor, and the items of laissez-faire and passive form of management-by-exception were loaded in the same factor, which they called passive avoidant factor (Edwards et al. 2011; Hetland & Sandal, 2003; Menon, 2014). In addition, Antonakis et al. (2003) stated that non-homogenous samples, such as mixing organizational types or environmental conditions may create different findings in testing MLQ. They mentioned that the factor structure of the MLQ can be different in diverse settings or when it used by different raters or leaders, suggesting that leaders can act differently depending on context. In this research, there was a non-homogenous sample, that means the raters were from different organizations and different occupational groups, which may cause different factor structure of the MLQ. Nevertheless, the factor structure of the MLQ could not be universal and could not be suitable in every culture.

5.2. Findings of the Research

This research had two aims. One of the aims was to examine the relationship between leadership styles and leader effectiveness as well as leader satisfaction. Transformational leadership was expected to be the best predictor of leadership effectiveness and leader satisfaction because of its universal effect, compared to other leadership styles. As expected, when the followers perceive their leaders' leadership style as highly transformational, they perceive their leaders highly effective and satisfied from those leaders (Hypothesis 1a and hypothesis 1b). This result was consistent with other research results that shows a positively higher relationship between transformational leadership and effectiveness (e.g. Dumdum et al., 2002; Lowe et al., 1996; Hater & Bass, 1988) and leader satisfaction (e.g. Nguni et al., 2006; Spinelli, 2006) than transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles. The study of Den Hartog et al. (1999) supported the effectiveness of transformational leadership is universally endorsed across different cultures. This can be explained by some characteristics of the transformational leaders such as having goals go beyond their own interests, working for the common good of their subordinates (Bass, 1997; Bass & Riggio, 2006) and encouraging development of their subordinates (Carless, 1998). In addition, the high number of participants with the high level of education (bachelor's degree and more) could be the reason for the highest positive relationship between transformational leadership and leader effectiveness and satisfaction. It was shown that followers with a high level of education prefer more leader consideration (Vecchio & Boatwright, 2002), which is more related to transformational leadership.

In this research, paternalistic leadership was found a strong predictor of leader effectiveness and leader satisfaction after transformational leadership. Although there was no hypothesis about it, paternalistic leadership was expected to be an effective style. Kabasakal and Dastmalchian (2001) stated that in the Middle Eastern societies, including Turkey, the effective leader attributes have both universalistic and culture-specific characteristics. Charismatic leadership and paternalistic styles were found the first and the third preferred styles, respectively, in Turkey (Aycaan & Fikret-Paşa, 2003). In high power distant cultures, there is inequality in the power distribution between the leader and the followers, unlike Western societies, the followers approve the superiority of their paternalistic leaders (Aycaan, 2006). Other characteristics of paternalistic leadership, such as being concerned with the personal problems of the

followers, is perceived as an effective leadership aspect in Turkish context (Fikret-Paşa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001). In addition, it was mentioned that organizations started to be concerned with their followers' non-work lives and help them in their social and family issues in order to support followers' organizational commitment and performance (Aycan, 2006). This shows the importance of paternalistic leader behaviors.

On the other hand, laissez-faire (passive avoidant) leadership was found negatively correlated with leader effectiveness and satisfaction. This was an expected finding because it was the avoidance of leading and was found the least effective style (Asrur-ul-Haq & Kuchinke, 2016; Spinelli, 2006). Autocratic leadership was found to have no significant relationship with leader effectiveness. Although autocratic leaders had a negative effect on subordinates in low power distant and individualistic cultures (Ertüreten et al., 2013), it could be effective in cultures which value high power distance and collectivism (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012). Due to Turkey's 5.57 score on power distance (mean score 5.10, Kabasakal & Dastmalchian, 2001, p.483), it was supposed that autocratic leaders could be perceived effective in Turkey. Paternalistic leadership has both authoritarian, benevolent and moral dimensions (Gerçek, 2018). Authoritarian dimension has similar characteristics with autocratic leaders such as expecting absolute obedience. In this research, it was found that while autocratic leadership style has no significant relationship with leader effectiveness, paternalistic leadership has a positive significant relationship with leader effectiveness, although it has authoritarian characteristics. The reason of this result may be Turkish employees focus more on the benevolent characteristics of their paternalistic leader because researchers mentioned that leaders in Turkish organizations are defined mostly by benevolent paternalistic attributes (Giritli et al., 2013). Although participative leadership had no significant relationship with leader effectiveness, it was found that there was a positive significant relationship between participative leadership and leader satisfaction. One might think that participative leadership is not perceived effective because of the high power distance value of Turkey. In high power distance cultures, followers thought that decision making is the responsibility of the person who is at the top in the hierarchy (Aycan & Gelfand, 2012) and a participative leader can be seen as weak and incompetent (Newman & Nollen, 1996). On the other hand, Fikret-Paşa and colleagues (2001) revealed that Turkish employees feel valued and

belonging to a group when their leader let them to participate in decision making process. This mechanism could make subordinates satisfied with their participative leader because they feel valued by the leader.

The second aim of this research was to investigate the effect of leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes on the relationship between leadership styles and effectiveness and leader satisfaction based on Role Congruity Theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, it was supposed that if there is non-congruence between gender role and leader role, the leaders would not be perceived effective. Traditional gender role attitudes of followers were supposed to be the determinants of perceiving non-congruence between gender and leader roles. However, there were not any significant direct or interaction effect of leader's gender and followers' gender role attitudes on the effectiveness of any leadership styles, which was evaluated in this research. In the literature, few studies have investigated the difference between men and women in terms of their effectiveness in leadership. Many of them examined male and female difference in terms of their tendency for choosing leadership styles. Previous study results showed that female leaders have more tendency to show transformational (Eagly et al., 2003; Silva & Mendis, 2017) and democratic behaviors (Eagly & Johnson, 1990) and males have tendency to show more transactional, laissez-faire (Eagly et al., 2003; Silva & Mendis, 2017), and autocratic behaviors (Eagly & Johnson, 1990) than females. For example, the aspects of transformational and participative leadership styles were found more congruent with the communal gender roles (Eagly & Johannessen-Smith, 2001, p. 787). Therefore, consistent with their gender roles, women and men might use different leadership styles. However, it can be questioned whether the perceived effectiveness of male and female leaders, who use the same style, is changed or not.

