An Examination of Daughter Succession in Turkish Family Owned Businesses:
Gendered Norms, Cultural Influence and Leadership Challenges

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Abstract

Succession planning and successor selection is a key theme in the FOB (Family Owned Business) literature. To enable the business to continue, FOB owner needs to decide who will be the next leader before resigning. Although the succession process is one of the most researched areas within the family business field, studies have mostly focused only on incumbent or successor viewpoints. However, the purpose of this study is to fill the gap and offers a different perspective on daughters’ succession by analysing owner, successor, and employee points of view.

This dissertation aims to identify cultural patterns, and how factors based on different cultural patterns influence the daughter succession process in Turkish family businesses. Additionally, aim to reach novel insights regarding women entrepreneurs in Turkish FOBs, particularly how they gain business leadership positions, and the explicit and implicit factors determining the succession process. The research is grounded in the multidimensional model of succession process in family business theory, which has been expanded to include interactive and collaborative action, by addressing the family business cultural effects associated with stewardship theory. The adoption for this study of an epistemological interpretivist philosophy within a social constructivist perspective is justified. Data was collected from in-depth, semi-structured interviews with 20 FOB owners and daughters, and surveys of 252 FOB employees to obtain information on their perspectives about selecting daughters as FOB successors.

The current study is important for several reasons. First, it describes current FOB cultural characteristics in Turkey. Second, it reveals the attitudes and cultural assumptions of FOB incumbents, successors, and employees simultaneously, regarding daughter FOB succession, which has not been researched in previous studies. Third, this study verified that, besides generational differences, other factors may have more influence on the cultural patterns within family businesses in Turkey; in particular, the family business owner’s educational level, family’s entrepreneurship characteristics, and the locational preferences.
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CHAPTER 1. INTRODUCTION

Family Owned Businesses (FOBs) are accepted as vital players and essential sources of prosperity in the global economy. Although the majority of well-known companies are family owned, research indicates that unfortunately, only thirty percent of family businesses survive to the second generation. Therefore, successful transfer of the business to the next generation is an important issue for the family business literature.

In simple terms, succession is the transfer of leadership from one family member to another (Miller, Steier & LeBreton-Miller, 2003; Miller, Minichilli & Corbetta, 2013; Chrisman, Chua, Sharma & Yoder, 2009; Ruiz Jimenez, Vallejo Martos & Martinez Jimenez, 2015: Francis, 1999; Halkias, Thurman, Smith & Nason, 2011b; Stafford, Duncan, Danes & Winter, 1999; Dumas, 1992; Humphreys, 2013), which is of crucial importance for a firm’s sustainability. Whether a firm is public or private can shape its sustainability (Caro-Ann & Sur, 2013; Francis, 1999; However, if a family owns a business, especially if it has its name associated with it, there may be some incentive for the firm to behave responsibly to preserve the family reputation and image (Le Breton-Miller & Miller, 2015).

This study explores Turkish FOB succession while addressing the effects of distinctive cultural characteristics on this process. Specifically, to understand how the next generation leader is chosen in Turkey, this study examines cultural variables influencing father-daughter succession in Turkish FOBs. Thus far, the FOB literature has considered father-daughter succession process from the perspective of ownership (Vera & Dean 2005; Francis, 1999; Kula & Tatoglu, 2006), or successors (Deng, 2015; Mischel, 2011; Humphreys, 2013; Constantinidis & Nelson, 2009) or gendered norms (Remery, Matser & Floren, 2014; Al-Dajani, Bika, Collins & Swail, 2014; Sonfield & Lussier 2012) separately. Despite the rich literature on the succession process in family firms, according to researchers (Filser, Kraus & Mark, 2013; LeCouvie & Pendergast, 2014, 2015; Duh, 2014; Liu, Eubanks & Chater, 2015; Schlepphorst & Moog, 2014), the
factors most studied in the family business literature are incumbent related factors, mostly concerning the founder’s reluctance to plan for succession.

In line with Dumas (1998), Barbot, Bayad and Bourgiba (2004), Vera and Dean (2005), Otten-Pappas, (2015), Halkias et al., (2011b), this research aims to analyse the succession process when daughters take over a family business in Turkey. This study uses the conceptual framework of Barbot et al. (2004), which analyses both incumbent and successor factors involved in trans-generational succession in family firms. Their model focuses on the effects of culture on the relationship quality of the members involved in the transmission. However, while their model assumes there are significant differences in family relationships across different cultures, this study also includes the perceptions of FOB employees related with the succession process. Barbot et al. model also shows how the personality of the leader affects the preparation, setting up and successful transfer while the credibility of the successor is influenced by attitudes towards the firm and the predecessor (Constantinidis & Nelson, 2009).

This study examines succession decisions as they relate to the theory of stewardship since evidence of this theory’s influence has been confirmed in a number of family firm activities (Seaman, Bent & Unis, 2016; 2015, Miller, Lee, Chang & Le Breton-Miller, 2009; Dibrell & Moeller, 2011; Ashwin, Krishnan & George, 2015; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007). Additionally, stewardship is considered as an ideal theory for explaining governance in the family business context because of family business owners’ deep emotional investment in the family (Seaman et al., 2016;2015).

This is not the first study on Turkish FOBs. Keles, Ozkan and Bezirci (2011) analysed favouritism and nepotism in Turkish FOBs. Kula and Tatoglu (2006) analysed the relationship between board process attributes and company performance of Turkish FOBs, while Ufuk and Ozgen (2001) examined the interaction between the business and family life of female entrepreneurs in Turkish FOBs. Recently, Maden (2015) examined the profile of women entrepreneurs in Turkey as a developing country. The current study, however, offers a different perspective on daughter succession
implications from the perspective of stewardship, by analysing ownership, successor and employees’ points of view.

The main aim of this study is to gain insight into the succession process of Turkish FOBs and to determine the general characteristics of Turkish culture that influence women’s leadership acceptance in Turkish FOBs. The conceptual framework of the study presents key drivers and challenges identified in the extant literature and mainly includes issues of succession, drivers, contributions and challenges of selecting daughters as successors. Drawing on empirical material collected through semi-structured interviews with participant Turkish women and FOB owners, and a survey with employees of those FOBs, this study demonstrates the importance of cultural dynamics in analysing the key drivers, contributions and challenges of daughter succession process in Turkish FOBs.

1.1. Purpose of Study

The purpose of this study is threefold. The primary purpose is to examine the succession process as perceived and experienced by the incumbent, successor and employees in Turkish FOBs. The secondary purpose is primarily to assess the role of FOB owners, the broader involvement of family members, key drivers for daughters’ active involvement and their contribution to the firm, and the challenges they face in Turkish FOBs. The third purpose is to identify the cultural patterns in Turkish family businesses, and how these cultural patterns influence the internal dynamics of the succession process.

The conceptual framework of the study presents key drivers and challenges identified in the extant literature and includes issues of succession, drivers, contributions and challenges of selecting daughters as successors. The data used came from three sources of information: a list of Turkish women entrepreneurs from the Young Turkish Executives and Businessmen Association General Secretariat; empirical material
collected through semi-structured interviews with participant Turkish women; and FOB owners and a survey with employees of those FOBs.

This study examines the nature of such FOBs in an attempt to explain why some family businesses in Turkey easily accept daughters as successors whereas others find it difficult to do so.

1.2. Research Questions

In this study, the distinctive cultural characteristics of daughter leadership succession practices are explored to show how Turkish FOBs are currently managed. The literature on family businesses assumes that the culture of family businesses are strong which enables them to produce sustainable, superior performance (Brice & Richardson, 2009; Zahra, Hayton, Neubaum, Dibrell & Craig, 2008; Fletcher, Melin & Gimeno, 2012; Chrisman, Chua & Steier, 2003). Dyer (1986) describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture and becoming a laissez-faire culture or, possibly, a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management. However, this study asserts that each family business is unique in its internal dynamics, although other external dynamics may also influence these patterns.

The main research questions of the current study are as follows:

1. What is the temporal sequence of patterns during FOB succession in Turkey and to what extent does this affect the daughter succession process?
2. How do daughters gain the successor position in their family businesses and what are the characteristic features of this process?
3. How do implicit and explicit factors, such as gendered cognitions, and contextual factors, such as family business culture, affect this process?
The major contribution to the literature of the current study is that it includes the perspectives of FOB owners, daughter successors and employees in analysing Turkish FOB succession processes.

1.3. Overview of Methodology

This study focuses on daughters as successors in Turkish FOBs, and addresses entrepreneurship, leadership characteristics and invisibility by examining gender differences, utilising “A Multidimensional Model of Succession in Family Business”, together with stewardship theory in view of its demonstrated usefulness in explaining the dynamics and relationships observed in family firms (Corbetta & Salvatato, 2000). To understand the dynamics of daughter succession, the study investigates implicit and explicit factors that explain daughters’ perceptions about their role and function in the family business. In particular, it is useful to consider how Turkish family businesses differ, depending on their support for the family, and business and cultural assumptions.

This study explores the particularities of women’s succession by drawing on Barbot et al’s (2004) multidimensional model of succession in family business, by taking into account the factor of cultural values. This exploratory study seeks to discover the process of succession in Turkish FOBs, using a predominantly qualitative research strategy and design. In studying the social world, a qualitative approach seeks to describe and analyse the culture and behaviour of humans and their groups from the point of view of those being studied (Bryman & Bell, 2015 1992) to produce knowledge about people’s meanings (i.e. their understanding of “something as something”), which plays a central role in explaining human action and interaction (Lukka, 2014). Qualitative methods are generally most suited to gaining an in-depth understanding of a situation under study (Zohrabi, 2013). Accordingly, interviews and questionnaires were used for this research in order to obtain detailed information about FOB
succession and the effect of culture on FOB members during this process. Questionnaire items were based on the study’s objectives and research questions.

1.4. Data Collection

Three methods of data collection were used in this study: literature analysis, qualitative interviews with a purposive sample of Turkish FOB owners and daughters, and a questionnaire survey of FOB employees.

Qualitative data were gathered via in-depth interviews with male FOB owners and their daughters in addition to surveys conducted by the organisations themselves. The interviews explored the participants’ leadership succession philosophies and succession-related activities and policies with regard to leadership succession practices. To understand the current issues facing businesswomen in running their family businesses and to get their perspectives on family business succession, one-to-one interviews were also conducted with several female family business owners.

Each interview participant was mailed a confidential confirmation and summary of the research topic, including a cover letter describing the purpose of the study (Appendix 4). Each semi-structured interview, which lasted 60 to 120 minutes, was conducted and recorded in the participant’s office and later transcribed by the researcher. Questions were designed to elicit rich narratives highlighting factors influencing the interviewees’ succession decisions. An interview protocol informed by the study’s theoretical foundations was used to guide each interview.

As outlined above, the data was derived from in-depth interviews and questionnaires with FOB family members in Turkey. For the purposes of this study, family owned and managed organisations were defined as those in which 51% or more of the business is controlled by the family, in which decisions about management or ownership are influenced by family members, and in which two or more members of the family (e.g. father, mother, daughter or son) are employed in and actively participating in the
firm’s management (Dumas, 1992). While FOB researchers use various forms of this definition, the common issue is that FOBs are managed and controlled by the family members. Using this definition of a family firm, the search for daughters and family firms was conducted through two surveys. Two FOB survey instruments were used for this: PricewaterhouseCoopers’s (PwC) Turkish Family Owned Business Survey and GTIAD’s (Young Turkish Executives and Businessmen Association) survey of Turkey.

This study used interviews and questionnaires to obtain detailed information about FOB succession and the effect of culture on FOB members during this process. The questionnaire items were developed based on the research objectives and research questions. The questions were designed to measure different facets of FOB demographics and culture to understand their effects on the selection process within Turkish FOBs and gender norms in the context of FOB norms, which influence both family members and the business itself.

1.5. Overview of Research Philosophy

This social science study draws on an interpretivist research philosophy with a social constructivist epistemological position. One of the main reasons for this was that in a family owned businesses, successor selection is very much biased by gender with daughters being almost always excluded as candidates (Wang, 2010, p.475). Through an interpretivist philosophy, this study can assess the perceptions of FOB members towards daughters as potential successors.

Within an interpretivist philosophy, as part of the social constructivist perspective, the action research data for this study was collected in collaboration with the research participants, whether FOB employees, owners or daughters, or by the participants themselves, in order to understand the cultural context and to bring about direct and immediate practical change in the context of the research (Andrews, 2012). From an interpretivist point of view, what distinguishes the selection of the daughters as successors is inherently meaningful (Schwandt, 2007) in order to understand how it is
negotiated and understood by those directly affected (Grant, 1996). The knowledge acquired in this discipline is socially constructed rather than objectively determined (Carson, Gilmore, Perry & Gronhaug, 2001, p.5). The social constructivist theory emphasises that the meanings we ascribe to any construct, such as ‘the family’, emerge from social interactions, which involves understanding concepts from the unique perspective of each person (Keaton & Bodie, 2011; Gaytan, 2013).

Shotter (1993, p.93) defines social constructionists as those who are much more concerned with what it is like to be a particular person living within a network of relations with others, who is positioned or situated in relation to them in different ways at different times. Furthermore, applying social constructivism enables us to understand organisations within a socially constructed framework rather than as a complex product of bureaucracy. Accordingly, this study approaches organisations as products of human interaction and social construction (Gergen & Wortham, 2001).

1.6. Significance of the study

The goal of this study is to broaden academic understanding of daughter succession processes in Turkey. Although family business succession (e.g. Sharma, 2004; Miller et al., 2003; Miller, Le Breton-Miller, Minichilli, Corbetta & Pittino, 2014; Zahra 2012), family business culture (Habbershon, Williams & MacMillan, 2003; Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseb 2012; Zahra, Hayton & Salvato, 2004), culture and succession process (e.g. Adkins, Samaras, Gilfillan & McWee, 2013; Casimiro & Chambel, 2014), women in family businesses (e.g. Wang, 2010; Haberman & Danes, 2007; Harveston, Davis & Lynden, 1997; Dumas, 1990; Wang, 2010; Glover, 2014; Miller et al., 2003; Remery et al., 2014; Vera & Dean, 2005) and Turkish family business dynamics (e.g. Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001; Maden, 2015) have been studied intensively, this study addresses the issue from multiple perspectives, including social and cultural trends.
The major contribution of this study is that it is the first to show the effect of family business owners’ cultural assumptions on FOB members (family employees and daughters) willingness to accept a daughter as a successor and to make this process run smoothly. Additionally, this study examines to what extent internal and external dynamics affect family business culture and succession in Turkey. Finally, it is the first study to take a differentiated look at FOB daughter succession by analysing separately the perspectives of owners, successors and employees. These characteristics make this research valuable to family business owners and daughters considering alternative strategies for making FOB succession successful.
2.1. Introduction

Family owned and controlled businesses, which may be owned, controlled or operated by various family members (Brockhaus, 2004; Zachary, 2011; Pradhan & Ranajee, 2012; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010), account for an enormous percentage of global employment, revenues and GDP (Sharma, Chrisman & Chua, 2003; Miller et al., 2003; Cabrera-Suarez, de la Cruz Deniz-Deniz & Martin-Santana, 2011; Miller et al., 2009; Dyer, 1986). FOBs make up more than 60% of all the companies in Europe, 90% of Japan and The USA (Strazovska & Jancikova, 2016) while creating an estimated 70-90% of global annual GDP (Overbeke, Billimoria & Somers, 2015). In many countries, such commercial enterprises are the main drivers of economic activity, growth and sustainability (Overbeke et al., 2015; Pearson, Carr & Shaw, 2008; Miller et al., 2013; Miller, 2014; Wang, 2010; Al-Dajani et al., 2014). Therefore, these businesses’ performance and sustainability is a vital issue for both the business itself and the wider economy.

FOBs are as unique as the families that own and control them (Yukl, 2013; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Ward, 1997). As reported by Miller et al. (2003, p.513) the founders of many of these businesses try to continue their legacy and ensure continued family control via intergenerational succession, as when they hand over leadership to their children. The initial statistics (European Family Business, 2016), suggest only approximately one-third of FOBs survive into the second generation, with just 12% remaining “viable” by the third, and only about 3% operating into the fourth generation or beyond. Thus, one of the central problems for FOBs is this inability to ensure competent cross-generational family leadership through successful transfer of ownership and management to the next family generation (Miller et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2003; Overbeke et al., 2015; LeCouvie & Pendergast, 2014).
Although succession is a vital issue for FOBs, the process is unfortunately very gender biased in most societies, with boys being generally favoured over girls so daughters are always excluded as candidates and other women are seldom considered as successors in family businesses (Wang, 2010; Haberman & Danes, 2007; Harveston et al., 1997; Dumas, 1990; Wang, 2010; Glover, 2014; Miller et al., 2003; Remery et al., 2014; Vera & Dean, 2005). In many cases, especially in certain cultures, female members of the next generation are not even perceived as a viable option (Wang, 2010; Miller et al., 2003; Vera & Dean, 2005). Even in today’s rapidly changing business climate, primogeniture continues to dominate the value system of family businesses (Francis, 1999; Vera & Dean, 2005; Halkias 2011b). Thus, while a son is generally expected to join the business, a daughter may only be given a chance, or not even invited (Francis, 1999, p.15). Much of the limited research on daughters and family businesses has focused on the unique challenges of daughters who have achieved successor or leadership status (Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013; Overbeke et al., 2015; Wang, 2010; Francis, 1999; Deng, 2015; Mischel, Iannarelli & Aniello, 2011; Humphreys, 2013; Constantinidis & Nelson, 2009; Vera & Dean, 2005). A few other studies have focused on the dynamic of family businesses culture and its influence on the succession process (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014; Ruggieri, Pozzi & Ripamonti, 2014; Yan & Sorenson, 2006).

The purpose of this study is threefold. First, it aims to identify the successor selection and gender-based problems in Turkish FOB succession. Second, it aims to identify the relevant issues involved in the daughter succession process to understand how daughters may take the lead in their family businesses. As Gupta and Levenburg (2012, p.57) note, although family businesses are a dominant form of organisation in all cultures, there is a paucity of cross-cultural analyses. Hence, the third purpose of this study is to investigate the effects of family business culture on daughter succession in Turkish FOBs specifically.
The current study investigates the succession processes involving the transition of leadership from father to daughter, focusing on the relationships among the actors involved, the way the succession process takes place and the main issues emerging in Turkey. To do this, the following chapter will first closely review the state of knowledge concerning FOB dynamics within relevant theories. The first literature review section will investigate how cultural factors and gendered norms influence the succession process while the second section will outline the current status of women in Turkish business life generally and in FOBs specifically.

2.2. Understanding FOB in the natural context

Family firms represent the majority of all businesses worldwide (Strazovska & Jancikova, 2016; Keyt, 2015; Casillas, Moreno & Barbero, 2011; Gimeno, Baulenas & Coma-Cros, 2010; Sorenson, Yu, Brigham & Lumpkin, 2013; Miller et al., 2009) and play a major role in driving global economic growth (Lin, 2002; Zahra, 2003). More than 90% of U.S. and Japan (Strazovska & Jancikova, 2016), 95% of Turkish (TUSIAD, 2016), 90% of Indian (Tewari & Sharma, 2015), 87% of UK (UK Family Business Institute, 2016) and 60% of EU (European Family Business, 2016) businesses are classified as being family controlled, meaning that decisions about their management and ownership are influenced by the family (Dyer, 1986). More than two out of every three organisations are family owned and/or managed (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006).

Yet, as the Family Business Institute (Family Business Institute, 2015) reports, only approximately one-third of FOBs survive into the second generation, with just 12% remaining “viable” by the third and only about 3% operate into the fourth generation or beyond. Unfortunately, those statistics have not changed in 2016 (Bizri, 2016). Thus, this inability to ensure competent cross-generational family leadership through the transfer of ownership and management to the next family generation is one of the central problems of FOBs (Gilding, Gregory & Cosson, 2015; Miller et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2014; Sharma et al., 2003). To understand the importance of FOB succession
processes, this section presents a comprehensive review of the scholarly literature on FOBs and the importance of ensuring their sustainability.

A family is defined as a group of people related by blood, marriage or adoption who share a common dwelling (Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007), values and beliefs (Zahra et al., 2004), history and future (McGoldrick & Carter, 2003), and socially embedded norms (Guidice, Mero & Greene, 2013; Efferin & Hartono, 2015). It is the oldest social unit that maintains a set of norms, beliefs and values (Zachary, 2011, p.26), existing in small communities long before commerce began (Zachary, 2011; Schuman, Stutz & Ward, 2010). On the other hand, the family business is a system of rules governing relationships between the family and the firm (Gimeno et al., 2010) and in many countries, such commercial enterprises are the main drivers of economic activity, growth and sustainability (Overbeke et al., 2015; Pearson et al., 2008; Miller et al., 2013; Miller et al., 2014; Wang, 2010).

The literature on family businesses is wide-ranging with no widely accepted definition of family firms (Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Schuman et al., 2010; Adams, Manners, Astrachan & Mazzola, 2004; Pradhan & Ranajee 2012; Zahra, 2003, 2005; Kidwell, Hoy & Ibarreche, 2012; Chua, Chrisman & Sharma, 1999; Rosenblatt, de Mik & Anderson & Johnson, 1985; Chrisman, Chua & Sharma, 2005; Olson, Zuiker, Danes, Stafford, Heck & Duncan, 2003; Gimeno et al., 2010). For example, Pradhan and Ranajee (2012), and Kontinen and Ojala (2010) count as a family firm any company in which majority ownership lies within a single family and majority of the family members are, or at some time were, directly or heavily involved in the business. Chua et al. (1999, p.25) stress the sustainability and according to them family business is managed with the intention to shape and pursue the vision of the business held by a dominant coalition controlled by members of the same family or a small number of families in a manner that is potentially sustainable across generation of the family or families. Denison et al., (2004) state that family businesses are differentiated from non-family ones by who they are and what they do to build corporate cultures that maximise economic, social, and kinship goals. However, the majority of authors (e.g. Rosenblatt et al., 1985;
Zahra, 2012; Lyman, Salganicoff & Hollander, 1985; Karodia & Indermun, 2013; Klein, Astrachan & Smyrnios, 2005; Pradhan & Ranajee, 2012; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Chua et al., 1999; Miller, 2014; Ruiz Jimenez et al., 2015; Remery et al., 2014) identify the following as key features of family businesses: the family participates in the ownership and management of the company; there is interdependence of ownership and control, and the business is passed down through the generations with a drive for continuity. Similarly, Ward (1997) chooses to define family firms in terms of the continuity, as one that will be passed on for the family’s next generation to manage and control. It is possible to say that a family business generally refers to a company where the voting majority is in the hands of the controlling family, including the founder(s) who intend to pass the business on to their descendants (Ezziane, Mezzawi & leleux, 2013, p.1).

Theory and practice indicate that, in family-influenced firms, the interaction of the family unit, the business entity and individual family members creates unique conditions that influence the performance outcomes of the family business social system (Habbershon et al., 2003; Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseb, 2012). These unique conditions, specifically their simultaneous focus on economic and family-related goals, combined with attention to the longevity and sustainability of their operations, set family firms apart from other companies (Zahra, 2012, p.52). Moreover, various theories and frameworks have emerged to explain these unique conditions, specific characteristics and behaviours of family businesses. While a comprehensive theory of the family firm is still lacking (Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseß, 2012; Jaskiewicz, Combs & Rau, 2015) so that no single theory has been able to explain family business dynamics (Claver-Cortes, Zaragoza-Saez, Molina-Manchon & Ubeda-Garcia, 2015; Shapiro, 2005; Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseß, 2012; Schulze, Lubatkin & Dino, 2003; Miller et al., 2009). Now, the theoretical background of FOBs, FOBs cultural differences and the leadership issues in FOB will be examined in more detail.
2.2.1. Theoretical Background

The literature on the influence of controlling family on family firm’s management, performance and succession process is based on two directly conflicting theoretical perspectives (Le Breton Miller & Miller, 2015; Le Breton Miller, Miller & Bares, 2015, 2006). Agency and stewardship theories, resource-based view (RBV) of the firm (Verbeke & Kano, 2012), as well as sustainable family business theory have been utilized most frequently in conceptual and empirical studies on family firms (Danes et al., 2008; Danes et al., 2009; Stafford et al., 1999).

Agency theory is a systematic analysis of the relationship between principals and their agents (Greenwood, 2003; Bendickson, Muldoon, Liguori & Davis, 2016). In the family business context, this theory applies mostly to the relationship between an agent and the owners of a firm as a principle (Miller et al., 2014). Bendickson et al., (2016) argue that agency theory is based on the relationship between one party, the principal, who designates certain tasks and decisions for another party, the agent. Duh (2010), adds financial issues on this theory and according to him, agency theory is employed to explore the relationship between a firm’s ownership and management structure and its financial performance. Similarly, Kuruppuge and Gregar (2015) assert that agency theory mainly discuss the relationship of business owner who invested money in the business and agent (manager) who serve for salary in the business on behalf of owner, however, they state that according to agency theory, agents tend to be opportunistic, who, unless monitored effectively, will exploit owner-principals.

Even though Agency Theory explains owner and agent relationship of a business, owner and agent become one person in most cases of family businesses (Kuruppuge & Gregar, 2015, p.123). As a result of this relationship, the agency relationships in family firms are distinctive because they are embedded in the parent–child relationships found in the household and are characterised by altruism (Schulze et al., 2003, p.473).
Altruism is defined by Schulze, Lubatkin and Dino (2002, p.475) as a moral value that motivates individuals to undertake actions that benefit others without any self-interested expectations or external rewards. In other words, “altruism is the practice of unselfish concern for the well-being of others coupled with an associated measure of personal cost” (D’Souza & Adams, 2014, p.184). For example, compels parents to care for their children, encourages family members to be considerate of one another, fosters loyalty and commitment to the family and these bonds, in turn, lend family firms a history, language and identity that makes them unique (Schulze et al., 2003, p.473). Altruism also makes agency relationships in these owner-managed firms different from those found in other organisational forms (Schulze, Dino & Buchhaltz, 2001). Schulze et al. (2003) analyse how altruism causes agency problems in family firms and provide a theoretical framework for understanding the differences between family and non-family firms in terms of both behaviour and performance. Agency theory also describes possible problems arising from conflicts of interest and assumes that individuals behave opportunistically in the sense that one contract party, the agent, tends to behave in his or her own interest rather than the interest of the other contract party (Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseß, 2012). However, according to Greenwood (2003) and Schulze et al. (2003), agency theory offers only a limited analytical framework for FOBs because family owner-management promotes communication and cooperation within the firm and guards against opportunism, sparing FOB owners the need to closely monitor management or the expense of incentive payments. Thus, the theory can offer a useful but only partially appropriate explanation of family firm performance (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004). Schulze et al. (2001) discuss the limits of agency theory to explore the control of owners’ opportunistic behaviour, behaviour that interestingly might just be rooted in an altruistic impulse. However, even though various researchers criticise agency theory (Seaman et al., 2016;2015; Schulze et al., 2001), they do not assume that it is necessarily wrong or inferior to stewardship theory (Davis, Schoorman & Donaldson, 1997).
According to Zahra (2003), altruism is also a key component of the stewardship perspective, where owner–managers attempt to satisfy both their own needs and the objectives of others (e.g. the family and firm). Accordingly, altruistic family firm members can be seen as a steward of the firm (Eddleston & Kellermans, 2007, p.549). In particular, according to the stewardship theory of the family firm, altruism may explain why, in some family firms, members are able to successfully work together by fostering mutually trusting relationships, involvement-oriented environments and empowering organisational structures that increase effective organisational behaviours and firm performance (Davis et al., 1997; Corbetta & Salvato, 2004). In this theory, altruism is a family-based resource that encourages family members to place the firm’s objectives ahead of their own (Zahra, 2003). Similarly, Eddleston and Kellermans (2007) study highlights the positive effect of participative strategy process on performance in family firms and altruism to be an important inhibitor of relationship conflict and facilitator of a participative strategy process. Since propositions of agency theory may not apply in all situations, stewardship theory can provide an alternative model of managerial motivation and behaviour (Davis et al., 1997). Although agency theory addresses manager-principal interest divergence, an additional theory is needed to explain what, if anything, causes interests to be aligned. In particular, stewardship theory provides a means of defining relationships based upon other behavioural premises (Davis et al., 1997). Stewardship theory is well suited to explaining the differences between family and non-family business behaviour (Astrachan, 2010). That is, when family members are stewards of their organisations, they are motivated to fulfil organisational goals and maximise firm performance (Davis et al., 1997).

Stewardship is another informative perspective from which to view the advantages and disadvantages of a family business (Renzi & Esposito, 2007). This theory posits that many leaders and executives aspire to higher purposes in their jobs; that they are not simply self-serving economic individuals, but often act with altruism for the benefit of the organisation and its stakeholders (Breton Miller & Miller, 2015; Renzi & Esposito, 2007).
Stewardship theory also defines situations in which managers are not motivated by individual goals, but rather are stewards, whose motives are aligned with the objectives of their principals (Davis et al., 1997). Research indicates that the stronger the direct family influence as a function of the number of family directors, officers, generations or votes, the more likely is an agency setting, and vice versa (Siebels & Knyphausen-Aufseß, 2012). Moreover, stewardship theory suggests that any form of direct or indirect control may lower the stewards’ motivation, weakening their pro-organisational behaviour in both the short and long term (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004).

According to Chrisman, Chua and Litz (2004), stewardship theory has not been extensively adopted in family business studies, while Astrachan (2010) asserts that agency theory and stewardship theory operate under different assumptions, with agency theory assuming individualism and stewardship collectivism. This raises the question as to what creates individualistic or collectivistic cultures. Some cultural aspects, such as individualism versus collectivism and power distance may influence whether an agency or steward relationship is formed (Vallejo-Martos & Puentes-Poyatos, 2014). However, stewardship theory appears to be a suitable perspective in viewing the family as a resource because it depicts organisational members as collectivists, pro-organisational and trustworthy (Davis et al., 1997). Additionally, as argued by Davis, Allen & Hayes (2010), stewardship theory applies to the study of family businesses because the leader of the family business can act independently of the family that owns the organisational wealth. According to researchers (Davis et al, 1997; 2010; Vallejo-Martos & Puentes-Poyatos, 2014; Astrachan, 2010), steward relationships are more likely in collectivist cultures than in individualist cultures. In consequence, this study addresses the usefulness of stewardship theory in regards to family business.

Succession is accepted as a key challenge faced by family firm managers so a large majority of studies focus on this (Miller et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2013; Breton-Miller, Miller & Steier, 2004; Keyt, 2015; Stafford et al., 1999).
RBV is used to explain long-term differences in firm performance and mainly used for to analyse the differences between family and non-family firms performance (Duh, 2010). According to the RBV, a family firm's competitiveness is based on its access to valuable resources and it used to examine FOB behaviours (Sieger, Zellweger, Nason & Clinton 2011). Moreover, RBV is intended to help FOB researchers to understand why some FOBs enjoy a competitive advantage and outperform other firms and focuses on strategic resources (Kellermanns, Walter, Crook, Kemmerer & Narayanan, 2016). Thus, the research related to identifying FOB and other organisations differences, this theory might be beneficial.

The sustainable family business model interprets the sustainability of a family business as a function of both business success and family functionality (Stafford et al., 1999). This model focuses on the sustainability of family businesses as a function of family achievements and business achievements, and transactions between the family and the business as a prerequisite for family business success (Stafford et al., 1999). The main differences between this model and the previous models are that key features of the family and business systems are included, with both systems including resource use as well as interpersonal relationships (Stafford et al., 1999). Thus, the sustainable family business model proposes that both resources and interpersonal processes within the family and/or firm may facilitate and/or inhibit firm sustainability. These processes may transform inputs into achievements in the short run and sustainability in the long run (Olson et al., 2003). One form of social capital is culture, which is accounted for in the model as the characteristics of social capital inputs to the family and the firm (Danes et al., 2009). That is, the model considers both family and firm culture as resources.
The majority of the previous models of succession processes have neglected to consider culture and gender, particularly in assuming that the successor in a FOB is always male (Barbot et al., 2004), as shown in Figure 1. In this regard, the dialectic model developed by Barbot et al. (2004) focuses on the main actors' role in the FOB context and the effects of culture on the relationship quality of the members involved in the transmission. Additionally, this model clearly includes variation in family relationships across different national cultures, although this study examines these different family relationships within the same national culture of Turkey. According to Barbot et al. (2004), one main variable with greater significance when applied to relationship quality between family members involved in a succession process is the cultural variable. This model also addresses father-daughter management transfer while considering the impact of cultural variables.
Family businesses are by their nature complicated by dynamics within the owning family that not only affect business performance but also business growth, change and transitioning over time (Olson et al., 2003). Because family relationships change and vary across cultures, father–daughter succession also varies across time and culture (Halkias, Nwajiuba, Harkiolakis & Caracatsanis, 2011a). As suggested by Ward (1987), the business owner is the most important factor in ensuring that succession succeeds and according to Miller and Le Breton Miller (2006, p.78) the most powerful benefit associated with owner management derives from the stewardship motivations of the leader (Miller & Le Breton Miller, 2006, p.78).

Stewardship culture refers to the extent to which a culture of stewardship is prevalent in the organisation. In order to address issues concerning father-daughter transfer, while considering the impact of cultural variables, Barbot et al.’s (2004) model stresses the character of two types of transmission and the characteristics of key factors. Therefore, this study uses Barbot et al.’s model while considering the stewardship theory.

2.2.2. FOBs and Culture

Globalisation has encouraged special attention to the study of organisations and their cultures (Onéy-Yazici, Giritli, Topcu-Oraz & Acar, 2007, p.519). The word ‘culture’ has many meanings and connotations (Schein, 2010; Brown, 1995; Gill, 2011). Schein (2010, p. 26), for example, defines it as a “pattern of basic assumptions, invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration; that has worked well enough to be considered valid and, therefore, is to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”. Gill (2011) briefly defines it as “the way we do things around here”.
Culture also refers to those learned behaviours characterising the total way of life of members of any given society, so cultures differ from one another just as individuals do (Hughes, Ginnett & Curphy, 2011, p.12).

Other well-known descriptions of culture include “software of the mind” (Hofstede, 1991), “collective programming of the mind”, “collective soul” or the “social glue” that holds people together (Warner & Joynt, 2002). Another popular and simple definition is “how things are done around here” (Mullins, 2010).

Although most people probably think of culture in terms of very large social groups, the concept also applies to organisations. Organisational culture has been defined as a system of shared background, norms, values or beliefs among members of a group (Hughes et. al, 2011), or as a collection of traditions, values, policies, beliefs and attitudes that constitute a pervasive context for everything we do and think in an organisation (Mullins, 2010). Organisational culture is usually accepted by the people who work within the group (Mullins, 2010) According to Hughes et al. (2011, p.21), if somebody does not share the values or beliefs of the majority of the organisation’s members, then in all likelihood this person will have fairly negative attitudes about the organisation overall.

Firms can develop unique assets that allow them to gain a sustainable competitive advantage that improves their performance (Zahra et al., 2004; 2008). These firm-specific assets may be tangible or intangible (Edleston et al., 2008). According to Green (2005), these include leadership, capital, manufacturing processes, brand names, databases, human capital, tacit knowledge, firm culture, management skills and experience, the set of employees, the founder/owner’s entrepreneurial abilities and know-how, and a firm’s network of alliances. Among these specific assets, an organisation’s unique family-based culture is accepted by many authors as an essential resource that enables them to produce sustainable, superior performance (Brice and Richardson, 2009; Zahra et al., 2008; Fletcher et al., 2012; Chrisman et al., 2003).
The literature on family businesses assumes that the cultures of family businesses are strong enough to provide the basis for firm strategy and management (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014). The family firm literature strongly suggests that family firm culture has a great effect, not only on performance (Brice and Jones, 2013; Eddleston, Kellermanns & Sarathy, 2008; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Brice & Richardson, 2009) but also on goal-sets (Sharma, De Masis & Gagne, 2014), strategy (Brice & Jones, 2008; Zahra et al., 2008) and competitiveness (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Vallejo-Martos, 2011; Zahra et al., 2008).

The literature identifies a wide range of culture-based behaviours that may provide some competitive advantage to the family firm (Laforet, 2016; Brice & Jones, 2008; Fletcher et al., 2012; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). According to Gupta and Levenburg (2012) even though FOBs are the dominant form of organisation in all cultures, there is a paucity of cross-cultural analysis of family businesses. One such study led by the Culturally-sensitive Assessment Systems and Education project (CASE) offers a comparative analysis of family businesses in different regions of the world (Gupta, Levenburg, Moore, Matwani & Schwarz, 2010). The CASE study uses nine dimensions of family business grouped into three categories: family system, business system, and joint family and business ownership system. These dimensions can be understood as ideologies intersecting with three systems of family business (family, business and ownership), and three social interaction elements (structural, relational, and cognitive) (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012, p.57). Gupta et al., (2010) examined the CASE study that investigated cross-cultural variations in family business dimensions. The CASE project and Gupta and Levenburg (2010, p.156) study conclude that cultural attributes of regional systems and factors correlated with these cultural attributes—such as economic development, education, industry and technological configuration, and governance systems—are not immutable or frozen in time. Brice and Richardson (2009) built on the work of Hofstede (1991) to research value and belief cultural characteristics in family firms across different countries. In another study, Klein et al. (2005) structured the family business based on the F-PEC scale and categorised it under three dimensions of power, experience, and culture.
However, Gupta and Levenburg (2012) assert that, although the F-PEC scale defines and distinguishes family businesses from non-family businesses, it only defines and identifies a very specific type of family business.