There are some contradictory results about the effect of gender on leadership styles and effectiveness. For example, the meta-analysis study of Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, (1995) did not reveal any differences between men and women leaders in their effectiveness. However, the same study results revealed that the effectiveness of male and female leaders was differed according to the feminine and masculine type of organizations. In addition, a meta-analysis study revealed that male and female leaders were perceived equally effective and satisfying by their followers (Dobbins & Platz, 1984, as cited by Göktepe, 1986). Furthermore, researchers could not find any

interaction between leader's gender and leadership style on predicting effectiveness, satisfaction, and effort (Peachey & Burton, 2001). In spite of this, few studies found some differences based on the gender of the leaders. Uğurlu (2009) found that the evaluation of autocratic and democratic leadership styles was differed according to the leader's gender and evaluator's gender. In addition, Cheng and Lin (2012) found that when leaders adopt a leadership style which is congruent with gender role expectations, leadership effectiveness differed. On the other hand, it was found that when female leaders behave in a masculine way, they receive somewhat lower evaluations than their male counterparts (Eagly, Makhijani & Klonsky, 1992).

In this research, it was aimed that the complexity and inconsistency in results of previous studies could be solved with examining the interaction between the followers' gender role attitudes and the leader's gender. Because leadership is considered as an interaction between followers and leaders (Eagly & Chin, 2010, p.220), leader effectiveness may reflect the followers' expectations and prejudice (Eagly & Chin, 2010, p.220). Gender roles are like a manual that explains how people should behave. Therefore, perceiving an incongruity between gender roles and leadership roles could affect the way followers perceive their leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Based on the role congruity theory, it was expected that the agentic and communal roles affect the evaluation of men and women in their leadership roles (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Therefore, it was expected that followers will perceive female leaders more effective if they adopt a leadership style which has more similar characteristics with communal roles such as transformational and participative leadership. In addition, it was expected that female leaders will not be perceived effective if they adopt autocratic, transactional and paternalistic leadership styles because of the lack of congruence with communal roles. However, although paternalistic leadership style has both authoritarian and benevolent dimensions, it could not be considered the congruence between communal roles and benevolent dimension of paternalistic leadership because of having five paternalistic leadership characteristics in the paternalistic leadership questionnaire. Nevertheless, any moderator role of leader's gender based on followers' gender role attitudes on the effectiveness of leadership styles could not found in this study. Therefore, Hypothesis 2a-b, 3a-b, 4a-b, 5a-b were rejected.

There could be several reasons for these statistically non-significant findings. For instance, the demographics of the participants could affect the results. Having a high level of education could decrease the level of non-egalitarian gender role attitudes. Egalitarian gender role norms and attitudes were found positively correlated with education level (Schaninger & Buss, 1986; Gök et al., 2018). According to the study of Kabasakal and Dastmalchian (2001), Turkey's gender egalitarianism score (2.89) is below the world's average (3.38). However, the mean score of the gender role attitudes of participants in this study was very high which represents an egalitarian gender role attitude. Another reason could be the similarity of managerial roles. The obligations are clear and leaders know what should they do, which means, male and female leaders show less stereotyping behavior because of the requirements of the position that they have (Eagly & Johnson, 1990, p. 234). In addition to this, majority of employees work in municipalities, hospitals, banks and schools. In those workplaces the duties and the rules are clear and employees may have to comply the orders without participating the decision making. Moreover, types of the organization and evaluator's sex did not be considered in this study. There are some studies showing that organization types such as masculine (military) and feminine (education) types of organizations (e.g. Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995) and same sex-dyads of the followers and leaders could affect the evaluation of the leader in a positive than opposite-sex dyads (e.g. Powell, Butterfly & Bartol, 2008; Uğurlu, 2009). Lastly, with the increase in the number of women in organizations, especially in leadership positions, the perceptions in gender differences could start to decrease gradually. Researchers argued that the increasing number of women in leadership roles could change the perceptions of leadership roles in an androgynous way (Eagly, Karau & Makhijani, 1995), rather than feminine or masculine.

5.3. Practical Implications

This research adopted an integrative approach, that means both new and traditional leadership styles were evaluated together. Prior studies investigated often democratic and autocratic or task-oriented and relation-oriented leadership styles. After transformational leadership becomes popular, researchers pay more attention to transformational-transactional styles of leadership. However, previous researches did not focused on universally accepted and culturally specific leadership styles together while investigating the relationship with leader effectiveness. As mentioned before,

cultural features have importance on leadership. Social contexts have an influence on effective leadership style (Cheng & Lin, 2012). Previous researches which has conducted predominantly in individualistic cultures, show the importance of followers' involvement in decision making processes and leader and follower relationships are based on business relationship (Swierczek, 1991). However, this Western-based leadership models were not appropriate in all cultures. In collectivistic cultures relationships between leaders and followers have more moral values similar to a parent-child relationship (Swierczek, 1991). According to our research findings, transformational leadership was the strong predictor of effective leadership followed by paternalistic leadership, and participative and autocratic leadership was not found to be related to effectiveness. These findings may ensure information to executives in organizations about the leadership styles, which are more effective and satisfied, in Turkey. Therefore, organizations in Turkey, should encourage the leaders to behave transformational in order to be perceived effective, in the Turkish context. This may lead a better leader-follower relationship and increase organizational success. As suggested by Spinelli (2006), using a transformational leadership style may be increased by the application of management training programs. In addition, researchers asserted that leadership skills should be adapted according to the culture based on followers' values in order to protect the failure of the organizations (Swierczek, 1991). Therefore, leaders should also consider that the paternalistic leader behaviors to be perceived effective in organizations in Turkey, which has both high collectivistic and power distance cultural values.