Despite the valuable contribution of previous studies on family business culture, according to researchers (Laforet, 2016; Stavrou, Kleanthous & Anastasiou, 2005; Vallejo, 2008; Casimiro & Chambel, 2014; and Dyer, 1986) culture of family business is one of the most important contributions to family business, cultural studies and family firms’ cultural characteristics impact how family firms and their economic and social role are perceived, the value of family firm resources, and even how the consumption of private benefits might be viewed (Dow & McGuire, 2016, p.587). In examining cultural effects, this study uses Dyer’s (1986) cultural dimensions. Dyer describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or, possibly, a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014). Since the present study focuses on the succession process, Dyer’s family business cultural patterns are used to examine Turkish FOB culture.

The general theory of paternalism is based on norms of protection, safety, guardianship and benevolence (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). Paternalistic culture is typical in businesses managed by the founder, who assumes a parental role, not only by providing well-being to the family but also to employees considered and treated as part of an extended family (Casimiro & Jose Chambel, 2014, p.44). Similarly, Brumley (2014) asserts that in paternalistic cultures, employers care about employees, but maintain authority like a father would with his children. Managers in paternalistic cultures not only consider their employees’ work-life but also take a personal interest in their workers’ private lives and attempt to promote their personal welfare (Fikret Pasa, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2001).
Additionally, in paternalistic cultures, those in authority consider it their obligation to provide protection to those under their care while expecting loyalty and deference in return (Jackson, 2016. p.4). Thus, paternalistic leadership relies on values such as personal loyalty to the leader and unquestioning obedience (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008). In this kind of culture, there is little uncertainty regarding who makes the decisions (Dyer, 1986). Brumley’s (2014) study also suggests that employees in paternalistic cultures are committed to the organisation, as evidenced by expressions of loyalty, pride and appreciation. In a paternalistic relationship, the follower voluntarily depends on the leader (Hale Oner, 2012).

According to Dyer (1986), FOB leaders, who are family members, retain all power and authority and make all the key decisions. As Brumley (2014) notes, paternalism promotes a workplace culture that legitimises authority structures and centralised control. Dyer (1986) asserts that the paternalistic pattern is the most common culture in the family firms. In this kind of culture, the relationship is managed hierarchically and employees are considered untrustworthy; however, given close supervision by family members, they are assumed to be willing to accomplish the family’s wishes (Stavrou et al., 2005. p.192). When it comes to selecting someone to occupy top positions in the business hierarchy, the founder gives preference to family members (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014).

Pellegrini and Scandura (2008) assert that paternalism is congruent with the values of collectivistic and high power distance cultures. This is because a paternalistic leader’s involvement in the employees’ personal lives is desired and expected in collectivistic cultures whereas it can be perceived as a violation of privacy in individualistic cultures (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008, p.570). Aycan’s (2001) cross-cultural study also supports this idea by showing that employees in the collectivist cultures of China, Pakistan, India, Turkey and the United States reported higher paternalistic practices than employees in more individualistic Canada, Germany and Israel.
The laissez-faire culture tends to emerge when the second generation takes over management, while still greatly influenced by the values of the founder’s time (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014, p.44).

While this cultural pattern is similar to the paternalistic pattern in many ways, in the laissez-faire culture, employees are seen as trustworthy and given responsibility to make decisions (Dyer, 1986). In the laissez-faire leadership style, the leader delegates all decision-making powers to followers (Zareen, Razzaq & Mujtaba, 2015; 2014, p.536). In the family business context, a laissez-faire culture exists when family members turn management responsibility over to trusted employees (Stavrou et al., 2005, p.192), based on a high level of trust in the employees (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014). Laissez-faire leadership is considered as absent leadership, in complete contrast to transformational or transactional leadership (Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2008). Yang (2015, p.1256) suggests that leadership effectiveness depends on how a leader’s behaviours are perceived by followers. Thus, for example, laissez-faire leadership may be viewed as respecting subordinates’ autonomy rather than indicating the absence of leadership.

Laissez-faire culture has been shown to have harmful effects on supervisory effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction (Skogstad, Einarsen, Torsheim, Aasland, & Hetland, 2007; Hinkin & Schriesheim, 2015; Fuller, 2010). For example, Zareen et al., (2015; 2014) find that laissez-faire leaders offer little support to their subordinates. However, even though most empirical findings of laissez-faire leadership suggest it harms subordinates’ attitudes and performance, some empirical research finds positive outcomes of laissez-faire leadership in subordinates’ innovation propensity (Yang, 2015). Fuller (2010) demonstrates how Hong Kong’s laissez-faire culture has transformed the city into a more knowledge-intensive economy. Theodosiou and Katsikea (2007) suggest that laissez-faire leadership encourages independence and entrepreneurial spirit, as laissez-faire leadership sends confidence to subordinates. The growth of the firm, the dispersion of capital among brothers or cousins or different characters leads family members to call upon employees to present
suggestions and participate in decision making (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014). In such conditions, laissez-faire leaders give their followers a full chance to use their capabilities to understand ongoing problems and offer them the liberty to make decisions accordingly (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012).

However, Yang (2015) claims that situational factors are important in determining whether laissez-faire leadership has positive or negative effects. Dyer (1986) argues that a laissez-faire culture is more amenable to FOB growth and individual creativity than the paternalistic pattern is since the family delegates a great deal of responsibility to employees. However, the major danger of a laissez-faire culture is that employees may not act consistently with the family’s basic values and assumptions (Dyer, 1986).

Participative culture tends to develop when the second generation starts to run the family business, but it is a relatively rare pattern, as family status and power are minimised to create a more equitable environment for family and employees (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014; Dyer, 1986). The literature on participative cultures suggests that they are characterised by a balanced distribution of power, a strong customer focus, and integration of managing with doing, a strategy of continuous learning, and an orientation toward community service (Bechtold, 1997, p.8). In a participative culture, employees are generally able to be creative to develop their talents and abilities (Dyer, 1986) because, in a participative leadership culture, employee participation is encouraged by those at the higher levels of the organisation (Huang, Rode & Schroder, 2011). Voicu (2014, p.616) asserts that institutions like the family or democracy provide consistent sets of norms that guide behaviour. Since people are exposed to them on a daily basis, they become familiar with their functioning and adapt their values to cope with the social environment. In this sense, a participative culture can also be conceptualised as a strong set of norms (Voicu, 2014).

Effective and ethical leadership and the role of employee participation in implementing a sustainability agenda are of crucial importance for organisational change (Rok, 2009, p.469). Elele and Fields (2010), who examine the relationship
between culture and employee participation, find that employees from low power-distance and highly individualistic cultures seem to judge participation levels only relative to the levels that they desire. Similarly, Bass (1990b) claims that countries with low power distance favoured and accepted participative management whereas those with high-power distance favoured and accepted autocratic styles.

On the other hand, Pellegrini and Scandura (2006), suggest that participative decision making may be viewed very differently depending upon cultural views of paternalism, as paternalism may be related to perceptions of transformational and/or charismatic leadership.

The professional culture is used to describe the kind of pattern that often emerges when professional managers run a family business (Major, Fletcher, Davis & Germano, 2008). The entry of outside managers, detached from family tradition and in possession of professional management models, which tends to occur, especially in the third or subsequent generations, marks the transition to an even more professional style, characterized by decisions based on rational analysis and economic criteria (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014, p.44). Professional cultures are often highly competitive, with managers striving to reach the top positions (Dyer, 1986). Additionally, according to Gupta and Levenburg (2012, p.60), in societies where power is distributed equally and the sense of belonging and obligation to one’s family or in-group is weak, the spirit of professionalism tends to be stronger, family control of the business is more strictly controlled, and succession processes follow competitive norms.

The differences between family and non-family firms, in terms of culture and goal-setting, strategy, are a resource leading to a competitive advantage, leading to superior levels of long-term performance and effectiveness (Brice & Jones, 2008; Zahra et al., 2008), through developing a family-oriented environment, stronger employee loyalty, greater reputation for integrity and ethical behaviour, closer alignment between organisational culture and strategy, faster response to environmental shifts, and a longer term viewpoint that is less reactive to economic cycles (Fletcher et al., 2012). That is, the literature indicates that family firms often,
though not always, have a competitive advantage over non-family firms due their unique family business cultures.

2.2.3. Leadership Requirements in the Family Business

Effective leadership is central to the success of any business, whether family-controlled or not (Miller, 2014). However, family leadership is strategically necessary to achieve family control and wealth (Cruz, Hamilton & Jack, 2012) since the family management transfer inherently involves a leadership role shift between predecessors and successors (Radu Lefebvre & Lefebvre, 2016).

Leadership is a complex phenomenon with no widely accepted definition (Silva, 2016; Yukl, 2013; Northhouse, 2010). Wren (1995) identifies 53 different approaches to leadership research, each with their own leadership definitions. Of these, emotional and social intelligence, full-range leadership, authentic leadership, and leader-member exchange are the leading contemporary theories. Regarding emotional and social intelligence, Cherniss and Adler (2000) suggest that as much as 90% of a leader’s effectiveness is determined by his/her emotional and social intelligence. Social intelligence refers to leadership behaviours that reflect the ability to think and act wisely in social situations, and the ability to recognise, understand and use emotional information about others that leads to or causes effective or superior performance (Boyatzis, 2011; Riggio & Reichard, 2008). Emotional intelligence is the ability to recognise, understand and use emotional information about oneself that leads to or causes effective or superior performance (Carraher, 2013). Full range leadership theory refers to a leadership system in which leaders vary in the extent to which they display a repertoire of leadership behaviours (Chaimongkonronjna & Steane, 2015). This is one of the most researched contemporary leadership theories and includes three theoretical perspectives of leadership: transformational, transactional and laissez-faire (Bass, 1985; Nielsen, 2014; Antonakis & House, 2014; Rowold, 2014).
Effective leadership reflects actions influencing the transformation process and ensuring organisational adaptation (Antonakis & House, 2014). Managers adopting transformational leadership styles can inspire subordinates to contribute to organisations in terms of higher ideals and concepts of morality (Dai, Dai, Chen & Wu, 2013).

Bass (1990a, p.21) defines transformational leaders as leaders who motivate their followers to perform beyond expectations by activating the followers’ higher order needs, fostering a climate of trust, and inducing followers to sacrifice self-interest for the sake of the organisation. It also refers to the social process that motivates followers to perform the tasks they are responsible for within a climate of mutual trust (Rowold, 2014), with the transactional leader rewarding subordinates who meet agreed-upon performance standards (Dai et al., 2013). Transformational leadership inspires followers through charisma; a strong commitment to values, beliefs, and mission; the ability to communicate an inspirational vision of the future; intellectual stimulation; and individualised attention to the interests and needs of followers (Miller, 2014).

While transformational leaders inspire their followers with a positive, value-based vision of the future, transactional leaders rely on clearly defined quid-pro-quo transactions (Rowold, 2014, p.368). A transformational leader thereby establishes high standards and goals; gives meaning, purpose, and direction to followers and their work; and leads followers with enthusiasm, inspiration, charisma, motivation, intellectual stimulation, individualised consideration and emotions (Further et al., 2013; Moors, 2012). Some scholars have claimed that, while both transformational and transactional leaders actively intervene in a proactive manner to solve problems, transformational leaders may be more effective than transactional leaders (Zopiatis & Constani, 2010; Dai et al., 2013).
Unlike the previous leadership theories that are centred on the leader’s individual attributes (e.g. traits and styles), leader-member exchange theory focuses on the dyadic relationship between leaders and followers (Uhl-Bien, Marion & McKelvey, 2007; Gerstner & Day, 1997; Sheer, 2015; Nie & Lamsa, 2015). Prior research has suggested that leaders and followers have different expectations of each other (Xu, Yu & Shi, 2011). Therefore, to create an outstanding image and meet employees’ expectations, the first step for a leader is to get to know and understand employees’ expectations of him or her (Nie & Lamsa, 2015).

Unnu and Kesken (2014) called this leader-member exchange theory, arguing that leaders cannot use the same style in dealing with all subordinates, but rather must develop different types of relationship or exchange with each subordinate.

Leadership is the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it in order to enable the individual to accomplish shared objectives (Yukl, 2013). A leader should, therefore, know what leadership skills and knowledge are valued in each society to develop different leadership competencies in different workplaces (Efferin & Hartono, 2015). Similarly, Hogan and Kaiser (2005) argue that if leadership is the ability to build an effective team then a good leader must be someone others are willing to follow. More specifically, people look for four essential characteristics in leaders: integrity, judgment, competence, and vision.

In a family business, researchers find that family ownership and family leadership are key control mechanisms (Gomez-Mejia, Nunez-Nickel & Gutierrez, 2001; Jiang & Peng, 2010; Villalonga & Amit, 2006) and through the founder’s values and actions, the firm’s culture evolves, encouraging family members to be responsive to new opportunities and committed to initiating and support its entrepreneurial endeavours (Eddleston, 2008). Family leaders tend to share similar values and enjoy longer tenures than non-family leaders and provide a firm with greater stability (Sirmon & Hitt, 2003). Whether just organisational members or members of the owner’s family, family employees are generally found to be highly committed and loyal to their companies. Thus, determining the best way of leading family employees to maintain
or even enhance their organisational commitment is an important concern for family business owners (Gao, Bai & Shi, 2011). Mentoring has potential benefits in several areas, supporting long-range human resource planning and managerial succession, and preparing future leaders (Koyuncu, Burke, Alayoglu & Wolpin, 2014). Additionally, since FOBs are more personal, with employees acting and feeling like part of the family, leadership is considered to be mentoring (Arregle, Hitt, Sirman & Very, 2007).

The literature demonstrates that effective leadership is central to the success of any business, family-controlled or not (Miller, 2014). In addressing family leadership and outcomes issues, research indicates that different types of family leadership may produce distinct outcomes (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2008; Sorenson et al., 2013; Miller, 2014). A recent study by Efferin and Hortano (2015, p.156) found that, to understand the management control system in a family business, the researcher needs to examine the links between societal culture, socialization, owner’s values, employees’ values, patterns of interactions among all participants, and the pragmatic considerations of the owner in coping with the dynamics of the business environment. Additionally, Moores and Barrett’s (2002) earlier study found that successful CEOs in family businesses learn FOB leadership through a series of distinct learning phases. Not only for management, but also at the succession period, well-prepared next-generation family leaders who are committed to the vision of the family firm and engaged with their work are critical to smooth leadership successions (Arregle et al., 2007). In terms of leadership characteristics, Hartel, Bozer & Levis (2009) claim that a FOB leader’s characteristics play an important role, especially during the succession process. In particular, during the succession process, the executive coach will be in a unique position to add real value to this process.

Since leader values are the source of an organisational culture that creates internal integration among organisational members (Efferin & Hartono, 2015, p.131), studies of organisational culture should not ignore leadership, as leaders play a critical role, especially in developing and disseminating organisational culture (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). Various researchers (e.g. Gao et al., 2011; Boyatzis & Soler, 2012; Hartel et al.,
have identified specific leadership styles for family businesses. However, studies show that FOB leadership style is not only related to being a family or non-family member manager, it is also related to national culture and size of business (Gomez-Mejia et al., 2001; Jiang & Peng, 2010; Villalonga & Amit, 2006; Arregle et al., 2007). For example, according to Sorenson et al (2013), the most commonly found culture in first-generation family firms is paternalistic, where power and decision-making are centred on the incumbent leader, while other family and non-family members involved in the business largely carry out the decisions of this leader.

2.3. FOB Succession

The succession process represents one of the most critical events in the family business lifecycle (Bizri, 2016, p.133) and it is related to the creation of conditions allowing the continuation of a successful business, which requires displaying entrepreneurship to re-create and develop the company (Gimeno et al., 2010, p.54). However, one of the central problems facing FOBs is the ability to ensure competent family leadership across generations as only one-third of FOBs survive into the second generations and only 10-15% make it into the third generation (Miller et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2014; Breton-Miller et al., 2004).

According to Sharma, Chrisman, Pablo & Chua (2001), succession concerns the actions and events that lead to the transition of leadership from one family member to another in family firms. In order to explain this process, Handler (1994) asserts that succession is not simply a single step of handing over the baton. He says it is a multistage process over time, beginning before heirs even enter the business. Therefore, researchers tend to agree that succession is more a process than an event that should be planned carefully (Handler, 1994; Avloniti, Iatridou, Kaloupsis & Vozikis, 2014; Duh, 2014; Schlepphorst & Moog, 2014; Cadieux et al., 2002; Pardo-del-Val, 2009). Additionally, leadership succession is one of the most challenging tasks in organisational life as it tests the mettle of the firm by exposing complex relationship issues that may have lain dormant during the firm’s day-to-day operations (Zahra & Sharma, 2004). Researchers observe that managerial transmission in FOBs is more
delicate and complex than patrimonial transmission (Cadieux et al., 2002; Zahra & Sharma, 2004). In these companies, culture influences ways of being, thinking, and doing, which can affect the role of each family member, as well as how the patrimony is passed on between generations, the choice of the successor, and the predecessor–successor relationship (Barbot et al., 2004). This process starts with its planning; next chapter explains how this process is planned.

2.3.1. Succession planning in FOBs

Successor selection a critical success factor in FOB leadership succession (Miller et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2011; Chrisman, Bauerschmidt & Hofer, 1998; Ruiz Jimenez et al., 2015: Francis, 1999; Halkias et al., 2011(b); Stafford et al., 1999; Dumas, 1992; Humphreys, 2013). Unfortunately, however, most family-owned businesses cease because the next generation does not enter the business (Ward, 1997). Family businesses can also fail for many other reasons: disconnection between shareholders and management, problems in succession, lack of leadership skills, poor planning, lack of communication, lack of stress management, lack of mutual respect, lack of use of resources, lack of decision making, lack of conflict resolution, or lack of trust among members involved in the FOB (Keyt, 2015). However, lack of a shared vision for the family enterprise and weak next-generation leadership are often cited as two of the leading reasons for the failure of family firms to successfully manage the transition from one generation of family ownership to the next (Ward, 1997).