5.4. Limitations

This research has several limitations. Firstly, most of the participants took the survey in their workplace and could not have time to complete immediately. The participants who filled out the survey in their workplace may be worried about the deterioration of confidentiality. Especially evaluating leader effectiveness could be affected by this problem. Secondly, there is a generalizability problem of the findings because the majority of the participants took the survey in Izmir where does not reflect the characteristics of general Turkish population, especially on gender role attitudes. Thirdly, high social desirability of some scales could be another problem. Participants could hide their own attitudes about gender roles. Fourthly, follower's gender did not be considered in this research. It was argued that men and women may have different

ways of thinking and acting (Cheng & Lin, 2012), therefore, the evaluations of male and female followers may be somewhat different. Future researches should consider the pairing of gender of the followers and subordinates. Lastly, in this research, leader effectiveness was evaluated as a perceived leader effectiveness which was rated only by the followers. This may not reflect the objective effectiveness of leaders. However, researchers argue that there could be bias if the leaders rate their own leadership effectiveness (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Nevertheless, supervisor evaluations and follower evaluations could be examined together in order to reduce the effect of bias.



REFERENCES

- Abualrub, R. F. & Alghamdi, M. G. (2012). The impact of leadership styles on nurses' satisfaction and intention to stay among Saudi nurses. *Journal of Nursing Management*, 20, 668–678. DOI: 10.1111/j.1365-2834.2011.01320.x
- Aldoory, E. & Toth, E. (2004). Leadership and gender in public relations: Perceived effectiveness of transformational and transactional leadership styles. *Journal of Public Relations Research*, 16:2, 157-183. DOI: 10.1207/s1532754xjpr1602_2
- Altınova, H. H. & Duyan, V. (2013). Toplumsal cinsiyet algısı ölçeğinin geçerlik güvenirlik çalışması. *Toplum ve Sosyal Hizmet*, Cilt 24, Sayı 2.
- Antonakis, J., Avolio, B. J. & Sivasubramaniam, N. (2003). Context and leadership: an examination of the nine-factor full-range leadership theory using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14, 261 – 295.
- Asrar-ul-Haq, M. & Kuchinke, K. P. (2016). Impact of leadership styles on employees' attitude towards their leader and performance: Empirical evidence from Pakistani banks. *Future Business Journal*, 2, 54–64.
- Avolio, B. J. & Bass, B. M. (1995). Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (5X-Short). Mind Garden, Inc. Retrieved from www.mindgarden.com
- Aycan, Z. (2006). Paternalism towards conceptual refinement and operationalization. In Kim, U., Yang, K. & Hwang, K. (Eds.), *Indigenous and Cultural Psychology Understanding People in Context* (p. 445-466). Springer.
- Aycan, Z. (2008). Cross-cultural approaches to leadership. In P. B. Smith, M. F. Peterson, & D. C. Thomas (Eds.), *Handbook of Cross-Cultural Management* (pp. 219-239). London, Sage Publication.
- Aycan, Z. & Fikret-Paşa, S. (2003). Career choices, job selection criteria, and leadership preferences in a transitional nation: The case of Turkey. *Journal of Career Development*. 30(2), 129-144.
- Aycan, Z. & Gelfand, M. J. (2012). Cross-cultural industrial and organizational psychology. In S. Koslowski & K. Klein (Eds.). *Handbook of Industrial and*

Organizational Psychology. New Jersey: Blackwell. Retrieved from <http://zeynepaycan.net/doc/C1.pdf>

- Aydın, E. Ö. (2009). Dönüştürücü liderlik ve toplumsal cinsiyet rolleri arasındaki incelenmesi. Yayınlanmamış Yüksek Lisans Tezi. Ankara Üniversitesi, Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Balaraman, S. (1989). Are leadership styles predictive of managerial effectiveness? *Indian Journal of Industrial Relations*, Vol. 24, No. 4, pp. 399-415.
- Barrow, J. C. (1976). The variables of leadership: A review and conceptual framework. *Academy of Management Review*, 2(2), 231-251.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Personal selling and transactional/transformational leadership. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sales Management*. Volume 17, Number 3, Pages 19-28.
- Bass, B. M. (1997). Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, Vol. 52, No. 2. 130-139.
- Bass, B. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1990). Developing transformational leadership: 1992 and beyond. *Journal of European Industrial Training*. Vol. 14 Iss: 5.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I. & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Vol. 88, No. 2, 207–218. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J. & Atwater, L. (1996). The transformational and transactional leadership of men and women. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 45 (1), 5-34.
- Bass, B. M. & Riggio, R. E. (2006). *Transformational Leadership*. Second Edition. Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.
- Burke, S. & Collins, K. M. (2001). Gender differences in leadership styles and management skills. *Women in Management Review*. Volume 16, Number 5, pp. 244-256.

- Ceylan, S. (2010). Yurttaşlık performansı: Yapı geçerliliği ve öncülleri. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Hacettepe Üniversitesi. Ankara.
- Chackraborty, T. & Saha, R. (2017). If women lead good and deal better then why is women leadership still a snake and ladder game? *The International Journal of Indian Psychology*, Volume 4, Issue 3, No. 97, 127-143.
- Chen, Y.F. & Tjosvold, D. (2005). Cross-cultural Leadership: Goal Interdependence and Leader-Member Relations in Foreign Ventures in China. *Journal of International Management*, 11, 417-439.
- Chen, Y. F. & Tjosvold, D. (2006). Participative leadership by American and Chinese managers in China: The role of relationships. *Journal of Management Studies*, 43:8.
- Chen, X. P., Eberly, M. B., Chiang, T. J., Farh, J. L. & Cheng, B. S. (2011). Affective trust in Chinese leaders: Linking paternalistic leadership to employee performance. *Journal of Management*. DOI: 10.1177/0149206311410604
- Cheng, B. S., Chou, L. F., Wu, T. Y., Huang, M. P. & Farh, J. L. (2004). Paternalistic leadership and subordinate responses: Establishing a leadership model in Chinese organizations. *Asian Journal of Social Psychology*, 7, 89-117.
- Cheng, M. & Lin, Y. (2011). The effect of gender differences in supervisors' emotional expression and leadership style on leadership effectiveness. *African Journal of Business Management*, Vol. 6 (9), pp. 3234-3245. DOI: 10.5897/AJBM11.1705
- Collins, D. B. (2002). The effectiveness of managerial leadership development programs: a meta-analysis of studies from 1982-2001. *LSU Doctoral Dissertations*. 2461.
- Çapık, C. (2014). Geçerlik güvenirlik çalışmalarında doğrulayıcı faktör analizinin kullanımı. *Anadolu Hemşirelik ve Sağlık Bilimleri Dergisi*, 17:3.
- Çerezci, E. T. (2010). Yapısal eşitlik modelleri ve kullanılan uyum iyiliği indekslerinin karşılaştırılması. Yayınlanmamış Doktora Tezi. Gazi Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Çıraklar, N., Uçar, Z. & Sezgin, O. B. (2016). Paternalist liderliğin örgütsel özdeşleşme üzerine etkisi: Lidere güvenin aracılık rolü. *Research Journal of*