Family firms are important, not only for making an essential contribution to the economy, but also because of the long-term stability they bring, the specific commitment they show to local communities, the responsibility they feel as owners, and the values they stand for (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). Therefore, the majority of family business research has focused on how families can best prepare to hand the family business on to the next generation, concentrating mainly on the factors that facilitate
succession (Halkias et al., 2011(b); Miller et al., 2003; Stafford et al., 1999; Ward, 1997; Breton & Miller, 2004; Sharma et al., 2001).

Etymologically, the word succession comes from the Latin word ‘successionem’ meaning “a following after, a coming into another’s place” (Saxena, 2013). The term succession refers to situations where both the incumbent, as the person who holds the top management position in a family business and who must relinquish that position before another family member can take over, who relinquishes managerial control, and the successor, who takes it over, are family members (i.e. related by blood or by law) (De Massis, Chua & Chrisman, 2008, p.184). Succession also refers to the success and sustainability of a family business over the long run (Sorenson et al., 2013).

The succession process concerns the actions, events, and other developments that affect the transfer of managerial control from one family member to another to ensure competent family leadership across the generations (Breton-Miller, Miller & Lester, 2011; Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2001). Succession enables the transfer of business ownership and management from a ‘senior’ to a ‘junior’ generation so that control of the enterprise continues in the family (Brockhaus 2004), often referred to as “passing the baton” (Chrisman et al., 2009). However, the decreasing numbers of FOBs that survive through successive generations indicates that most FOBs fail in their succession efforts (Griffeth, Allen & Barrett, 2006).

According to Handler (1991), there are three stages in the succession process: personal development of the heir before actively working in the business, business involvement, and leadership succession when the new leader takes charge of the business. Effective succession selection plays a crucial role as it provides family continuity in the business, raises the entrepreneurial potential of descendants, and reduces conflict among siblings in the succession process (Garcia-Alvarez, Lopez-Sintas & Saldana Gonzalvo, 2002). Morris et al. (1996) organise the factors associated with effective transitions into three general categories, as shown in Table 1.
Table 1. Effective transition factors

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Planning and control activities</th>
<th>Relationships among family and business members</th>
<th>Preparation level of heirs</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Succession planning</td>
<td>Communication</td>
<td>Formal education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Tax planning</td>
<td>Trust</td>
<td>Training</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of outside board</td>
<td>Commitment</td>
<td>Work experience (outside firm)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Use of family business consultants/advisors</td>
<td>Loyalty</td>
<td>Entry-level position</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Creation of a family council</td>
<td>Family turmoil</td>
<td>Year working within firm (and/or industry)</td>
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<tr>
<td>Sibling rivalry</td>
<td>Motivation to join firm</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Jealousy/resentment</td>
<td>Self-perception of preparation</td>
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<tr>
<td>Conflict</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Shared values and traditions</td>
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The first and most critical category concerns planning and control activities (Miller et al., 2003; Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Morris et al., 1996; Lussier & Sonfield, 2015; Chua, Chrisman & Steier, 2003; Sales, 1990; Cowan & Milne, 2001; Mazzola, Marchisio & Astrachan, 2008; Olson et al., 2003; Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011). Ward (1987) suggests that strategic planning needs to incorporate the strategic plans of the family as well as those of the business. Researchers agree that succession occurs over a long time and begins before heirs even enter the firm (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Handler, 1991; Mazzola et al., 2008). However, even if a successor has great competence, he or she may be an inappropriate choice if that selection causes conflicts among influential family members (Wiecek-janka, Mierziwk & Kijewska, 2016; Cardona & Raffaelli, 2016; Li, 2015). At that point, a family council may help ensure that successors meet both competency and social criteria (Breton-Miller et al., 2004). Since, in a family business, the strategic policy is determined by a majority of the family members.
(Lyman et al., 1985), a family council plays an important role in giving advice, handling family disputes, etc. (Ward, 1997).

It also fosters an awareness of the importance of one’s family history and underscoring the value of being a family member in order to build trust among family members (Francis, 1999a). Planning is a deliberate and formal process for effective transfer of management control from one family member to another (Mazzola et al., 2008; Sharma et al., 1997). However, only 16% of family firms have a discussed and documented succession plan in place (PWC, Family Business Survey, 2014). Other planning issues include determining ways to avoid taxation liability, the use of boards of directors, the potential roles of family business consultants, and the establishment of a family council (Arregle et al., 2007).

The second category concerns the personal relationship between the firm’s family- and non-family employees. Mutual respect and understanding between the next-generation family member and the parent (or other family members as founders or owners) are critical to the next-generation family member’s quality and succession experience (Handler, 1991). The most important issues here are trust and communication among family members. For an effective succession, the next generation must develop an appropriate relationship between the family firms’ past and present (Miller et al., 2003). The quality of the family relationship is a predominant predictor of successful transition (Breton-Miller et al., 2004). Morris, Williams, Allen & Avila (1997), for example, found that harmonious family relationships determine successful FOB successions and that the incumbent’s priorities should be building trust, encouraging communication, and fostering shared values among family members. Family leaders also agree that the best successor is someone who wants the job, and has the trust and the respect of other family members and employees (Chrisman et al., 2009).
The final category concerns preparing the heirs. Several characteristics that enhance the effectiveness of any family business leader, regardless of gender or personality (Francis, 1999b).

In particular, the successor must develop some critical characteristics like business and industry knowledge (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011; Francis, 1999a-b), ability to gain respect of non-family employees (Sharma, 2004), a decision-making and interpersonal network (Chrisman et al., 1998; Duh, 2014), and legitimacy and credibility with stakeholders (Sharma, 2004; Miller et al., 2003). Besides these, successors to family firms face unique job requirements that require specific skills to maximise their chances of leading business growth (Ward, 1997). According to Stafford et al., (1999), both business and family characteristics have a great effect on family functionality. Factors affecting the succession process include the next generation family member’s career and life-stage needs, the owner’s adjustment to letting go, the family’s commitment to family business perpetuation, and strains resulting from the difficulty of separating family and business (Handler, 1991, p.31), which is evident at all stages.

The successor’s proven skills, performance and experience in leading the organisation are all linked to positive succession (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Francis, 1999a). Fiegener, Brown, Prince and File (1996) describe this stage as the successor development process, suggesting that, in addition to education, training and working experience, managers learn best from “real” task accomplishments through which they develop and learn through their interactions with superiors and subordinates. Besides these characteristics, successors need a special set of skills to manage using a particular strategy at a precise time in the development of the business, the environment, and the organisation (Ward, 1997, p.30). Surprisingly, in addition to these features, Mitter, Duller, Feldbauer-Durstmuller and Kraus (2014) indicate that the most successful international family firms are those in which the successors had education and work experience outside of their home country, not only outside of their company. Finally, Chrisman et al. (1998) report that, among other most important attributes, decision-making ability, experience, and superior interpersonal
skills are the most important. This issue will be supported by results chapter at this study.

Succession is a challenge to family businesses for a number of reasons, including the need to address the issue of intergenerational handover. Therefore, it must be considered more broadly than as just a process for identifying people with “the right stuff” (Royer, Simons, Boyd & Rafferty, 2008; Fiegener et al., 2009). The transfer of management decision authority within the family businesses is critical for the long-term viability of FOBs (Danes et al., 2009; Ward, 1997) so succession is a vital stage for FOB survival (Stavrou, 1999). Successful family business management transfer requires the senior generation to mentor, encourage, and support the upcoming generation as it takes control of the business and its operations (Haberman & Danes, 2007). On the other hand, the existing manager’s feeling of immortality and fear of retirement, the lack of appropriate successor candidates, or lack of trust in the next generation’s entrepreneurial competence are the main reasons cited to explain why some firms do not think about succession (Pardo-del-Val, 2009, p.167).

Management succession is a significant moment in a family business’s life and an issue that requires analysis from the perspectives of family, management, and ownership systems in order to understand adequately the perspectives of the different stakeholders (Brockhaus, 2004, p.165). Succession in FOBs frequently fails to work (Habbershon et al., 2003; Breton-Miller et al., 2004) when, in many of these businesses, founders try to perpetuate their legacy and ensure continued family control via intergenerational succession, as when they hand over leadership to their children (Miller et al., 2003). Unfortunately, as a Family Firm Institute report reports, only one-third of family businesses worldwide successfully manage the transition from one generation to the next, though generation succession is recognised as a top priority issue by family firm organisations (Family Firm Intuitions Report, 2014). The majority of family firms are either sold or dismantled after the founder’s death for different reasons, including lack of business liability, lack of succession planning, the
founder’s resistance to “let go”, and/or the offspring’s reluctance to join the firm (PriceWaterHouseCoopers, 2015).

Regarding successor selection, the history of family firms shows a strong preference for first-born sons (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990; Salganicoff, 1990, Wang, 2010; Dumas, 1992; Francis, 1999a,b) whereas women have been rarely considered serious candidates for leadership in the family business, except during a crisis or when the founder has no son (Curimbaba, 2002; Dumas, 1992, 1998; Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). Primogeniture continues to dominate the value system of the family business: generally, a son is expected to join the business but a daughter is merely given a choice or not even invited (Francis, 1999). This issue and its relation to the national culture will be analysed in the next chapter.

2.3.2. National Culture in the succession process of Family Business

Family firms are an important player in the global economy (Mazzola et al., 2008; Zahra 2003, 2005; Curimbaba, 2002; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Schuman et al., 2010; Adams et al., 2004; Pradhan & Ranajee 2012; Kidwell et al., 2012; Chua et al., 1999; Rosenblatt et al., 1985; Zahra, 2012) and the transition process of management is vital for family business succession (Curimbaba, 2002; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Schuman et al., 2010; Adams et al., 2004; Pradhan & Ranajee 2012; Zahra, 2003; Kidwell et al., 2012; Chua et al., 1999; Rosenblatt et al., 1985; Zahra, 2012). According to Ruggieri, Pozzi and Ripamonti (2014, p.80), family firms represent a social phenomenon wherein individual, family, work and cultural aspects overlap. For successful succession in this social phenomenon, once the next generation enters the business, the successors should familiarise themselves with the firm’s culture, values, mission, and philosophy (Mazzola et al., 2008). Among other factors, trust, confidence in the management, developing a learning network, and shared vision between the family and business are
the most powerful predictors of the success of the family business (Boyatzis & Soler, 2012, p.27).

Researchers (Brice & Jones, 2013; Eddleston et al., 2008; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Brice & Richardson, 2009; Ruggieri et al., 2014) state that each family business has its own history, culture and specific characteristics and it is believed that the successful family firms owe an important part of their competitive advantage to their family culture (Brice & Richardson, 2009). Other researchers agree that culture is a unique and intangible resource of FOBs (Chua et al., 2003; Campbell, Heriot & Welsh, 2007; Hall, 1989; Brice & Jones, 2008), which they name “familiness” (Chrisman et al., 2005; Habbershon et al., 2003; Chrisman et al., 2003; Campbell et al., 2007). Effective family culture is transferred to the family firm, manifests itself as familiness, and may become a resource that confers a competitive advantage when transferred within FOBs (Campbell et al., 2007). Familiness was initially defined by Habbershon et al. (2003, p.451) as “interactions between family members, the family unit itself, individuals, and the business that leads to positive synergies which creates competitive advantages for the firm”. Chrisman et al. (2005) later described it as a source of competitive advantage, generating firm wealth and value creation. Business-owning families transmit this unique resource to the firm through family member interactions in both family and business systems and at the interface of the two systems (Danes, Lee, Stafford & Heck, 2008). Generally, the term is used as an explanation of various relationships within a family business, or as a means to discriminate between family and non-family firms (Pearson et al., 2008).

Although a variety of factors influence the succession process, Dyer (1988) highlights culture and continuity in family firms, arguing that family founders need to understand the importance of family culture, which can either constrain or facilitate successful family succession. Cultural variable has greater significance when applied to the quality of the relationship between the family members involved in the succession (Halkias et al., 2011b), because, there is a tendency to have democratic family
structures, with equality between genders, role flexibility, and focus on the husband/wife bond (Danes et al., 2008).

Additionally, family firms and their family stakeholders are viewed as embedded in social relationships, where the intensity and persistence of strong social ties are assumed to play an important role in the long-term sustainability of the FOB (Fletcher et al., 2012).

Although family culture has a great effect on family business succession (Miller, 2014), national culture also generates behavioural changes through family, training, education, traditions, lifestyles, politics, and religion (Halkias et al., 2011a). Organisations that have developed within similar environments usually have similar cultures and related mindsets with regard to how they do business (Ony-Yazići et al., 2007). Campbell et al.’s (2007) resource-based framework of family business shows the relationship with familiness as a competitive advantage that distinguishes family firms that succeed beyond the second generation and those that do not. The change process is very long and it must not be considered finished until the changes have been accepted and included in the organisational culture (Kotter, 1995).

Lussier and Sonfield (2012) found statistically significant differences in family business succession planning between various countries (Croatia, Egypt, France, India, Kosovo, Kuwait, and the USA) related to cultural differences. Their theoretical framework focuses on national cultural characteristics affecting the behaviour of organisations to explain differences between countries regarding organisational behaviour. Drawing on Hofstede’s cross-cultural studies, the Culturally-sensitive Assessment Systems and Education project (CASE) takes a step in this direction by offering comparative analyses of family businesses in different regions (Gupta et al., 2010). The CASE framework uses nine dimensions for this comparison, grouped into three categories: family system, business system, and joint family and business ownership system. According to the CASE framework, two of the most important societal cultural characteristics are power distance (representing vertical differentiation in cultures) and in-group collectivism (representing horizontal differentiation in cultures) (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012).
Power distance refers to cultural conceptions regarding the degree of power that authorities should have over subordinates (Hofstede, Minkov & Hofstede, 2010). People who believe that superiors should have a great degree of power over subordinates are considered to be high on the power-distance orientation and people who believe that a smaller degree of power is appropriate are considered low on this orientation (Lee, Pillutla & Law, 2000). Individuals higher on power distance believe that authority figures should be respected (Yang, Mossholder & Peng, 2007) whereas individuals lower on power distance do not perceive many distinctions based on power or hierarchical position. Power distance is particularly important as it signals inequality and power dynamics between social groups (Ramaswami, Huang & Dreher, 2014). In the context of understanding gender differences, it is pertinent to consider also the cultural characteristic of gender egalitarianism – the extent to which a society minimizes gender-role inequality and discrimination, and determines men’s and women’s roles in their homes, organisations, and communities (House, Javidan, Hanges & Dorfman, 2002, p.6). In high power distance cultures, a family business will have less gender-centred leadership (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). In higher power distance contexts, subordinates have a greater need for rules and rely more heavily on supervisors for directions and instructions (Hosftede et al., 2010). Similarly, higher power distance employees prefer directive leaders and do not enjoy the same levels of favourable outcomes (e.g., job satisfaction) as those lower on power distance when their leaders break from simple, hierarchical leadership styles to which people high on power distance are accustomed to (Daniels & Greguras, 2014, p.1214). Lee, Lim and Pathak (2011) assert that the relationship between procedural justice and trust in supervisor is higher for those with low power distance orientations while the relationship between distributive justice and contract fulfilment is higher for those with low power distance orientations. According to Lee et al. (2011) individuals in low power distance cultures (e.g. Finland) are less tolerant than individuals in high power distance cultures (e.g. Poland) of distinctions between those in different roles, suggesting perhaps a less segmented view of roles. Power distance is also lower in groups with higher education, class, and occupational status (Hofstede, 1991), so
professionally trained managers may have relatively lower scores in this dimension (Brice & Jones, 2008).

In societies where power is distributed equally and the sense of belonging and obligation to one’s family or in-group is weak, the spirit of professionalism tends to be stronger, greater controls exist over family control of business, and succession processes follow competitive norms (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). Finally, autocratic leadership is preferred in high power distance societies (Brice & Jones, 2008).

Those who grow up in collectivistic societies intuitively learn to think of themselves as part of a group, focusing on ‘we’, in contrast, those who grow up in individualistic societies learn to think of themselves as an individual with a focus on ‘I’ (Hofstede, 2001). Collectivist cultures (e.g. Korea) emphasise group needs over the individual; hence, Koreans are taught to embrace a ‘we’ identity rather than an ‘I’ identity (Ashforth, Kreiner & Fugate, p. 476, 2000). In contrast, in Euro-American culture, there is a high regard for individualism and privacy: an ‘I’ orientation (Beck & Beck-Gernsheim, 2002). Within the ‘we’ group, people create interdependent, very intimate and emotionally attached relationships (Hofstede, 2001). Meanwhile, the group tends to develop rigid boundaries to exclude others (Danes et al., 2008). However, from the point of view of a family leader who wants to divest a business unit or part of it, the decision will be faster in individualistic than in collectivistic cultures (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005). Sharma and Manikutty (2005) find the dimension of individualism-collectivism to be useful as this dimension relates closely to the integration of individuals into primary groups such as families. Families reside in communities with collectivistic cultures so decision making is likely to be delayed even further, on the other hand, firms controlled by nuclear families based on values of liberty and indifference to equality residing in individualistic cultures will be most efficient in making divestment decisions (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005, p.305). In high power distance and collectivistic cultures, the business is a family property that should remain in the family (Hofstede, 2001). Resistance to succession from incumbents is low because, even after children assume the leadership, they are expected to consult
with their father and show him respect (Yan & Sorenson, 2006). Unquestioning loyalty is expected in collectivistic cultures whereas individual excellence is nourished and celebrated in individualistic cultures (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005).

In collectivistic societies, the family collective and relationships within it are deemed significantly more important than individuals or tasks, as the norms of reciprocal altruism and mutual support dominate (Lubatkin, Ling & Schulze, 2007, p.958). Dependence on other family members for support is acceptable and considered an honour by those who are better off (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005, p.301). Individualistic cultures provide an environment for prompt decision making while expectations of consensus building and harmony can delay such decisions in collectivistic cultures (Sharma and Manikutty, p.304). In collectivist societies, the family executive, who views himself/herself as interdependent with the other executives, the owner and the family business, is likely to form a group-level identity rather than an individual-level identity (Schwartz, Luyckx & Vignoles, 2012). Consequently, they do not feel individually accountable to the principal owner of the family business (Guidice et al., 2013). When such families reside in communities with collectivistic cultures, decision making is likely to be delayed even further. On the other hand, firms controlled by nuclear families based on the values of liberty and indifference to equality residing in individualistic cultures will be most efficient in making divestment decisions (Duh, Belak & Milfelner, 2010). Ashford et al. (2000) suggest that collectivist cultures emphasise group needs over individual ones so members of collectivist cultures might be more inclined to view their roles as integrated than would members of more individualist cultures. Collectivistic cultures also integrate their work and home roles more than those from individualistic cultures (Guidice et al., 2013).