- Den Hartog, D. N. & Koopman, P. L. (2001). In Handbook of Industrial, Work and Organizational Psychology Volume 2 Organizational Psychology. (Eds), Neil Anderson, Deniz S. Ones, Handan Kepir Sinangil and Chockalingam Viswesvaran. Sage Publications.
- Den Hartog, D. N., Van Muijen, J. J. & Koopman, P. L. (1997) Transactional versus transformational leadership: An analysis of the MLQ. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 70, 19-34.
- Den Hartog, D. N., House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Ruiz-Quintanilla, A. & Dorfman, P. W. (1999). Culture specific and cross-culturally generalizable implicit leadership theories: Are attributes of charismatic/transformational leadership universally endorsed. *Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 219–256.
- Dorfman, P. W. & Howell, J. P. (1988). Dimensions of national culture and effective leadership patterns: Hofstede revisited. *Advances in International Comparative Management*, Vol. 3, pages 127-150.
- Dorfman, P. W., Howell, J. P., Hibino, S., Lee, J. K., Tate, U. & Bautista, A. (1997). Leadership in Western and Asian countries: Commonalities and differences in effective leadership process across cultures. *Leadership Quarterly*, 8(3), 233-274.
- Dorfman, P., Javidan, M., Hanges, P., Dastmalchian, A. & House, R. (2012). GLOBE: A twenty year journey into the intriguing world of culture and leadership. *Journal of World Business*, 47, 504-518.
- Dökmen, Z. Y. (2004). *Toplumsal Cinsiyet Sosyal Psikolojik Açıklamalar*. İkinci Basım, Remzi Kitapevi.
- Dönmez, S. (2014). Developing a Likert-type measure to assess transformational and transactional leadership styles in Turkey. Unpublished Master Thesis, Middle East Technical University, Ankara.
- Dumdum, U. R., Lowe, K. B. & Avolio, B. J. (2002). A Meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension. In Bruce J. Avolio and Francis J.

- Yammarino (Eds.), Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead. (pp 35-66). Oxford, UK: Elsevier Science.
- Eagly, A. H. (2007). Female leadership advantage and disadvantage: Resolving the contradictions. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 31, 1-12.
- Eagly, A. H. & Chin, J. L. (2010). Diversity and leadership in a changing world. *American Psychologist*, Vol. 65, No. 3, 216–224. DOI: 10.1037/a0018957
- Eagly, A. H. & Johannessen-Schmidt, M. C. (2001). The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues*, Vol. 57, No. 4, pp. 781–797.
- Eagly, A. H., Johannessen-Schmidt, M. C. & van Engen, M. L. (2003). Transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing women and men. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 129, No. 4, 569–591.
- Eagly, A. H. & Johnson, B. T. (1990). Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 108, No. 2, 233-256.
- Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J. & Makhijani, M. G. (1995). Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 117, No. 1, 125-145.
- Eagly, A. H. & Karau, S. J. (2002). Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, Vol. 109, No. 3, 573–598. DOI: 10.1037//0033-295X.109.3.573
- Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G. & Klonsky, B. G. (1992). Gender and evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, Vol. 111, No. 1, 3-22.
- Edwards, G., Schyns, B., Gill, R. & Higgs, M. (2012). The MLQ factor structure in a UK context. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 33 Iss: 4 pp. 369 – 382. DOI 10.1108/01437731211229304
- Elpers, K. & Westhuis, D. J. (2008). Organizational leadership and its impact on social workers' job satisfaction: A national study. *Administration in Social Work*. Vol. 32(3), 26-43. DOI:10.1080/03643100801922399
- Eraslan, L. (2004). Liderlik olgusunun tarihsel evrimi, temel kavramlar ve yeni liderlik paradigmasının analizi. *Milli Eğitim Dergisi*. Sayı 162.

https://dhgm.meb.gov.tr/yayimlar/dergiler/Milli_Egitim_Dergisi/162/eraslan.htm

- Ercan, Ü. & Sığırı, Ü. (2015). Kültürel değerlerin liderlik özelliklerine etkisi: Türk ve Amerikalı yöneticiler üzerine bir araştırma. *Amme İdaresi Dergisi*, Cilt 48, Sayı 3, S.95-126.
- Ertüreten, A., Cemalcılar, Z. & Aycan, Z. (2013). The relationship of downward mobbing with leadership style and organizational attitudes. *J Bus Ethics*. 116:205–216. DOI 10.1007/s10551-012 1468-2
- Fikret-Paşa, S. (2000). Leadership influence in a high power distance and collectivist culture. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 21, Iss 8, pp. 414-426. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/01437730010379258>
- Fikret-Paşa, S. Kabasakal, H. & Bodur, M. (2001). Society, organisations, and leadership in Turkey. *International Association for Applied Psychology*, 50 (4), 559-589.
- Gerçek, M. (2018). Yöneticilerin babacan (paternalist) liderlik davranışlarının psikolojik sözleşme bağlamındaki beklentileri üzerindeki etkilerine yönelik bir çalışma. *Eskişehir Osmangazi Üniversitesi İİBF Dergisi*, C. 13, S. 2, 101 – 118.
- Giritli, H. & Topçu-Oraz, G. (2003). Leadership styles: Some evidence from the Turkish construction industry. *Construction Management and Economics*, 22, 253–262. DOI: 10.1080/01446190310001630993
- Giritli, H., Öney-Yazıcı, E., Topçu-Oraz, G. & Acar, E. (2013). The interplay between leadership and organizational culture in the Turkish construction sector. *International Journal of Project Management*, Vol. 31, pp. 228–238.
- Giray, M. D. (2010). İş yerinde destek algılarının liderlik stilleri ve örgütsel sonuç değişkenleri ile ilişkisi. Yayınlanmamış doktora tezi, Hacettepe Üniversitesi, Ankara.
- Gök, E., Aydın, B. & Weidman, J. C. (2019). The impact of higher education on unemployed Turkish people's attitudes toward gender: A multilevel analysis. *International Journal of Educational Development*, 66, 155-163.
- Göktepe, J. R. (1986). The role of gender, androgyny and attraction in predicting the identity and effectiveness of emergent leaders. Unpublished Doctoral

Dissertation. Faculty of the Graduate School of the University of Maryland.
Retrieved from
<https://drum.lib.umd.edu/bitstream/handle/1903/16022/877300.pdf?sequence=1&isAllowed=y>

- Göncü, A., Aycan, Z. & Johnson, R. E. (2014). Effects of paternalistic and transformational leadership on follower outcomes. *The International Journal of Management and Business*, Vol. 5 Issue 1.
- Hare, A. P., Koenigs, R. J. & Hare, S. H. (1997). Perceptions of observed and model values of male and female managers. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, Vol. 18, 437-447.
- Hater, J. J. & Bass, B. M. (1988). Superiors' evaluations and subordinates' perceptions of transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*. Vol. 73, No. 4, 695-702.
- Hayes, A. F. (2013). *Introduction to mediation, moderation, and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. The Guildford Press.
- Hetland, H. & Sandal, G. (2003). Transformational leadership in Norway: Outcomes and personality correlates. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 12:2, 147-170. DOI: 10.1080/13594320344000057
- Howell, J. M. & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, locus of control, and support for innovation: Key predictors of consolidated-business-unit performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 78, No. 6, 891-902.
- Iacobucci, D. (2009). Structural equations modeling: Fit Indices, sample size, and advanced topics. *Journal of Consumer Psychology*, 20, 90–98. doi:10.1016/j.jcps.2009.09.003
- Jogulu, U. D. & Wood, G. J. (2008). A cross-cultural study into peer evaluations of women's leadership effectiveness. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 29, No. 7, pp. 600-616.
- Johnson, S. K., Murphy, S. E., Zewdie, S. & Reichard, R. J. (2008). The strong, sensitive type: Effects of gender stereotypes and leadership prototypes on the

- evaluation of male and female leaders. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 106, 39–60. doi:10.1016/j.obhdp.2007.12.002
- Jöreskog, K. G. & Sörbom, D. (2001). LISREL 8.51, Scientific Software International, Inc.
- Judge, T. A. & Piccolo, R. F. (2004). Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 89, No. 5, 755–768. DOI: 10.1037/0021-9010.89.5.755
- Kabasakal, H. & Bodur, M. (2002). Arabic cluster: A bridge between East and West. *Journal of World Business*, 37, 40-54.
- Kabasakal, H. & Dastmalchian, A. (2001). Introduction to the special issue on leadership and Culture in the Middle East. *International Association for Applied Psychology*, 50 (4), 479-488.
- Karip, E. (1998). Dönüşümcü liderlik. Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi. Cilt 4, Sayı 4. <http://www.kuey.net/index.php/kuey/article/view/656>
- Korkmaz, M., Aras, G., Yücel, A. S. & Kıyım, S. (2013). Sivil havacılık sektöründe kabin personelinin algıladıkları liderlik stilleri ve iş tatmini üzerindeki ilişkileri: Türk Hava Yolları örneği. *The Journal of Academic Social Science Studies*. Volume 6, Issue 7, p. 697-714.
- Landy, F. J. & Conte, J. M. (2013). *Work in the 21st Century. An Introduction to Industrial and Organizational Psychology*. Fourth Edition. Wiley.
- Lok, P. & Crawford, J. D. (2004). The effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment. *Journal of Management Development*, Vol. 23 No. 4, pp. 321-338. DOI 10.1108/02621710410529785
- Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G. & Sivasubramaniam, N. (1996). Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3), 385-415. [http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843\(96\)90027-2](http://dx.doi.org/10.1016/S1048-9843(96)90027-2)
- Mathieu, C., Fabi, B., Lacoursière, R., & Raymond, L. (2015). The role of supervisory behavior, job satisfaction and organizational commitment on employee

- turnover. *Journal of Management & Organization*, 22(01), 113–129.
doi:10.1017/jmo.2015.25
- Matsunaga, M. (2010). How to factor-analyze your data right: Do's, don'ts, and how-to's. *International Journal of Psychological Research*, Vol. 3, No. 1, 97-110.
- Menon, M. E. (2014). The relationship between transformational leadership, perceived leader effectiveness and teachers' job satisfaction", *Journal of Educational Administration*, Vol. 52 Iss, 4, pp. 509-528. DOI 10.1108/JEA-01-2013-0014
- Merchant, K. (2012). How men and women differ: Gender differences in communication styles, influence tactics, and leadership styles. CMC Senior Theses. Retrieved from http://scholarship.claremont.edu/cmc_theses/513
- Nanjundeswaraswamy, T. S. & Swamy, D. R. (2014). Leadership styles. *Advances in Management*, Vol. 7(2), p. 57-62.
- Nguni, S. Slegers, P. & Denessen, E. (2006). Transformational and transactional leadership effects on teachers' job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and organizational citizenship behavior in primary schools: The Tanzanian case. *School Effectiveness and School Improvement*. Vol. 17, No. 2, pp. 145 – 177. DOI: 10.1080/09243450600565746.
- Newman, K. L. & Nollen, S. D. (1996). Culture and congruence: The fit between management practices and national culture. *Journal of International Business Studies*, Vol. 27, No. 4, pp.753-779.
- Paustian-Underdahl, S. C., Walker, L. S. & Woehr, D. J. (2014). Gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness: A meta-analysis of contextual moderators. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, Vol. 99, No. 6, 1129–1145.
<http://dx.doi.org/10.1037/a0036751>
- Peachey, J. W. & Burton, L. J. (2011). Male or female athletic director? Exploring perceptions of leader effectiveness and a (potential) female leadership advantage with intercollegiate athletic directors. *Sex Roles*. 64:416–425. DOI 10.1007/s11199-010-9915-y.
- Pellegrini, E. K. & Scandura, T. A. (2008). Paternalistic leadership: A review and agenda for future research. *Journal of Management*, Vol. 34, No. 3, 566-593.