Traditionally masculine organisations are characterised by control and hierarchy while feminine organisations tend to have flexible structures and often develop policies and cultures that address the employee as a whole person and incorporate more aspects of the individual, including family (Rutherford, 2011). Traditionally masculine
organisations tend to develop policies and cultures that keep work and family in separate spheres (Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Bird & Brush, 2002; Adkins et al., 2013). Feminine cultures (e.g., Denmark) reduce distinctions between stereotypic gender roles and emphasise integration of work and nonworking roles.

Conversely, masculine cultures (e.g., Japan) maintain a more rigid distinction between gender roles, creating a segmented view of the domains of work and non-work (Ashforth et al., 2000). A similar logic can be applied to feminine versus masculine cultures, which refers to the degree to which a culture emphasises on gender issues.

Uncertainty avoidance is defined as the extent to which the members of a culture feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Brown, 1998). Uncertainty avoidance reflects the society (or organisation), as the boss’s directives are accepted without questioning (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Low uncertainty avoidance cultures (e.g., the United States) emphasise rules and rituals less than high uncertainty avoidance cultures do (e.g., Israel) (Ashforth et al., 2000). The level of uncertainty avoidance is a function of the degree to which a social group feels threatened by ambiguous, uncertain or unknown situations (Ford, Connely & Meister, 2003). People in high uncertain avoidance societies rely on written rules and prefer stability, exhibit low interpersonal trust, take known risks and resist change and innovation (Perez-Alvarez, 2009). People in low uncertainty avoidance cultures usually prefer situations where they feel free and unbound by any rules and regulations (Belkhamza & Wafa, 2014).

There is another cultural dimension identified for family businesses (Dyer, 1988; Cameron & Quinn, 1999; Duh et al., 2010). Dyer (1988) identified four types of family business cultures, paternalistic, laissez-faire, participative and professional, based on seven categories of assumptions of how organisations view the self, society, and world. Dyer found the paternalistic pattern to be the most common culture in family firms, especially in first-generation FOBs. In the succeeding generations, more than two-thirds of paternalistic firms experienced culture change, with the majority becoming professional cultures. Duh et al. (2010) demonstrate that a stronger clan
culture characterises family businesses in that family enterprises are more personal, with employees acting and feeling like part of the family and leadership conducted as mentoring. In some cultures, the succession process is driven by nepotism and family harmony rather than competition (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012).

Another organisational culture categorisation has been made by Cameron and Quinn (1999), into four types: clan culture (family-type organisations, participation and teamwork); adhocracy culture (dynamic and entrepreneur organisations), market culture (competitive organisations); and hierarchical cultures (formalised and structured organisations). In hierarchical cultures, relationships are hierarchical, with age and gender playing major roles in determining rank within the hierarchy, and continuing to determine thinking and behaviour (Danes et al., 2008). Elders are to be highly respected and cared for within families (Lee & Mock, 2005). However, the hierarchy culture has no effect on subordinate performance or firm performance (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). This is an organisational culture type where leadership is effective because it is mechanical and bureaucratic that gives importance to order and rules (Acar & Acar, 2014). However, in such a culture, members might not feel free enough to share their ideas and unable to fully show their potential, leading to lower performance levels (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). However, in this research study, Dyer’s cultural patterns are mixed with Hofstede’s cultural patterns in order to able to examining FOB’s succession process in different locations within different generations.

2.3.3. The influence of gender dynamics on the succession process

Before explaining gender-based roles in FOBs, specifically during the succession process, it is necessary to discuss how individuals show gendered or gender-typed differentiations through preferences, identity, characteristics, behaviours, social influences, and cognitions. Several major theories have been proposed to explain gender development (Bussey & Bandura, 1999), particularly social cognitive and
cognitive development theories. Social cognitive theory is a learning theory based on the basic premise that people learn by observing others (Bandura, 2001). It posits that the learning environment, individual behaviour and attitudes, beliefs and perceptions (collectively known as person factors) are all key variables that influence trainee development (Bandura, 2002).

Cognitive development theory suggests that once people achieve gender constancy—the belief that their own gender is fixed and irreversible—they positively value their gender identity and seek to behave only in ways that are congruent with that conception (Bussey & Bandura, 1999).

Research on gender differences and business practices has focused on strategic management, entrepreneurs, managerial styles, firm bureaucracy, firm performance, and employment relationships (Danes et al., 2007; Worthley, MacNab, Brislin, Ito & Rose, 2009; Thiruvadi & Huang, 2011). Many researchers have investigated management and entrepreneurial styles by gender (Barrett & Moores, 2009; Moores & Barrett, 2002; Sonfield & Lussier, 2009a, 2009b). The growth of women’s entrepreneurship has also created increased interest in research on gender differences and firm performance, with several studies showing performance differences between women- and men-owned businesses (Poggesi, Mari & De Vita, 2016; Juma & Sequeira, 2016; Diaz-Garcia & Brush, 2012; Carter, 2000). This body of research has expanded in response to the growing proportion of women in the managerial, entrepreneurial and small business workforce, and their increasing rate of firm creation and small business ownership (Sonfield & Lusier, 2014). However, while more women are seeking entry into male-dominated occupations, the integration of women into positions of authority within business organisations has achieved only limited success (Mari et al., 2016; Juma & Sequeira, 2016).

Although there is a body of literature dealing with gender comparisons of management practices (Mari et al., 2016; Moores & Barrett, 2002; Pringle, 2008; Glover & Kaplan, 2009; Kyriakidou, 2012) and another in the field of family business (Curimbaba, 2002; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Schuman et al., 2010; Adams et al., 2004; Pradhan & Ranajee 2012; Zahra, 2003; Kidwell et al., 2012;
Chua et al., 1999; Rosenblatt et al., 1985; Zahra, 2012), only a few research studies (Remery et al., 2014; Lee, Fitzgerald & Bartkus, 2015; Danes et al., 2007; Lussier & Sonfield, 2009a; Entwisle, Henderson, Short, Bouma & Fengying, 1995; Hamilton, 2013; Danes et al., 2007; Glover, 2014) have focused on gender issues in family businesses.

Family businesses are unique institutions where two social units (i.e. families and businesses) are highly integrated (Harveston et al., 1997). In these unique institutions, traditional gender roles are often preserved (Lee et al., 2015; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011; Moores & Barrets, 2002; Nelson & Levesque, 2007; Curimbaba, 2002). In particular, there is a gender bias when it comes to choosing the successor (Wang, 2010). In a family business, gender-role orientation and gender stereotypes are important factors, with succession very much gender-biased so that daughters are almost always excluded as candidates (Dumas, 1990; Wang, 2010; Glover, 2014; Miller et al., 2003; Remery et al., 2014; Vera & Dean, 2005; Danes & Olson, 2003; Pradhan & Ranajee, 2012; Curimbaba, 2002; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010). Recently, however, while the proportion of women in control of family businesses is still quite low relative to men, there has been an upward trend (The Centre for Women in Business, CFB, 2015). It is, therefore, important to understand the gender differences occurring during the process of succession.

Remery et al. (2014) analysed to what extent women are involved in the actual succession process in family firms and gender differences in terms of capabilities and ambition. They found few differences between male and female successors in the level of education, although female successors are more likely to be university educated than male successors. However, their results show that there is a clear gender difference regarding ownership; men strive more often for full ownership, whereas women opt for shared ownership, even when controlling for relevant variables such as the presence of children (Remery et al., 2014, p.79). Similarly, Lee et al. (2015) also find that the socialised gender perspective of the business owner is a key contextual construct. Studies investigating opportunities for women in family businesses reveal instances of (veiled or open) discrimination and present proposals
to overcome these obstacles to make better use of women’s potential (Curimbaba, 2002; Lee et al., 2015; Remery et al., 2014).

Unfortunately, as in their examination of gender role and job preferences, Kaufman and White (2015) state that gender is a stronger predictor of job values than other demographic characteristics and gender egalitarianism plays an important role in a family business like other businesses (Lee et al., 2015).

Gender egalitarianism is defined as “the degree to which an organisation or a society minimises gender role differences while promoting gender equality” and emphasises societal norms regarding women’s and men’s roles (Javidan et al., 2016; Powell, Francesca & Ling, 2009). Cultures that are higher in gender egalitarianism have a higher proportion of women in positions of authority, more female participation in the labour force, and less sex segregation in employment (Powell et al., 2009). In gender egalitarian cultures, men and women have more freedom to participate in the workplace and in the family, which translates into higher incomes and higher business leadership positions for women (Constantinidis & Nelson, 2009). Families with more egalitarian cultures and structures are more likely to display a demand for daughter successors (Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013).

Not only in business, but also within families, the roles and patterns of behaviour are often gender specific (Danes & Olson, 2003). Although sons and daughters are equally well educated, even in management and business, fathers are deeply concerned about whether daughters can effectively manage the demanding tasks associated with the company. Fathers also wish to ‘protect’ their daughters from the harsh world of having to deal with business management (Lingas, 2013). Such studies refer to family culture and structure that exclude daughters (Barnes, 1988; Curimbaba, 2002; Duman, 1990, Hollander & Bukowits, 1990). Much research has explored gendered identity in management, generating considerable debate about why women’s position in business and society differs from that of men (Barrett & Moores, 2009; Pringle, 2008; Glover & Kaplan, 2009; Kyriakidou, 2012).
Social learning theorists (Sears, Rau & Alpert, 1965; Bussey & Bandura, 1992; Grusec, 1992) have attempted to identify where these differences stem from. According to Bussey and Bandura (1992), differences not only exist between men and women; there are differences within and between parents, peers, teachers, and the media in the gendered styles of behaviour they promote, and between what they preach and practice, resulting from cumulative experience (Barrett & Moores, 2009). Parents, teachers, and peers shape children’s gender-specific behaviours by reinforcing gender-appropriate behaviours and punishing gender-inappropriate behaviours (Bussey & Bandura, 1984).

There is a sizeable body of literature focusing on possible managerial similarities and differences between men and women business managers (Bennett & Dann, 2000; Sonfield & Lussier, 2014). This has been developed and supported by studies on women in business life (e.g. Davidson & Burke, 2011; Jones et al., 2006; Davidson, 2016), and more specifically in FOBs (Barrett & Moores, 2009; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Moore 2004, Danes & Olson, 2003). According to Sonfield and Lussier (2012) and Riccucci (1997) with regard to managerial and entrepreneurial behaviour, the pattern of research findings has moved from gender differences towards gender similarities. Earlier studies (Davidson & Cooper, 1992; Marshall, 1995; Ruijs, Leather & Lodge, 1993) found that women managers are more cautious, less confident, less aggressive, easier to persuade, and had inferior leadership and problem-solving abilities than male managers. Men, on the other hand, were traditionally inculcated with qualities that included competitiveness, aggressiveness, risk-taking, and commitment in the workplace (DeMatteo, 1994). An important issue that is evolving in the family business literature is the increasing involvement of women in management roles in business and, more specifically, in the family firm (Halkias et al., 2011b; Anshu, 2012; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010).

According to Fairlie and Robb (2009), female-owned businesses are less successful than male-owned businesses because they have less start-up capital, less business human capital acquired through prior work experience in a similar business, and less prior work experience in a family business.
They also found some evidence that female business owners work fewer hours and may have different preferences for the goals of their businesses, which may have implications for business outcomes. With regard to differences between men’s and women’s management activities and styles in family firms, the few conclusions that have been reached tend to be general. For example, women have been found to be more dependent and have a greater concern for others while men have been characterised as more independent (Sonfield & Lussier, 2009b). Thus, women have been described as “peacemakers”, “mediators”, and “nurturers” in their roles as family business owners and managers (Cole, 1997). Women who have overcome gender barriers have usually replaced male family members who were ill, uninterested or incompetent (Cole, 1997).

Although, in 2002, Astrachan’s study state that women’s preference for management in FOB might lead to smoother succession, similarly, Vera and Dean (2005) assert that daughters’ faced greater challenges than sons in the succession process, majority of studies indicate that women are often not considered as candidates for succession (Remery et al., 2014; Glover, 2014; Gherardi & Perrotta, 2016; Al-Dajani et al., 2014). The specific literature indicates that when a daughter takes over the family business, the acceptability of her position is under threat: she is the first to perceive that if a son is present, then he is the "natural" successor, and she is thus constructed as an "invisible" successor (Gherardi & Perrotta, 2016; Glover, 2014; Remery et al., 2014). Consequently, as discussed above, the owner and the candidate successor are two main characters of the succession process and the influence of the founder on this process are accepted as a critical factor by researchers (Sonfield and Lussier, 2009a; Zahra, 2012; Gao et al., 2011). As cited by Sonfield and Lussier (2009b, p.101) in a multi-generation family business a generational shadow, shed by the founder, may be cast over the organisation and the critical processes within it. The importance of the founder and the effect on the process will be examined in the previous chapter.
2.3.4. FOB ownership and effects on the succession process

A business group is a collection of legally independent firms linked by multiple ties, including ownership economic connections (such as inter-firm transactions) and/or social relationship (family, kinship, friendship) (Chung & Chan, 2012). Through these connections, business groups coordinate, delegate, survive and achieve their targets. Family business ownership is probably the most dominant ownership structure found in many national contexts and a key characteristic that distinguishes the structure of family governance from that of non-family firms (Chung & Chan, 2012; Dow & McGuire, 2016). This leads family members to preserve and control their values and beliefs, and disseminate these to other family members (Zahra, 2012; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012).

Studies also indicate that, in family businesses, family ownership and family leadership are key control mechanisms (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2001; Jiang & Peng, 2010; Villalonga & Amit, 2006) for both succession process and the performance (Lissoni, Pereira, Almeida & Serra, 2010; Ward, 1987). Additionally, family business owners’ succession intention will not only be solely affected by their wills but also by the institutional environment (Zhou, Hu, Yao & Qin, 2016) like culture, capital market characteristics and legal frameworks (Dow & McGuire, 2016)

Family relationships vary across cultures, which ultimately affects father–daughter succession across cultures (Halkias et al., 2011b). As suggested by Ward (1987), the business owner is the most important factor in the success of succession. As both organisational members and family members, family employees are generally found to be highly committed and loyal to their companies so the way of leading family employees in order to maintain or even enhance their organisational commitment is an important concern of family business owners (Gao et al., 2011, p.218). Ward (1987)
also finds that family businesses encourage family-oriented environments and inspire strong employee loyalty.

Most of the literature on family business shows that founders intend to continue their business through next-generation family members: children first, followed by other family members (Hartel et al., 2009; Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002). However, family members often hold all the key leadership positions, often chair the board of directors or serve as board members to control their family firms, frequently preventing non-family members from taking key leadership positions (Lipman, 2010; Chu, 2011). Therefore, non-family members are unlikely to hold leadership positions in FOBs (Ward, 1997). Thus, family descendants are the first option for a founder’s succession (Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002). Family leaders agree that the best successor is someone who wants the job and has the trust and the respect of family members and employees (Chrisman et al., 2009).

Similarly, family-firm founders exhibit stronger requirements for control and are less likely to delegate power so family firms tend to be centralised and controlled by the founder’s beliefs (Ketz de Vries, 1996; Brice & Jones, 2008). Uhlaner, Hoy, Eddleston and Kellerman (2012) use the term “family management” to contrast with “professional management”. Although some studies find that, in family businesses, family ownership and family leadership are key control mechanisms (Gómez-Mejía et al., 2001; Jiang & Peng, 2010; Villalonga & Amit, 2006), recently, family business groups are starting to introduce diversity of ownership and management configurations (Chung & Chan, 2012). This issue was examined by Villalonga and Amit (2010) and their results show that founding families retain control and give the firm a competitive advantage, whereas non-founding families and individuals seem to act exclusively in their own interest. According to Huang, Ding and Kao (2009), family firms are also less likely to seek external sources of information due to the strong social ties within the organisation, which supports Chung and Chan (2012). Miller et al. (2013) investigated the choice between a family business owned leader or non-family owned, finding that family member leaders do better than non-family leaders when firms are
smaller and family ownership is more concentrated; however, they perform less well than non-family leaders when firms are larger and family ownership is more diffuse.

Some family businesses suffer from a lack of human resources because parents tend to offer investment opportunities to their children (Lubatkin et al. 2007), even if they have insufficient skills for international entrepreneurship and even though hiring the right person is accepted as one of the most important functions of human resource management (Busser, 1996; Collings & Wood, 2009). However, in terms of ownership and management, there is significant evidence that family businesses are quite reluctant to accept non-family ownership (Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011). In minority-owned family firms, however, the preference for hiring family members may be culturally rooted and not based on business needs alone (Shinnar, Cho & Rogoff, 2013).

From a survey of 236 family firms and 224 non-family firms, Zahra (2012) finds that the future leader of all family firms is currently employed in the business and related to the current leader whereas nearly half (103) of non-family firms indicated that their next leader would be hired from outside the company.

2.4. Women in FOBs

Although the role of women in society has changed considerably in the last 60 years (Otten-Pappas, 2015), they are still overlooked as potential leaders for family businesses as a result of stereotypes that business families and society hold about women and work (Poggesi et al., 2016; Gherardi & Perrotta, 2016).

Regarding the role of gender in the succession process, the literature consistently finds that male offspring are favoured within family firms regardless of suitability (Miller et al., 2003; Francis, 1999; Halkias et al., 2011(b); Francis, 1999; Gimeno et al., 2010). There are various reasons for this lack of interest in both men and women as potential successors. According to Richomme-Huet and Freyman (2010), these include business and capital transfer taxes, the complexity of legal rules, funding sources, lack of anticipation, and changes in work-life balance.
The gender barrier is a further aggravating factor for women’s succession (Dumas, 1998), with few daughters succeeding their fathers (Barbot et al., 2004). In order to analyse women as FOB successors, this chapter examines women in business life generally, in FOBs specifically, and several cultural and social attitudes that hinder women’s succession.

2.4.1. Women in the Business World

Data shows that women are important players in business life. The UK office for national statistics, for example, indicates that the percentage of female managers in the UK is 34.8%, 45.1% in Latvia, and 39.3% France (www.ons.gov.uk, 2015).

According to the House of Common’s Statistics (2016), 20% of SMEs are female-led, and in October 2015 it was announced that 26% of Financial Times Stock Exchange 100 board members were female.

According to the US Bureau of Labour Statistics (2015), 27.9% of the country’s top executives are women, accounting for 51.5 % of executives in general. In Turkey, however, despite a steady increase in female employment rates over the past 15 years, women are still less likely than men to have a job (Turkish Statistical Institute Report, 2015).

The importance of women in work as business owners or employees has become a significant phenomenon in recent decades throughout the developed world, making it advisable to review the situation of women in business (as entrepreneurs) and the way that their situation in the social and family context (as conditioned by gender) facilitates or hinders their work or entrepreneurial activity (Peris-Ortiz, Rueda-Armengot & Benito Osorio, 2012, p.344). While more women are gaining entry into male-dominated occupations, the integration of women into positions of authority
within business organisations has achieved only limited success (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic; Welsh, Kaciak & Thongpapanl, 2016; Khan, 2016).