- Powell, G. N., Butterfly, D. A. & Bartol, K. M. (2008). Leader evaluations: a new female advantage? *Gender in Management: An International Journal*, Vol. 23 Iss 3 pp. 156 – 174. DOI 10.1108/17542410810866926
- Rad, A. M. M. & Yarmohammadian, M. H. (2006). A study of relationship between managers' leadership style and employees' job satisfaction. *Leadership in Health Service*, Vol. 19 No. 2, pp. 11-28. DOI 10.1108/13660750610665008
- Sagie, A. & Aycan, Z. (2003). A cross-cultural analysis of participative decision-making in organizations. *Human Relations*, Volume 56(4): 453–473.
- Saleem, H. (2015). The impact of leadership styles on job satisfaction and mediating role of perceived organizational politics. *Procedia - Social and Behavioral Sciences* 172, 563 – 569. doi: 10.1016/j.sbspro.2015.01.403
- Schaninger, C. M. & Buss, W. C. (1986). The relationship of sex-role norm to couple and parental demographics. *Sex Roles*, Vol. 15, Nos. 1/2. DOI: 10.1007/BF00287533
- Scully, J. A., Kirkpatrick, S. A. & Locke, E. A. (1995). Locus of knowledge as a determinant of the effects of participation on performance, affect and perceptions. *Organizational behavior and human decision processes*, Vol. 61, No. 3, pp. 276-288.
- Shrestha, A. K. (2012). Leadership styles, subordinates' satisfaction with the leader and perceived effectiveness: A study in a Nepali telecommunications company.
- Silva, D. A. C. S. & Mendis, B. A. K. M. (2017). Male vs female leaders: Analysis of transformational, transactional & laissez-faire women leadership styles. *European Journal of Business and Management*, Vol.9, No.9.
- Silverthorne, C. P. (2005). *Organizational psychology in cross-cultural perspective*. New York University Press.
- Singh, R. (2009). Does my structural model represent the real phenomenon?: a review of the appropriate use of structural equation modelling (SEM) model fit indices. *The Marketing Review*, Vol. 9, No. 3, pp. 199-212. doi: 10.1362/146934709X467767
- Sinha, J. B. P. (1995). *The cultural context of leadership and power*. New Delhi: Sage.

- Smylie, M. A., Lazarus, V., & Brownlee-Conyers, J. (1996). Instrumental outcomes of school-based participative decision making. *Educational Evaluation and Policy Analysis*, Vol. 18, No. 3, pp. 181–198.
- Somech, A. (2003). Relationships of participative leadership with relational demography variables: A multi-level perspective. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 24, 1003-1018. DOI: 10.1002/job.225
- Spector, P. E. (1997). *Job satisfaction: Application, assessment, causes, and consequences*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.
- Spinelli, R. J. (2006). The applicability of Bass's model of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership in the hospital administrative environment, *Hospital Topics*, 84:2, 11-19, DOI: 10.3200/HTPS.84.2.11-19
- Stelter, N. Z. (2002). Gender differences in leadership: Current social issues and future organizational implications. *The Journal of Leadership Studies*, Vol. 8, No. 4, 88-99.
- Swierczek, F. W. (1991). Leadership and culture: Comparing Asian managers. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, Vol. 12, Iss 7, pp. 3-10. <http://dx.doi.org/10.1108/EUM0000000001165>
- Tahaoğlu, F. & Gedikoğlu, T. (2009). İlköğretim okulu müdürlerinin liderlik rolleri. *Kuram ve Uygulamada Eğitim Yönetimi*. Cilt 15, Sayı 58, ss: 274-298
- Telli, E., Ünsar, A.S. & Oğuzhan, A. (2012). Liderlik davranış tarzlarının örgütsel tükenmişlik ve işten ayrılma eğilimleri üzerine etkisi: Konuyla ilgili bir uygulama. *Electronic Journal of Vocational Colleges*.
- Tengilimoğlu, D. (2005). Kamu ve özel sektör örgütlerinde liderlik davranışı özelliklerinin belirlenmesine yönelik bir alan çalışması. *Elektronik Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*. C.4, S.14, 1-16.
- Uğurlu, O. (2009). Liderlik davranışlarının değerlendirilmesinde liderin cinsiyeti, liderlik stili ve cinsiyete ilişkin tutumlar arasındaki ilişki. *Yayımlanmamış Doktora Tezi*. Ankara Üniversitesi Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü, Ankara.
- Vecchio, R. P. & Boatwright, K. J. (2002). Preferences for idealized styles of supervision. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 13, 327–342.

- Wang, A., Chiang, T. J., Tsai, C., Lin, T. & Cheng, B. (2013). Gender makes the difference: The moderating role of leader gender on the relationship between leadership styles and subordinate performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Process*, 122, 101-113.
- Welsh, D. H. B., Luthans, F. & Sommer, S. M. (1993). Managing Russian factory workers: The impact of U.S.-based behavioral and participative techniques. *Academy of Management Journal*, Vol. 36, No. 1, 58-79.
- Westerberg, K. & Tafvelin, S. (2014). The importance of leadership style and psychosocial work environment to staff-assessed quality of care: Implications for home help services. *Health and Social Care in the Community*, 22(5), 461–468. doi: 10.1111/hsc.12084
- Winston, B. E. & Patterson, K. (2006). An integrative definition of leadership. *International Journal of Leadership Studies*. Vol. 1 Iss. 2, pp. 6-66.
- Yılmaz, T. (2014). Lider Etkinliği Ölçeğinin Türkçeye Uyarlanması Çalışması. *KSÜ Sosyal Bilimler Dergisi*, Cilt:11, Sayı:2, Sayfa:1-24.
- Yousef, D. A. (2000). Organizational commitment: a mediator of the relationships of leadership behavior with job satisfaction and performance in a non-western country. *Journal of Managerial Psychology*. Vol. 15, No.1, pp. 6-28.
- Yukl, G. (2013). *Leadership in organizations*. 8th Edition. Pearson.