Analysis of the situation that women and men face as leaders provide a rationale for expecting differences and similarities and these roles are assumed to follow from perceivers’ observations of men and women as concentrated in different social roles (Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001).

Researchers have examined whether men and women leaders differ in their behaviour and effectiveness in the same top management positions (Rosener, 1990; Singh, Nadim & Ezzedeen, 2012; Yaseen, 2010; Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). It is often claimed that women hold fewer leadership roles than men and that, on their way to such positions, they encounter more obstacles than men (Eagly & Karau, 2002, p. 576), making women disadvantaged relative to men in the business arena (Harveston et al., 1997).

According to Oakley’s (2000) theory, the "status quo" or an informal male system in the form of an "old boys’ network" is an important obstacle that hinders the achievements of women.

Research into women’s leadership style shows that while men and women lead in similar ways, they also demonstrate differences in style by gender (Carli & Eagly, 2001; Yaseen, 2010, Singh et al., 2012). Women are more transformational than men in leadership style as well as more transactional on the positive contingent reward dimension (Eagly, Diekman, Schneider & Kuleas, 2003; Bass, 1990; Singh et al., 2012; Vinkenburg, van Ergen, Eagly & Johannesen-Schmidt, 2011), more communal (Patterson, Mavin & Turner, 2012) and more participative and democratic in their leadership style than are many men (Eagley & Johnson, 1990; Rosener, 1990).

According to Eisner (2013) women also tend to have more highly developed interpersonal skills. Similarly, Rosener (1995) describes women’s leadership style as interactive, emphasising consensus building, comfortable with ambiguity, and sharing power and information. She has found that women leaders tend to encourage multi-directional feedback to develop reward systems that value group as well as individual
contributions, and to foster empowerment of employees at all levels. As an example, Sorenson et al. (2013, p.44) found that men’s language focuses on the here and now, consistent with a short-term business orientation while women more frequently use the term ‘we’, which the authors interpreted as relationship building and pliable adhesiveness to hold business and family together. Their study also shows that women’s language focuses more on the future and change, consistent with a long-term entrepreneurial orientation.

Eisner (2013, p.28) shows that several principles are more important to women leaders than men: passion and commitment; teams; mission, vision, and values; focus, simplicity, clarity, and consistency; curiosity, open-mindedness, and stimulation by diverse ideas; and receiving feedback and listening. This study also found that only one aspect appeared to be more important to the men than to the women: taking risks and being comfortable with problems and challenges.

Generally, stereotypes cast women as communal, or nurturing, caring, and cooperative whereas men are seen as mediators, or task oriented, competitive and decisive (e.g. Eagley & Steffen, 1984). According to Carli and Eagly (2001), women display more positive social behaviours and agreement than men do whereas men are more task-oriented and disagree more than women do. However, research looking at the interaction of gender roles and organisational roles indicates that women and men in the same leadership role behave similarly, so some gender variations may be the result of gender differences in the roles occupied by women and men (Yaseen, 2010).

In order for women entrepreneurs to be successful, they have to look at key aspects of managerial tasks, conflict handling, and giving feedback to subordinates (Kouzes & Posner, 2002). Buttner (2001) reports that the management styles of women entrepreneurs were best described using relational dimensions, such as mutual empowerment, collaboration, sharing of information, empathy, and nurturing. Over the past decade, although women have gained more managerial experience and education (Gherardi & Perrotta, 2016)), many families still do not consider daughters
as viable successors for their family businesses, instead preferring the oldest son, or primogenitor, as successor (Olson, 2001; Rosenblatt et al., 1985; Stavrou, 1999). Even though this decision rule is becoming less prominent (Taylor, 2002), daughters, even if first born, are still not often considered to run the family business (Stavrou, 1999; Vera & Dean, 2005). This issue will be examined below.

2.4.2. Women’s Traditional Roles in Family Businesses

Women entrepreneurs are increasingly common in business life in both developed and emerging economies (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013; Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011; Zhu, Kara, Chu & Chu, 2015; Poggesi et al., 2016). According to a World Bank Report (2016), a vast majority of these women work in FOBs. Whether working outside the home or not, women’s working life is still seen as secondary to the family, but as better employment opportunities become available, women struggle with such traditional views and attitudes (Poza, Hanlon & Kishida, 2004). In a family business, the line between family and business is frequently not so clear (Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011, Poza, 2008).

Although recognised as generally very important players, the role of women is often defined as invisible (Cesaroni & Senttuti, 2014; Anshu, 2012; Vadnjal & Zupan; 2010; Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007) in business decision-making processes (Khan, 2016). Women tend to be supportive in men’s traditional business domains but only rarely adequately recognised and rewarded (Anshu, 2012).

Women take on a variety of important roles in a family business and various researchers have identified a number of advantages of working in a family business (Lyman et al., 1985; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Barrett & Moores, 2009; Martinez Jimenez, 2009; Eagley & Steffen, 1984; Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013; Gherardi & Perrotta, 2016): supportive environment, flexible work hours, committed employees

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and personnel responsibility, developing their own career, job security, family support, and a flexible schedule that accommodates child care. Anshu (2012) also note that the exclusion of daughters from leadership roles may produce tensions within the family while Memili, Misra, Chang and Chrisman (2013) show that working in a FOB as a woman causes some problems, particularly in that higher family expectations may place more pressure and guilt on women, and when these expectations are not met, family members may react relatively harshly.

Achieving a high level of equality in both education and employment also gives women a crucial role in family firms (Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011). Welsch, Memili, Kaciak and Ochi (2014) argue that education is particularly important for non-family business owners, who do not have the luxury of using their family as a safety net and have to rely on other sources of support.

As stated above, family businesses provide women with a supportive environment, flexible work hours, committed employees, and encouragement of personal responsibility. However, they can also cause stress, and strain family relationships (Lyman et al., 1985).

Female leaders tend to be more focused on people and relationships, seeing the larger picture as well as the details, and skilled at resolving differences between individuals, which enables them to work in and with teams (Francis, 1999). Sorenson et al. (2013) point out that, over the last few decades, as a result of sociological and demographic changes, some prevailing attitudes have changed.

Regarding FOBs, the most visible are the changing roles of gender and birth order as more women attain higher levels of education and participate in the workforce. Miller et al., (2013) suggest three positions for women in FOBs: leader, owner, and disinterested or entitled. They argue that, although women have problems in the
workplace, there are also new choices available, among which is a greater social acceptance of women as leaders. Recently, increased achievement in education has allowed women family members to take leadership roles in FOBs (Sorenson et al., 2013). Although women have enhanced their presence in family businesses, research on women in FOBs often stresses that the majority of women still remain in the background as an invisible player (Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011).

Jimenes (2009) notes that the literature on the positive aspects of women working in family businesses is focused on three issues: (1) the satisfaction women derive from developing their own career potential and enhancing their family’s efforts; (2) the advantages the family business offers, including job security and a more flexible schedule that accommodates child care; and (3) the leadership styles of female family business executives. Although recognised as generally very important players, the role of women is often defined as invisible in business decision-making, supportive in men’s traditional business domains but only rarely adequately recognised and rewarded (Anshu, 2012). Constantinidis and Nelson (2009) identify several gender effects in daughter succession in FOBs, linked to a hierarchy of masculine and feminine, which affects the process at several stages. They find that daughters without brothers are more likely to be encouraged to engage in business and management whereas when daughters of a family enterprise have one or more brothers, the son is preferred as a potential successor from the beginning. The influence of gender on succession is examined further below.
2.4.3. Daughter as a successor in FOBs

Succession is vital for all kind of businesses to survive. Stavrou (1999) views succession as not a static event or a process that only begins once heirs are involved in the business, but a long-term process initiated while the heirs are still very young. Studies show that only 30 percent of family enterprises survive to the second generation (Breton-Miller et al., 2004), with much more failing soon after the second generation takes control (Morris et al., 1997). Numerous succession issues are closely connected with the selection of a suitable successor within the family offspring (Haberman & Danes, 2007; Giambatista, Rowe & Riaz, 2005; Ward, 2011).

Researchers have examined the successful integration of offspring into a FOB, whether male specifically or not (Miller et al., 2003; Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Miller et al., 2013; Habbershon & Williams, 1999; Habberman & Danes, 2007; Chua et al., 2003).

Several studies (Remery et al. 2014; Sonfield & Lussier, 2012; Habberman & Danes, 2007; Astrachan, 2003; Dumas, 1992) find that gender differences exist in FOB management succession. Historically, family business configurations focused on the male founder and his male heirs so that although mothers, wives, daughters, and female in-laws are often represented in family trees, they are included without job titles or salaries next to their names (Lyman et al., 1985). As Dumas (1992) points out, it is necessary to study not only the sons in the context of family firm management but also the daughters.

Many family business studies (Allen & Langowits, 2003; Miller et al., 2003; Malinen, 2001; Bizri, 2016) focus on sons as successors and their relationship with their fathers as owners. Unfortunately, in family businesses, succession is very much biased by gender with daughters being almost always excluded as candidates (Wang, 2010, p.475).
Hence, the FOB literature describes daughters as an untapped resource (Dumas, 1992; Lyman et al., 1985; Francis, 1999), underutilized resource (Dumas, 1990; Dumas, 1992), invisible partners (Martinez Jimenez, 2009; Humphreys, 2013), temporary additions (Martin, 2001), noting how daughters’ abilities are generally underestimated, unrecognized, and subsequently under-utilized (Wang, 2010). Humphreys et al., (2013) shows that women's journey to FOB leadership relies on having the right skills and education to manage and lead their family firms.

Wang (2010) and Martinez Jimenez (2009) suggest that, in the FOB succession process, daughters are almost always excluded as candidates due to an interaction of macro (sociocultural attitudes to women) and micro (individual and family) factors. However, according to Miller et al. (2003), this preference for accepting an inappropriate candidate while overlooking daughters as FOB successors may be a critical cause of succession failure, particularly for FOB survival beyond one or two generations. Recently, Glover (2014) argues that this gender bias in family businesses may stem from broader societal attitudes and cultural expectations of their gendered roles in society.

De Massis et al. (2008) studied the individual factors suggested by Wang and Martinez Jimenez, and show how these individual and family factors prevent intra-family succession from occurring. However, Fattoum and Byrne (2011) find that few studies are directed towards understanding the contextual factors that prevent women from taking leadership positions in family business. The results show that, even in the case of being the oldest child, women felt less visible than their brothers with respect to the choice of succession (Vera & Dean, 2005), although succession is different when there are both brothers and sisters than when the owner has only one descendant (Remery et al., 2014).
The FOB literature generally focuses on obstacles and barriers facing women in FOBs, particularly invisibility and primogeniture (Martinez Jimenez, 2009, Wang, 2010; Dumas 2011, Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013; Gilding et al., 2015). Women are rarely considered as a successor because of primogeniture, with the firstborn male child being expected to become the successor (Martinez Jimenez, 2009; Overbeke et al., 2015). Various studies have examined primogeniture issues (Ward, 1997; Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002; Francis, 1999; Wang, 2010; Humphreys, 2013), demonstrating that the oldest son is seen as the primary successor candidate. Primogeniture is an accepted approach to family business succession planning; daughters are only considered for family business succession when all descendants are female or the daughter is the first born (Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002; Curimbaba 2002; Francis, 1999). Martin (2001) even finds that, in some cases, if there is no son in the family, the family business may be sold rather than passed on to the daughter. In family businesses, resistance to succession from incumbents is low, because even when children assume business leadership, they are expected to consult with their father and show him respect (Yan & Sorenson, 2006; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012).

According to Philbrick and Fitzgerald (2007), barriers to daughter succession interact at both the macro (sociocultural) and micro (individual and family) levels. At the macro level, broad societal attitudes toward women and cultural expectations of their gendered roles in society and family are important barriers (Ward, 2011). When daughters are involved in family businesses, the first concern is that the daughter’s assumed desire to become a mother and raise children while at the same time holding their position in the family business and working long hours may prevent them from raising a family, which can raise doubts about her own identity and conflict with societal expectations that she should produce offspring (Cole, 1997; Salganicoff, 1990). As Cole (1997) notes, there is a belief that women in the family businesses continue to struggle with the traditional limitations imposed on them by others, with a general assumption that they need flexible schedules, have difficulty in reconciling
private and professional spaces, struggle with child care, and are not always willing to advance in their careers (Curimbaba, 2002).

Masuo, Fong, Yanagida & Cabal (2001) and Philbrick and Fitzgerald (2007) also suggest that work-to-family conflict may be perceived by women as a lack of support from the organisation, making life particularly complex for women who manage both their family and a business.

As can be seen in this chapter, traditional cultural values and gender-based norms are dominant in family firms. Kizildag (2013) stress this issue as in which traditional structures are strong and protected, female family members are kept out of the business. Beyond the traditional structure, parents feel a need to ‘protect’ their daughters (more than sons) and avoid placing them in the position of having to deal with the problems that come with managing a business (Hollander & Bukowitz, 1990). Hence, Dumas (1992) finds that daughters are typically brought into the family business to do “gender congruent” work, usually on a temporary basis. However, crises (e.g. health or economic problems) tend to increase the likelihood that families (and daughters themselves) consider the prospect of daughters working in the firm (Dumas, 1992).

2.5. Conclusion

FOBs play a dominant role in all economies (Mazzola et al., 2008; Zahra 2003, 2005; Curimbaba, 2002; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Kontinen & Ojala, 2010; Schuman et al., 2010; Adams et al., 2004; Pradhan & Ranajee 2012; Zahra, 2003; Kidwell et al., 2012; Chua et al., 1999; Rosenblatt et al., 1985 and Zahra, 2012) and succession planning is considered as a key theme in the family business literature. The research focused on succession planning in these businesses sees this as crucial to their continuity (Sharma et al., 2001; Sharma et al., 2003; Miller et al., 2003).
The goal of this research is to broaden our understanding of family business succession as a multidimensional process. As asserted by Handler (1994, p.134), succession is not simply a single step of handing over the baton; it is a lengthy, multistage process, beginning before heirs even enter the business.

The literature also suggests that succession is a course of action that encompasses many activities, such as training of the successor from childhood to adulthood (Sharma et al., 2003; Sharma et al., 2014), getting information about the family and business, becoming familiar with family culture (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011), and selecting and training the successor in the appropriate skills and experience to lead the organisation into its next phase (Dyck, Starke, Mischke & Mauws, 2002). Therefore, researchers tend to agree that succession is more a process than an event (Handler, 1994; Avloniti et al., 2014; Duh, 2014; Schlepphorst & Moog, 2014) and should be planned carefully. Succession planning is critical to ensuring the continuation of any family business and an effectively developed succession provides for a smooth transition in management and ownership.

Family business succession processes have been intensively studied by researchers. This research addresses succession by examining the effectiveness of family business culture, which is considered as a unique asset of family businesses over non-family businesses. Although not all family firms are successful, the literature suggests that successful family firms owe an important part of their competitive advantage to family culture. Therefore, the family business succession process and family business culture were examined in this section. While previous research has examined and categorised family business culture, the present study examines the succession process using Dyers (1986) cultural patterns because it focuses more closely on succession. Dyer describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or, possibly, a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014). Additionally, the literature identifies a wide range of culture-based behaviours which may be different for family
firms and which may provide some competitive advantage to the family firm. Thus, culture based behaviours were examined in this section in order to able to understand their effects on the succession process.

Many scholars maintain that family firms’ uniqueness arises from the integration of family and business life. In their attempts to understand this integration, scholars draw on a range of theories, such as agency theory, stewardship theory, and a resource-based view of the firm. However, stewardship theory is claimed as a most applicable theory for family businesses due to family business owners’ stewardship and loyalty, not only to the business but also to his family. Scholars of family business also view family firms as potential bastions of stewardship due to their practices that encourage a long-term, socially responsible orientation in dealing with all stakeholders (Breton-Miller et al., 2011; Breton-Miller & Miller, 2015).

This first literature review chapter presented the main dynamics and succession process in FOBs by examining the importance of family business culture and the extent that it affects succession. Family relationships vary across cultures, leading to variations in father-daughter succession processes (Halkias et al., 2011b). Therefore, different cultural characteristics were examined in this chapter. In fact, different cultural characteristics are underlined this research study. As stated by Halkias et al (2011b), father-daughter succession process, similar to family relationship vary across cultures and this study aims to show that even in the same country, culture may vary across regions and may affect succession process differently. Culture not only affect the succession process but also affect the attitudes and assumptions of the FOB owner, who is accepted as the most important factor in the success of succession.

Literature shows that family business owners’ succession intention will not only be solely affected by their wills but also by the institutional environment like culture. Moreover, through the founder’s values and actions, the firm’s culture evolves, encouraging family members to be responsive to new opportunities and support entrepreneurial endeavours. Studies also show that there is a direct relationship between the FOB owners’ cultural values with the organisation culture. As an
example, patriarchal FOBs, due to owners’ protective cultural norms, do not willing to see women in a leadership position.

Additionally, FOB owner and family’s educational background play a significant role in assuming daughter as a successor and supporting their entrepreneurial attitudes. Literature shows that entrepreneur families have a great impact on entrepreneurship and as stated by Gallo and Point (1994) study, the most successful international family firms are those whose successors have educational and work experience outside their home country as well as outside their company. This work experience outside of their home country also shows the importance of the family culture on entrepreneurship.

The FOB literature generally focuses on obstacles facing women in FOBs, particularly primogeniture and unfortunately, women are rarely considered as a successor because of primogeniture. According to primogeniture; daughters are only considered for family business succession when all descendants are female or the daughter is the first born. Therefore, in some cases, if there is no son in the family, the family business may be sold rather than passed on to the daughter.

Not only in business, but also within families, the roles and patterns of behaviour are often gender specific (Danes & Olson, 2003). Although sons and daughters are equally well educated, even in management and business, fathers are deeply concerned about whether daughters can effectively manage the demanding tasks associated with the company. Fathers also wish to ‘protect’ their daughters from the harsh world of having to deal with business management (Lingas, 2013). Such studies refer to family culture and structure that exclude daughters (Barnes, 1988; Curimbaba, 2002; Duman, 1990, Hollander & Bukowits, 1990). Much research has explored gendered identity in management, generating considerable debate about why women’s position in business and society differs from that of men (Barrett & Moores, 2009; Pringle, 2008; Glover & Kaplan, 2009; Kyriakidou, 2012).

Due to differences in the issues, the literature review is examined in two chapters. After analysing the general literature on family business dynamics, the next chapter will examine these issues in the Turkish family business context specifically.
CHAPTER 3. LITERATURE REVIEW: FOBs IN TURKEY

3.1. Introduction

Many of the world’s companies are family owned and managed and this is also the case in Turkey (Cetin, Gayipov & Akgemci 2016). Although there is no official definition of family business in the Turkish Commercial Code, 90% of enterprises and 94.1% of small and medium-sized enterprises in Turkey are family firms (European Commission Turkey Report, 2008). According to a survey conducted by the Ernest and Young Family Business Centre (2015), family businesses in Turkey have achieved stronger revenue growth than their global counterparts. Out of 50 family businesses surveyed, 31% said they achieved revenue growth of between 10 and 15% in the last year while one in three has reported growths of 15% or more.

In Turkey, 38 percent of FOBs are in their first generation, 47 percent in their second, 13 percent in their third, but only 2 percent in their fourth or further generation (Jones, 2013). Since the vast majority of Turkish family businesses are in their first or second generation, it needs to be proven whether they can succeed into future generations without a proper family constitution, which is more common in other European and Middle Eastern family businesses (Englisch, 2013). Moreover, many Turkish family firms also encounter problems in making the transition to professional management (Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001).

While FOBs account for 90% of all business in Turkey, family firm boards in Turkey are 74% male and only 26% female (Turkish statistical institute report, 2014). Additionally, according to Turkish Statistical Institute 2015 statistics, the employment rate of the population aged 15 and over was 45.5%; this rate was 64.8% for males and 26.7% for females. Additionally, according to the same statistics, the total number of ministers in 2015 in Turkey is 27 and the proportion of female ministers is only 7.4%. When countries were compared in 2013, it was seen that Sweden and Norway have the highest proportion of female ministers with 54.2% and 50%, respectively.
However, Turkey has the lowest labour force participation rate for females among the European Union member countries and candidate countries (OECD 2016, Employment Outlook). Nevertheless, even though this rate is much lower than for western countries, Turkish women are much more emancipated and better able to realise their potential than are their counterparts in most Islamic countries (Simsek, 2014). Turkish national culture has also had a great effect on women’s status in business life (Koyuncu et al., 2014).

Although Turkish societal and organisational culture is a blend of “Western” and “Eastern” (Aycan, 2001; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002), the GLOBE framework classifies it as high on power distance and uncertainty avoidance and collectivist, meaning that ‘we’ is important, people belong to in-groups and experience uncertainties. As a collectivist culture, relationships are generally close and family-oriented. Responsibility and loyalty are other important characteristics in such a culture, which may lead to the formation of high-quality relationships (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). The few family business succession studies that have been carried out recognise that culture – including gender differences – are a key element (Halkias et al., 2011b). However, no studies have yet investigated Turkish FOBs and the effects of family business culture on father-daughter succession.

This study investigates the succession process characterised by the transition of leadership from a father to his daughter, focusing on the relationships among the actors involved, the way the succession process takes place and the main emerging issues. In order to analyse the effect of Turkish national and family business culture on daughter succession, this chapter first gives information about Turkey, Turkish culture and FOB characteristics in Turkey. It then examines women and daughters in business life generally and in a FOB context specifically. Third, in order to examine daughter succession in Turkish FOBs, it considers Turkish FOBs, taking into account Turkish culture.
3.2. Family Owned Businesses in Turkey

3.2.1. General Outlook of Turkey

In the early 1980s, the term ‘newly-industrializing countries’ was applied to fast-growing and liberalising Asian and Latin American countries that were adopting market-based policies. (Hoskisson, Lau & Wright, 2000, p.249). According to Hoskisson et al. (2000), this term has now been replaced by the broader term ‘emerging market economies’. Arnold and Quelch (1998) argue that three aspects of a country’s economy usually underlie this term. The first is the absolute level of economic development, usually indicated by average gross domestic product (GDP) per capita, which overlaps with other categorisations such as ‘less economically developed countries’ or ‘Third World Countries’. The second is the relative pace of economic development, usually indicated by gross domestic product GDP growth rate, while the third is the system of market governance, particularly the extent and stability of a free-market system; if the country is in the process of economic liberalization from a command economy, it is sometimes defined as a ‘transitional economy’.

Turkey has been defined as one of the largest emerging economies (The World Bank, 2016), one of the fastest growing economies in OECD (DEIK, 2013) and with a GDP of $799.54 billion, Turkey is the 17th largest economy in the world (The World Bank, 2016). However, Turkey has a GII value of 0.359, which reflects gender-based inequalities in three dimensions; reproductive health, empowerment and economic activity, ranking it 71 out of 155 countries in the 2014 UNDP index (UNDP, 2015).

Although several emerging economies are developing rapidly, the developing economies of China and India have begun to dominate the economic landscape with their great potential with large population bases, abundant natural resources, and technical skills (Shah, 2014; Johnson 2012, Aryana, Clemmensen & Boks, 2015).
However, although China and India may be the most important markets because of their size and number of potential customers, there are other important emerging markets, such as Turkey and Iran, with comparatively high average income (International Monetary Fund, 2011). These markets are emerging markets with non-Western cultures that differ from emerging markets in China and India in terms of population and market size, having much smaller and more homogenous populations (Aryana et al., 2015). Another characteristic, which relates to Turkish societal and organisational culture, is that it is a blend of “Western” and “Eastern” (Aycan 2001, Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002), which enables Turkey to merge Eastern and western organisations easily. Despite the presence of large Western multinational companies, Turkish companies are competing on a global scale, many with global giants, while keeping the most important characteristics of Turkey’s indigenous management approach (Keles & Aycan, 2011).

Turkey is also a model country for improving stability and peace in the Middle East and Islamic World in general (Keyman, 2010, p.322). In particular, Istanbul, as the largest and most cosmopolitan city in the Middle East and the Balkans, has undergone a most intense form of globalisation, gradually becoming a significant player in the global economy and one of the world’s political and cultural centres (Houston, 2015). In 2010, for example, the Financial Times noted that half of the 19,000 companies operating in Turkey located their headquarters in Istanbul (TUSIAD, 2013). A stream of significant investments has been attracted to the city due to its large, young population and growing middle class, its location at the crossroads between West and East, its competent and highly qualified workers, and its industrial potential in medicine, energy, telecommunications, transport, and automotive industries (Alimadadi, Pahlberg & Hilmersson, 2012, p.221). One of the main forces behind Turkey’s economic momentum is the availability of young, educated human capital. More than half of Turkey’s population (57 percent) is under the age of 30 while its managerial population is also very young, with a mean age of 27.6 years (Aycan, 2001).
These strategic geopolitical factors make Turkey a place where multinational players want to be (Unnu & Kesken, 2014).

Since the start of accession negotiations between Turkey and the European Union (EU) in December 2004, Turkey has benefitted from significant foreign direct investment (FDI). The EU accession process has been a significant anchor for reforms in Turkey, although progress has slowed in recent years. The EU is Turkey’s largest economic partner, accounting for around 40 percent of Turkish trade while Turkey has benefited significantly from deepening integration with the EU through the growing sophistication of both exports and imports and access to financing (World Bank report, 2016). For example, according to the Turkish Statistical Institute 2016 report, GDP annual growth rate in Turkey averaged 3.93 percent from 1999 until 2015, compared to zero or negative figures in most EU economies. With a per capita income of roughly 10,515 dollars (World Bank report, 2016), Turkey is currently wealthier than some new EU members, with higher growth rates – much higher than the EU average – this seems sustainable for the Turkish economy. Besides this, the EU regional development paradigms, known as the new regionalism, have included continued efforts to stimulate local economic growth (Akpinar, Tasci & Ozsan, 2015).

The Turkish economy has a characteristic mixture of modern industry and traditional agriculture sectors, although the service sector has been growing (Donmez, 2007). As the commercial centre of south-eastern Europe, the Middle East and Eurasia, Turkey is becoming an increasingly important economic and diplomatic country in the region. As well as its geographical closeness to the EU, the Middle East, North Africa and CIS markets, modern production, high quality, quick delivery, low prices, a relatively cheap workforce and government investment incentives have made Turkey an attractive centre for foreign companies to invest (Eren & Jimenez, 2015). Thus, Turkey was the choice of 29,283 foreign capital establishments (www.invest.gov.tr), including 105 Fortune 500 companies. Turkey is marketing itself aggressively as a destination for foreign investors, creating healthy competition between international companies for the opportunity to invest (Green, 2005). According to Akpinar et al., (2015), since
Turkey’s major economic policy shift in the early 1980s from import-substitution towards export-led development, its stance on foreign investment has become increasingly open and aggressive.

Today’s Turkey, modern and open to the world, follows a liberal economic policy, similarly to its political structure (Ozkalp, Sungur & Ayse Ozdemir, 2009). Despite rising substantially since 2007, Turkey’s overall employment rate (50.0%) still remains much lower than the OECD average (65.6%) and Euro area average (63.8%). This reflects a relatively low employment rate for women, although this has risen by 7.3 percentage points since 2007, reflecting an improvement in women’s human capital, albeit from a low base as 78% of Turkey’s female working-age population still has less than a high school education. A large proportion of women, especially those with few qualifications, are employed informally (OECD Employment Outlook, 2016). Despite solid growth in Turkey’s working age population, Turkey has the lowest labour force participation rate of any OECD country (OECD, Economic Outlook of Turkey, 2015). Turkey also has serious regional disparities that are apparent in all social and economic sectors (Akpinar et al., 2015). Nevertheless, Turkey’s experience has been portrayed as a successful model for other developing countries (Subasat, 2014).

Turkish-owned FOBs are a post-Ottoman phenomenon, starting with the establishment of the Republic in 1923. Previously, non-Turkish ethnic groups, such as Italians, Greeks and Jews, had dominated business, but the new state wanted to assist Turkish-owned businesses (Jones, 2013). Today, Turkish-owned family firms of all sizes represent 90% of the nation’s companies.

3.2.2. Turkish National and Organisational Culture

According to Schein (2010), culture is “a pattern of basic assumptions - invented, discovered, or developed by a given group as it learns to cope with its problems of external adaptation and internal integration - that has worked well enough to be
considered valid and, therefore, to be taught to new members as the correct way to perceive, think, and feel in relation to those problems”. The culture of a company evolves as one or more founders start the business.

While the company, particularly its top managers, repeatedly make decisions to cope with challenges from the external environment and operational problems from the internal environment, its members learn a method of perceiving, thinking, and feeling in relation to these problems (Kym & Park, 1992). It is thus claimed that one of the main factors required for understanding organisations is organisational culture (Acar & Acar, 2014). A company’s corporate culture is critical as it can either steer employees away from acting in the company’s interests or excite and guide their actions towards the company’s benefit (Chow, Haddad & Wu, 2003). Organisational culture plays a significant role in understanding organisational dynamics and distinguishing the members of one organisation from others (Demir, Ayyildiz Unnu & Erturk, 2011, p.197). Therefore, it is fundamental to examining what goes on in organisations, how to run them and how to improve them (Schein, 2010). National culture also influences the ways in which work organisations are structured (Brooks, 2009), leading to the common belief that organisations that have developed within similar environments usually have similar cultures and mindsets with regards to ways of doing business (Oney-Yazici et al., 2007). National culture was originally examined from an anthropological or sociological rather than a business perspective, although the development of globalisation has placed national culture much higher up the agenda for business people working in countries other than their own (Brooks and Weatherston, 2010).

Different climates and cultures can be equally effective for different organisations, depending on their industry, their markets and the nature of their workforce (Schneider, Brief & Guzzo, 1996, p.18). However, what people in an organisation experience as the climate and believe is the culture ultimately determines whether
the sustained change is accomplished (Schneider, 2003). Methodologically, as Schein points out (1990), it is quite difficult to determine what the underlying pattern of cultural assumptions actually is.

However, without cultural analyses of all aspects of the entire company, it is impossible to identify the fundamental assumptions and mostly visible values shared by company members (Kym & Park, 1992).

Brown (1998) claims that one of the most interesting links between culture and performance is that “high economic performance is correlated with a strategically appropriate culture”, which suggests that organisations whose cultures ‘fit’ the environment and their business strategy will perform better than those whose fit are poor. Many researchers (e.g. Kotter & Heskett, 1992; Chow & Liu, 2007; Yusuff, Busu, Rashid & Zulkifli, 2008; Ojo, 2008; Iliuta, 2014) find that there is a direct relationship between organisational culture and corporate performance.

Although Islamic culture is dominant in Turkey, Turkey has its own characteristics distinguishing it from other Islamic countries (Sabah, Carsrud & Kocak, 2014). Turkey’s high levels of collectivism, power distance and uncertainty avoidance, mentioned above, and relatively moderate femininity (Hofstede, 2001) will be examined below in more detail.

Many authors stress the relationship between power and politeness (Holmes, 2000; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Shibamoto-Smith, 2011), in that power generally affects politeness in all kinds of environment, especially the workplace. Power distance is the extent to which the less powerful members of organisations within a country expect and accept that power is distributed unequally, while uncertainty avoidance is defined as the extent to which the members of a cultural feel threatened by uncertain or unknown situations (Brown, 1998, p.56). Hofstede defines power distance as “the dependence relationship in a country” (Hofstede 1994). The Turkish cultural system is classified as being high on power distance and uncertainty avoidance whereas the
United Kingdom is low on both of these cultural dimensions (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1999). Turkish organisations are known for their vertical hierarchical structure, low delegation, centralised decision-making, and strong personality of managers (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000, p.114).

Uncertainty avoidance centres on the extent to which members of a society are able to cope with uncertainty of the future without experiencing undue stress; people socialised with values of uncertainty avoidance usually experience more stress in dealing with an unknown future than those socialised with values tolerant of ambiguity (Ayoun & Moreo, 2008, p.66). The fundamental issue this cultural dimension address is how a society reacts to the fact that time only runs one way and that the future is unknown: whether it tries to control the future or to let it happen (Hofstede, 1980). Like many other developing countries, Turkey experiences uncertainties owing to volatile political and economic conditions, meaning that organisations find it very difficult to make long-term plans (Aycan et al., 2000, p.194).

In individualist societies, people are autonomous and independent from their ingroups, prioritising their personal goals over in-group goals, behaving primarily on the basis of their attitudes rather than in-group norms. Turkey, however, with a score of 37, is a collectivistic society, meaning that ‘we’ is important, with people belonging to in-groups (families, clans or business organisations) who look after their members in exchange for loyalty. Communication and feedback are indirect, and because the harmony of the group has to be maintained, open conflicts are avoided (Hofstede, 1980, 2001).

Regarding femininity, a high score (masculine) indicates that the society is more driven by competition, achievement, and success while a low score (feminine) means that the dominant values in society are caring for others and quality of life (Hofstede, 1980). Turkey scores 45, near the middle of the scale, but slightly more on the
feminine side. This implies that it is important for Turkish managers that subordinates have positive feelings toward them, reflecting what Hofstede refers to as a feminine culture (Sargut & McGrath, 2010).

3.2.3. The effects of Turkish national culture on Leadership

Cultural dimensions are basic concepts that help us understand how two or more cultures might vary along each dimension (Phatak, Bhagat & Kashlak, 2009). Many organisations operate in different parts of the world, encountering cross-national and regional cultures within their workforce, customers or governmental influences (Avery, Haynes & Haynes, 2000). These differences in national culture call for differences in management practices, as well as expectations from leaders, what leaders may and may not to (Fikret Pasa et al., 2001).

The cultural environment in Turkey is affected by political, ethnic, and religious considerations (Hale Oner, 2012) and this might imply that a Turkish firm whose culture is strongly nationalistic may not be well positioned to grow or compete in the global economy (Sabah et al., 2014).

As well as collectivism, high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance, relatively moderate femininity, and paternalistic values appear to be dominant among Turkish managers (Aycan, 2001). That is, it is important that subordinates should be loyal and comply with their directions (Sargut & McGrath, 2010). Professionalism and a rationalist orientation together with a cultural emphasis on power, hierarchy, and relationships can be seen in most Turkish firms (Bayraktar, 2015).
Family firms are influenced by specific processes and cultures that affect innovation, risk taking, opportunity identification, and achievement (Uhlaner et al., 2012). Individuals from collectivist countries tend to pay greater attention to the values, viewpoints, and goals of others than to self-interested goals (Hofstede, 2001). Since Turkish culture is collectivist, relationships in such a cultural context are generally close and family-like (Unnu & Kesken, 2014). On the contrary with individualistic cultures, the individual performance assessment is not approached positively in Turkey (Cetin et al., 2016).

A collectivist culture rests on the strong family unit, in which a strong sense of family relationships, obligations, and loyalty to family members are salient in organisational life (Osland, De Franco & Osland, 1999; Demir et al., 2011). Family members in business are expected to provide for and support their family through the provision of jobs or inclusion in business activities (Cruz et al., 2012). Cultures that endorse collectivism, such as in Asia and South America, place a high value on interpersonal harmony and group solidarity (Triandis, 2001). From this perspective, in collectivist Turkey, the relation-related competencies and process are utilised as performance assessment criterion rather than person-related competencies and outputs (Cetin et al., 2016). As stated by Yan and Sorenson (2006), in collectivist cultures, family firms may especially seek out informal networks compared with individualistic cultures.

Low uncertainty avoidance has effects on entrepreneurial activity in that members of such societies, such as the United Kingdom (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1999), are tolerant of behaviour and opinions that are different from their own because they do not feel threatened by them (Hofstede, 1998). On the other hand, societies with high uncertainty avoidance, such as Turkey, tend to have a lower cultural openness to different beliefs (Sabah et al., 2014).
In Turkish companies, there is almost no formal horizontal communication among employees. In such systems, uncertainty is reduced through high-power distance wherein each member accepts authority without question. This uncertainty avoidance reflects the society (or organisation) in that the boss’s directives are accepted without question (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006). Similarly, among 38 nations, Trompenaars and Hampden-Turner (2000) found Turkey to have the steepest organisational hierarchy, indicating the subordination of employees to their leaders. Turkish culture is also characterised by relatively more conservative and traditionalist rural and lower socioeconomic groups (Fikret Pasa et al., 2001). Countries with higher uncertainty avoidance values have problems with the unfamiliar, which causes resistance to change and innovation (Unnu & Kesken, 2014).

Leader power is a manifestation of feudal links, which has strong roots in Turkish culture, in that leaders are expected to promote patronage relationships with their followers (Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). Managers believe that employees, by nature, do not take a proactive stance to their work and feel obligated to help others within the organisational context (Aycan et al., 2000). Centralised decision making, autocratic and paternalistic leadership are dominant characteristics of Turkish management culture (Ozkalp et al., 2009). Additionally, paternalism in Turkish organisations implies that superiors are concerned with and involved in the professional and personal lives of their subordinates (Hale Oner, 2012).