APPENDICES

APPENDIX A: Informed Consent Form

Bu tez çalışması, Yaşar Üniversitesi Psikoloji Bölümü Yüksek Lisans Programı öğrencisi Zeynep Çağırın tarafından, Dr. Evrim Güteryüz danışmanlığında yürütülmektedir. Araştırmanın amacı, katılımcıların iş hayatına yönelik tutumlarını incelemektir. Bunun için sizden konu hakkında bazı sorular içeren bir anket doldurmanız istenecektir. Ankete katılabilmeniz için doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz bir yöneticiyle çalışıyor olmanız gerekmektedir. Anketi doldurmak yaklaşık 15 dakikanızı alacaktır.

Anketteki soruların doğru ya da yanlış cevabı yoktur, önemli olan sizin konu hakkındaki düşüncelerinizdir. Çalışmanın sonuçlarının güvenilir olabilmesi açısından sorulara içtenlikle cevap vermeniz çok önemlidir. Ankette sizden kimliğinizi belli edecek ad-soyad gibi bilgiler istenmemektedir. Sorulara verdiğiniz cevaplar kesinlikle gizli tutulacak olup sadece araştırmacı tarafından bilimsel çalışma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Çalışmaya katılmak tamamen gönüllülük esasına dayalıdır. Ankette, genel olarak size rahatsızlık verebilecek sorular bulunmamaktadır fakat herhangi bir nedenden dolayı kendinizi rahatsız hissederseniz dilediğiniz takdirde çalışmaya katılmayı sonlandırabilirsiniz.

Çalışma ile ilgili bilgi almak ve soru sormak için Zeynep Çağırın ile iletişime geçebilirsiniz (iletişim için e-posta adresi: zeynepcagiran@hotmail.com).

Çalışmaya katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

Yukarıdaki bilgileri okudum, çalışmaya katılmayı onaylıyorum.

Evet Hayır

APPENDIX B: Paternalistic Leadership Questionnaire

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM;						
1	Çalışanlarına karşı bir aile büyüğü (anne/baba veya abla/ağabey) gibi davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çalışanlarını dışarıdan gelen eleştirilere karşı korur.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Çalışanlarını yakından (örn; kişisel sorunlar, aile yaşantısı vs.) tanımaya önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Çalışanlarına bir aile büyüğü gibi öğüt verir.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Çalışanlarına karşı tatlı-serttir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	İş yerinde aile ortamı yaratmaya önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Çalışanları ile ilişkilerinde duygusal tepkiler gösterir; sevinç, üzüntü, kızgınlık gibi tepkilerini dışa vurur.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Çalışanlardan birinin özel hayatında yaşadığı problemlerde (örn; eşler arası problemlerde) arabuluculuk yapmaya hazırdır.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Çalışanları ile ilgili kararlar alırken (örn; terfi, işten çıkarma) performans en önemli kriter değildir.	1	2	3	4	5
10	İşle ilgili her konunun kontrolü altında ve bilgisi dahilinde olmasını ister.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Bir ebeveynin çocuğundan sorumlu olması gibi her çalışanından kendini sorumlu hisseder.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Gerektiğinde çalışanları adına onaylarını almaksızın bir şeyler yapmaktan çekinmez.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Çalışanlarıyla birebir ilişki kurmak onun için çok önemlidir.	1	2	3	4	5
14	İhtiyaçları olduğu zaman, çalışanlarına iş dışı konularda (örn., ev kurma, çocuk okutma, sağlık) yardım etmeye hazırdır.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Çalışanlarına gösterdiği ilgi ve alakaya karşılık onlardan bağlılık ve sadakat bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Çalışanları ile yakın ilişki kurmasına rağmen, aradaki mesafeyi de korur.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Çalışanlarının gelişimini yakından takip eder.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Çalışanları için neyin en iyi olduğunu bildiğine inanır.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Çalışanlarının özel günlerine (örn, nikah, cenaze, mezuniyet vs.) katılır.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Çalışanlarında sadakate performansa verdiğiinden daha fazla önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
21	İşle ilgili konularda çalışanlarının fikrini sorar, ama son kararı kendisi verir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C: Participative Leadership Questionnaire

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM;						
1	Sık sık çalışanlarına danışır.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Çalışanlarını herhangi bir sorun çıktığında birlikte çözmeleri için teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Çalışanlarının arasına rahatça karışır.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Çalışanlarına dengiymiş gibi davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Grubun ortak kararlarına göre hareket eder.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Çalışanlarının ne hissettikleriyle yakından ilgilenir.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Gerekli durumlarda konunun özgürce ve çekinmeden tartışılmasına izin verir.	1	2	3	4	5
8	İş yerinde çalışanlarıyla sosyalleşir.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Çalışanların aynı fikirde olmadıkları zaman bile görüşlerini özgürce ifade etmelerini sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Çalışanlarıyla resmi olmayan bir ilişkisi vardır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D: Autocratic Leadership Questionnaire

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM;						
1	Çalışanlarının onun talimatlarına tamamen uymalarını bekler.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Önemli olsun olmasın tüm kararları kendisi verir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Her zaman toplantılarda son sözü söyleyen kişidir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Her zaman çalışanlarına herkesin gözü önünde emredici tavırla davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Çalışırken kişi kendisini baskı altında hisseder.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Çalışanlarına katı bir disiplin uygular.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Görevlerini tam olarak yapamadıkları zaman çalışanlarını azarlar.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Kendi biriminin kurum içinde en iyi performans gösteren birim olmasına önem verir.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Organizasyonda hiyerarşik düzenin korunmasına dikkat eder.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Yanında çalışanların yaptıkları işleri en ince detayına kadar takip eder.	1	2	3	4	5
11	İşin iyi yapıp yapılmadığından emin olmak için kontrol eder.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Sık sık	Her Zaman
DOĞRUDAN BAĞLI OLDUĞUM YÖNETİCİM;						
1	Çabalarınız karşılığında size yardım sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Kritik kararların uygunluğunu sorgulayarak tekrar gözden geçirir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Sorunlar ciddi boyutlara ulaşınca kadar müdahale etmeyi beceremez.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Dikkatini düzensizliklere, hatalara, istisnalara ve standartlardan sapmalara odaklar.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Önemli sorunlar ortaya çıktığında işin içine girmekten kaçınır.	1	2	3	4	5

Only the five items of the questionnaire were allowed to be shown by the publisher.

APPENDIX F: Leadership Effectiveness Scale

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiçbir Zaman	Nadiren	Ara sıra	Sık sık	Her Zaman
1	Yöneticim (amirim) liderlik rollerini uygun bir şekilde yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yöneticim bir lider olarak sorumluluklarını iyi bir şekilde yerine getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Yöneticimin, bir lider olarak genel etkinliğinden memnunum	1	2	3	4	5
4	Yöneticimin liderliğinde etkin bir şekilde çalışabilirim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G: Job Satisfaction Survey (Supervision)

Aşağıda doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz yöneticinizle ilgili birtakım ifadeler bulunmaktadır. Lütfen, her bir ifadeye ne ölçüde katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümündeki rakamı işaretleyerek belirtiniz.		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1	Yöneticim işini iyi yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Yöneticim bana adil davranmıyor.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Yöneticim çalışanlarının duygularıyla fazla ilgilenmez.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Yöneticimi severim.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H: Gender Perception Scale

Lütfen, aşağıda yer alan her bir ifadeye ne derecede katıldığınızı sağdaki cevap bölümünde işaretleyiniz.		Hiç katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen katılıyorum
1	Evlilik, kadının çalışmasına engel olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
2	Kadın sadece ailesinin ekonomik sıkıntısı varsa çalışmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
3	Çalışan kadın da çocuklarına yeterince zaman ayırabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
4	Kadınlar anne olduktan sonra çalışmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
5	Kadın siyasetçiler de başarılı olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
6	Kadınlar evlendikten sonra çalışmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
7	Çalışma hayatı kadının ev işlerini aksatmasına neden olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
8	Çalışan bir kadın hayattan daha çok zevk alır.	1	2	3	4	5
9	Kadınlar erkekler tarafından her zaman korunmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
10	Kocasını izin vermiyorsa kadın çalışmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
11	Kadınlar yönetici olabilir.	1	2	3	4	5
12	Çalışan bir kadın kazandığı geliri eşine vermelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
13	Çalışan bir kadın çocuklarına daha iyi anne olur.	1	2	3	4	5
14	Erkekler de çamaşır bulaşık gibi ev işlerini yapmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
15	Kocasız kadın sahipsiz eve benzer.	1	2	3	4	5
16	Bir ailenin gelirini erkekler sağlamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
17	Kadınlar kendi başına ticarethane gibi yerler (kafe, market, emlakçı gibi) açmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
18	Kadınların birinci görevi ev işlerini üstlenmektir.	1	2	3	4	5
19	Bir kadın kocasından fazla para kazanmamalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
20	Erkek her zaman evin reisi olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
21	Toplumun liderliği genellikle erkeklerin elinde olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
22	Kız çocuklarına da erkek çocuklar kadar özgürlük verilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
23	Bir kadın kendi haklarına sahip olabilmesi için gerekirse kocasına karşı çıkabilmelidir.	1	2	3	4	5
24	Kadın kocasından yaş olarak daha küçük olmalıdır.	1	2	3	4	5
25	Ailedeki önemli kararları erkekler vermelidir.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX I: Demographic Variables

Şimdi sizden bazı kişisel bilgiler istenmektedir. Bu bilgiler de sadece araştırma amaçlı olarak kullanılacak olup herhangi bir kişi veya kurum ile paylaşılmayacaktır. Soruları eksiksiz cevaplamanız araştırmamız açısından oldukça önemlidir.

- 1) Yaşınız nedir? _____
- 2) Cinsiyetiniz nedir? a) Kadın b) Erkek
- 3) Öğrenim durumunuz nedir? a) İlkokul b) Ortaokul c) Lise
- d) Ön lisans e) Lisans f) Lisansüstü (Yüksek lisans/Doktora)
- 4) Mesleğiniz nedir?

- 5) Çalıştığınız sektör türü nedir? (Örneğin; eğitim, sağlık, satış, bilişim, lojistik vb. gibi.)

- 6) Kaç yıldır çalışma hayatı içindedesiniz? (1 yıldan az ise ay olarak yazınız)

- 7) Şu anki iş yerinizde kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? (1 yıldan az ise ay olarak yazınız)

- 8) İş yerinizde yöneticilik göreviniz var mı? a) Evet b) Hayır
- 9) Şu anki iş yerinizde doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz amirinizin/yöneticinizin cinsiyeti nedir? a) Kadın b) Erkek
- 10) Şu anki iş yerinizde doğrudan bağlı olduğunuz amirinizle/yöneticinizle kaç yıldır çalışıyorsunuz? (1 yıldan az ise ay olarak yazınız) _____

Katılımınız için teşekkür ederiz.

APPENDIX J: MLQ License of Usage

**Permission for Zeynep Cagiran to reproduce 300 copies within one year of
February 28, 2018**

**Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
Instrument (Leader and Rater Form)
and Scoring Guide
(Form 5X-Short)**

English and Turkish versions

by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass

Published by Mind Garden, Inc.

info@mindgarden.com

www.mindgarden.com

IMPORTANT NOTE TO LICENSEE

If you have purchased a license to reproduce or administer a fixed number of copies of an existing Mind Garden instrument, manual, or workbook, you agree that it is your legal responsibility to compensate the copyright holder of this work -- via payment to Mind Garden -- for reproduction or administration in any medium.

Reproduction includes all forms of physical or electronic administration including online survey, handheld survey devices, etc.

The copyright holder has agreed to grant a license to reproduce the specified number of copies of this document or instrument within one year from the date of purchase.

You agree that you or a person in your organization will be assigned to track the number of reproductions or administrations and will be responsible for compensating Mind Garden for any reproductions or administrations in excess of the number purchased.

Copyright © 1995 Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass. All Rights Reserved.



www.mindgarden.com

To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for the above named person to use the following copyright material;

Instrument: *Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire*

Authors: *Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

Copyright: *1995 by Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass*

for his/her thesis research.

Five sample items from this instrument may be reproduced for inclusion in a proposal, thesis, or dissertation.

The entire instrument may not be included or reproduced at any time in any other published material.

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Robert Most", with a horizontal line extending to the right.

Robert Most

Mind Garden, Inc.

www.mindgarden.com