3.2.4. Current Status of FOBs in Turkey

In Turkey, as in most of the world, the majority of businesses are family-owned. They are defined as a corporation and limited companies under the Turkish Commercial Code (Caliskan & Icke, 2011). According to the Ernst and Young Global Family Business Survey (2015), family businesses in Turkey have achieved stronger revenue growth than their global counterparts. Such companies are central to the Turkish economy, generating more than 240,000 new jobs between 2009 and 2011. Out of 50 family
businesses surveyed, 31% said they achieved revenue growth of between 10% and 15% in the last year while 1 in 3 reported growths of 15% or more. However, their viability depends on their owners' abilities to navigate economic changes and complicated family politics (Pekdemir, Kocoglu & Gurkan, 2013).

Although there is no journal dedicated to family business research in Turkey, Istanbul Kultur University hosts a bi-annual congress on family businesses in Turkey, attracting many scholars (Ayranci, 2010). The papers presented at this congress represent a rich source of knowledge about the situation of Turkish FOBs. According to one paper presented at Kultur University Family Business Congress 2010, while the global average life expectancy of a family business is 24 years, in Turkey it is is only 18.2 years. Only 18 family enterprises in Turkey have a long history of 100-200 years. Out of 18 longstanding family businesses in Turkey, only a handful that was founded before the 1900s still exist today (Yenilmez, 2015).

Considering the oldest companies worldwide, on the contrary with Turkey, they are seen to keep their existence for generations worldwide. While there are family companies reaching 49th and 46th generations in Japan, there are family companies reaching 26th generation in Italy and 14th generation in USA (Cetin et al., 2016).

Turkey’s family business sector is led by conglomerates representing some of its largest institutions (Jones, 2013). Family firms of all sizes represent the 90% of all Turkish businesses (Unnu & Kesken, 2014) while 31% of Turkish family firms have a family constitution (Jones, 2013). Due to the central role they play in the economy and their high visibility, they are likely to be taken as role models by other Turkish companies (Selekler-Goksen &Oktem, 2009). Koc Holding and Sabanci Holding, Turkey’s two largest business dynasties, between them, employing around 100,000 people, are now in their third generation (www.economist.com, February 2014). In Turkey, family businesses face both political and cultural obstacles (Kozan, Oksoy & Ozsoy, 2006). The current has a government established the Small and Medium Industry Development Organisation to encourage family business by train FOB members to better adapt to new technologies, to assist in the development of better
and more effective competition strategies, and to search for ways to increase their contribution to the Turkish economy. However, government policies have not yielded the intended results as far as financing and investment are concerned because FOBs have preferred to rely on family resources rather than loans from the government or private financial organisations (Keyt, 2015).

According to Pekdemir et al. (2013), the second generation of Turkish businessmen represents a new development due to their good education in Turkey’s best universities or abroad. The commitment of the family member workforce to the organisation and strong family ties are suggested as an important competitive advantage of the majority of these businesses, although rules and regulations are necessary for internal control (Keles et al., 2011).

According to the European Commission (2008), there are four types of family firms in Turkey: first, limited (family) companies, called ‘boss companies’, in which all decisions are made by the owner; second, companies whose shareholders are all siblings who share management between them; third, complex family firms with different family members (siblings, cousins, etc.) as shareholders; fourth, former family companies, currently directed by professional managers. This last type is recommended for those family companies that want to institutionalise. Due to the collectivist, paternalistic, feminine, high-risk avoidance, short-term oriented and high power distance nature of Turkish culture, employees tend to prefer a clan cultural profile in work life (Demir et al., 2011).
3.3. Women in Management in Turkey

Women continue to enter the workforce and pursue managerial and professional careers in almost all countries (Davidson & Burke, 2011). Since Turkey is a developing country, women tend to seek self-employment as a means to overcome occupational differences and participate in economic development (Tuzun, Takay, Batum & Ciftci, 2015). Although Turkey is the world’s 17th largest economy, only a quarter of women work outside the home (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2015), with the majority taking low-paid jobs, such as farm work or textiles.

Table 2. Women’s share of top management or executive positions as a percentage of all management or executive positions, 2000 and 2004.

At 43.0 % Turkey has the highest gender participation gap among OECD countries and even among emerging economies; this gap is one of the highest although it has narrowed somewhat over recent years (OECD Better Life Index, 2016). While the
employment rate in Turkey has been catching up with the OECD average, a substantial gap remains: in the last quarter of 2015 the employment rate in Turkey reached 47.8% – more than 12 percentage points below the OECD average (60.2%) (OECD Employment Outlook, 2016, Chapter 1). As can be seen at Table 2, gender inequality is more pronounced than in other OECD countries, with few women in parliament and large gender pay gaps (OECD Economic Survey, 2016).

Turkey also has the lowest labour force participation rate for females among European Union member countries and candidate countries; this rate was 71.3% for males and 30.3% for females in 2014 (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2016). The most important cultural factor that hinders female workforce participation in Turkey is the patriarchal ideology whereby the family is ruled by its senior male (Gunduz-Hosgor & Smith, 2008). Nevertheless, even though Turkey’s female participation rate is much lower than western countries, Turkish women are much more emancipated and better able to realise their potential than their counterparts in most Islamic countries (Simsek, 2014). In addition, the participation of Turkish women in working life has increased enormously recently with changes in consciousness regarding the importance of women in social life and success stories of women entrepreneurs (Aytanci & Gurbuz, 2012). According to World Economic Forum, Global Gender Gap Report (2016), Turkey records progress on closing the gender gap in estimated earned income and for professional and technical workers. However, its gender gap widens for wage equality and female members of parliament.

Turning to management specifically, it was seen that the higher education status of women will equal more women participating in the labour force. The participation rate was 16% for illiterate women, 25.8% for women graduated less than high school, 31.9% for women graduated from high school, 39.8% for women graduated from vocational high school and 71.3% for women graduated from higher education (Turkish Statistical Institute, 2016). According to Turkish Statistical Institutes Income and Living Conditions Survey 2015 results, a working woman who graduated from
higher education has 1.3% lower income than a working man having same education level. Turkey currently has few high-profile women leaders in business or government (Gul & Humphreys, 2014), ranking 24th out of 34 European countries in numbers of women on listed company boards while it has the lowest number of female members of parliament in Europe (Koyuncu et al., 2014). However, for improve the gender balance on company boards, having at least one female member in the five-member executive committees has become a general principle for companies listed on the Istanbul Stock Exchange (EU Country Report, 2016).

Apart from factors such as their lower educational and economic status and the extreme burden of care on women, there are numerous structural obstacles to women’s participation in Turkey (Davidson, 2016). One major reason is the area of social responsibility for women (Rodriguez, Avalos, Yilmaz & Planet, 2014;2013). Large portions of women work as unpaid family workers as homemakers, thereby lacking social security provision (Glupker-Kesebir, 2016).

Similarly, according to Altintas (2010), Turkey’s male-dominated organisational culture hinders women’s socialisation and career development. More specifically, some female employees experience a series of invisible obstacles driven by gender differences in Turkish workplaces (Ayranci & Gurbuz, 2012). The main obstacles include the presence of a male-dominated cultural organisation, stereotyped gender attitude and women’s inability to enter communication networks and informal groups inside the business organisation (Altintas, 2010). For Turkish women in managerial and highly prestigious professions, the conflicting roles of wife, mother, and career can result in these women facing different dynamics compared to women in unskilled or semi-skilled jobs, or to other career women in more developed countries (Davidson, 2016, p.328).
An entrepreneur is defined as one who is skilled in starting new businesses, especially when this involves seeing new opportunities (Cambridge Press Dictionary, 2010). According to Shane and Venkataraman (2000), entrepreneurship is the “study of how, by whom, and with what effects opportunities to create future goods and services are discovered, evaluated and exploited”. Entrepreneurial activity plays a very important role in an active and dynamic economy, especially entrepreneurial activity by women, both in developed and developing economies (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013; Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011; Zhu et al., 2015).

Entrepreneurship has long been considered a significant factor for socioeconomic growth and development because it provides millions of job opportunities, offers a variety of consumer goods and services, and generally increases national prosperity and competitiveness (Zahra, 2012). Despite the important role of entrepreneurship in many developing countries, entrepreneurship research has tended to focus on developed countries such as the United States (Gupta et al., 2010; Lee & Peterson, 2000). Although the literature indicates the importance of studying female entrepreneurship for both social and economic development (Minniti, 2010; Terjesen & Amoros Espinosa, 2010; Shane & Venkataraman, 2000; Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013), the key reason for the interest in female entrepreneurship is that women are assumed to encounter different difficulties to men in starting and operating businesses (Neider, 1987).

Given that females account for about half of the population, one might expect women to contribute about half of the labour effort, half of human capital, and half of entrepreneurship (Sabah et al., 2014). However, according to Global Entrepreneurship Monitor (GEM) surveys, no country has more active women than men (Minniti, 2010). While women entrepreneurs everywhere are in a minority, there is also considerable variation across countries (Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011). According to the GEM 2014 Global Report, GEM surveys (including GEM special reports on women) consistently confirm that early-stage entrepreneurial activity is gender sensitive, due to a
combination of cultural, societal, and economic reasons. Although women have gained increased economic opportunities, their productive potential is underutilised due to cultural values and an unfavourable business environment (Zhu et al., 2015). Moreover, McAdam (2012) points out that locality matters, creating regional variations when it comes to entrepreneurial activity amongst women (McAdam, 2012).

The World Economic Forum’s 2016 Global Gender Gap Report states that Turkey is not known for embracing gender equality, for which it ranks near the bottom at 130 out of 144 countries.

Turkey also ranks 129th overall on the economic participation and opportunity indicator and is one of the twenty lowest ranked countries on the economic participation indicator.

One of the main reasons is Turkey’s male-dominated social structure, which creates significant gender-based barriers for potential female entrepreneurs (Tuzun et al., 2015). Consequently, Turkish women are less likely than men to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Maden, 2015). According to Davidson (2016), the low levels of entrepreneurship among women in Turkey may be related to the dominant patriarchal relationships in society and family. According to the Turkish Statistical Institute (TUIK) (2016) Labour Force Survey statistics, only 8% of people employed as employees were female, although the percentage of females had increased by 0.5% over the previous year. As for, why female participation remains low in Turkey, Gole (1996, p.48) asserts that ordinary urban life continued to exercise limits upon the level of companionship between the sexes. Cultural values influence innovativeness, and affect whether a society considers entrepreneurial behaviour desirable (Sabah et al., 2014). In some cultures, women are more vulnerable because tradition usually gives them less decision-making power over assets than men while at the same time their opportunities to engage in paid work to acquire their own assets are more limited (Mungai & Ogot, 2012). Thus, the cultivation of entrepreneurship requires a national
culture that supports and encourages entrepreneurship activities (Lee & Peterson, 2000). Maysami and Gobby (1999) add that demographic factors, such as age, gender, perceptual experience, and education, also influence an individual’s entrepreneurial tendencies. For example, Poutanen and Kovalainen (2013) found a positive relationship between women’s business start-up rate and their level of education while Bartos et al. (2015) found that formal education can increase an individual’s managerial ability, which can enable them to become an entrepreneur. Regarding Turkey, Karatas-Ozkan (2011) argues that patriarchal social values and associated traditional gender roles, together with limited access to education and training opportunities, lack of experience in business life, and limited access to informal and formal networks deter women from entrepreneurship.

According to Lee and Peterson (2000), thinking about a new business venture means confronting a great deal of uncertainty, which requires less tolerance of power distance, a willingness to accept living with uncertainty, and being more individualistic, masculine, achievement-oriented and universalistic. Low uncertainty avoidance is associated with entrepreneurial activity so societies with high uncertainty avoidance, such as Turkey, tend to have a lower cultural openness to different beliefs (Sabah et al., 2014). On the other hand, countries scoring low in power distance have decentralised and less hierarchical structures that facilitate innovation, implying that low power distance is a major characteristic of the entrepreneurial mindset (Demirci, 2013). Given that Turkey scores high on power distance and uncertainty avoidance, entrepreneurial activities may not be so easily tolerated. Hisrich and Ayse Ozturk (1999) find that, apart from financial problems, the current operations of Turkish women entrepreneurs face personnel problems, marketing problems, lack of involvement with business colleagues, difficulty in obtaining lines of credit, and inexperienced in hiring outside services. As discussed earlier, women in Turkey also face significant gender-based barriers on their way to entrepreneurship (Tuzun et al., 2015).
Regarding women entrepreneurship in Turkey, previous research reports that female entrepreneurs are generally over 30 years of age, like female entrepreneurs in other countries (Yilmaz, Odemir & Oraman, 2012; Hisrich & Ayse Ozturk, 1999; Maden, 2015; Sonmez & Toksoy, 2014). In the meantime, Maden (2015) reports that the majority of Turkish women entrepreneurs are married, although the percentage of married entrepreneurs is much higher among men.

As already discussed, entrepreneurial activity plays a very important role in the creation of an active and dynamic economy, especially entrepreneurial activity by women, in both developed and developing economies (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013; Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011; Zhu et al., 2015).

Among developing countries, Turkey offers a unique perspective on the issue of women's entrepreneurship since the government supports women entrepreneurs by offering special credit to women wanting to start a new venture or produce something from their home (Hisrich & Ayse Ozturk, 1999). Although such governmental and non-governmental initiatives have been effective in supporting women's labour, women in the private sector still need to overcome gender barriers in order to prove themselves successful in a male-dominated business culture (Davidson, 2016).

3.4. Conclusion

In Turkey, as in most of the world, the majority of businesses are family-owned. Turkey’s family business sector is led by conglomerates, representing some of the largest institutions in the country. Family firms represent 90% of Turkish companies, with the largest of them, Koç Holding, accounting for 9% of Turkey’s GDP (www.koc.com.tr, 2016) and followed by Haci Omer Sabanci Holding AS with an annual revenue of $12.7 billion.

Turkey is one of the world’s largest emerging economies. As the commercial centre of south-eastern Europe, Middle East and Eurasia, Turkey is becoming an increasingly
important economic and diplomatic country in the region. As well as its geographical
closeness to the EU, the Middle East, North Africa and CIS markets, modern
production, quality, quick delivery and low prices, a relatively cheap workforce and
investment promotions provided by the government make Turkey an attractive centre
for companies to invest. However, in Turkey, FOBs face both political and cultural
obstacles (Kozan et al., 2006). Government policies have not yet yielded the intended
result as far as financing and investment are concerned because FOBs have preferred
to rely on family resources rather than loans from the government or private financial
organisations (Keyt, 2015).

As discussed in chapters 2 and 3, organisational culture plays a significant role in
understanding organisational dynamics and distinguishes the members of one
organisation from other.

In FOBs, this is determined by the founders (Bee & Neubaum, 2014; Salvato & Melin,
2008; Demir et al., 2011). Therefore, a family business founder plays an important role
in determining the family business culture, which is crucial for the daughter succession
process. Two important social units, family and business, are highly integrated with
traditional gender roles being often maintained in FOBs. As Turkish culture is
considered collectivist, with high power distance, according to Hofstede’s cultural
dimensions’ studies, relationships are generally close and family-like, with
responsibility and loyalty being important characteristics (Kabasakal, Dastmalchian,
Karacay & Bayraktar, 2012). Regarding businesses, due to Turkey’s collectivist,
paternalistic, feminine, high-risk avoidance, short-term oriented and high power
distance nature, employees tend to prefer a clan cultural profile in work life (Demir et
al., 2011). Therefore, the low percentage of women business leaders may be explained
by the country’s national and organisational culture, conservative government
attitudes and relatively low education levels.

Entrepreneurship, both male and female, is associated with the socio-economic and
cultural structure within which the individual is situated. Turkey has a particular social
structure, dominated by a strong family orientation and religion compared with other
countries. These cultural characteristics are reflected in the definition of female entrepreneurs own social identities (Tuzun et al., 2015).

In recent decades, women have become significantly more important in business life throughout the developed world, making it advisable to review the situation of women in business (as entrepreneurs) and the way that their situation in the social and family context (as conditioned by gender) facilitates or hinders their work or entrepreneurial activity (Peris-Ortiz et al., 2012). While more women are seeking entry into male-dominated occupations, the integration of women into positions of authority within business organisations has achieved only limited success (Brown, 1979). Thus, in some countries but not others, women can gain leading positions in FOBs. This study aims to show what factors support or hinder women from taking these leading positions in FOBs in Turkey.
CHAPTER 4. CONCEPTUAL FRAMEWORK

4.1. Introduction

The previous literature review chapter demonstrated that many FOBs fail to survive for successive generations, with the succession process being a critical factor. Although finding a suitable successor is accepted as one of the most important factors for sustaining the business, according to literature, son’s are almost always chosen as successors over daughters, regardless of their suitability.

The current study builds on ‘extant theory’ about family business cultural impacts on FOB succession using a multidimensional model of succession that adapts stewardship theory while including the previously under-researched perspectives of FOB owners, daughters as successors and FOB employees.

Within the traditional business organisational climate characterised by executive coaching, the identity of ‘the coached’ can be differentiated from the business identity (Hartel et al., 2009). This is not the case in a family business context, however, where the incumbent family business leader, the successor, the business, and the family culture are interwoven (Hartel et al., 2009; Otto-Pappas, 2015). Moreover, in FOBs, family executives not only coach but often associate with their business intimately for a long time. In some cases, they are founders of later generation executives who have spent a long apprenticeship within their respective companies (Miller et al., 2013, p.556). In comparison with the much larger body of literature focusing on male business managers in FOB, few studies specifically focus on women in family businesses (Anshu, 2012; Vadnjal & Zupan; 2010; Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007; Lyman et al., 1985; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Barrett & Moores, 2009; Martinez Jimenez, 2009; Bagley & Steffen, 1984; Overbeck & Bilimoria, 2013), or make male/female comparisons through a gender analysis (Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2010; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011).
In the FOB literature, the wives of family business owners have been described as “Chief Emotional Officers” (Poza et al., 2004) while sons are commonly described as “heirs” (Barrett & Moores, 2009). Daughters and their roles in FOBs have not attracted any significant attention or analysis by researchers (Vera & Dean, 2005; Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013; Humphreys, 2013). What limited research there is (Anshu, 2012; Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011; Miller et al., 2013; Lee, Danes & Shelly, 2006; Halkias et al., 2011(b); Humphreys, 2013; Sorenson et al., 2013; Wang, 2010) on daughters and family businesses has examined the unique challenges facing daughters who have achieved success or leadership status. However, this sheds only a little light on the issue as many daughters who are either not utilised or underutilised in their family firms (Overbeke & Bilimoria, 2013). Finally, women’s roles in the operation of such businesses are one the least examined areas (Sharma, 2004; Sonfield & Lussier, 2009a; Martinez Jimenez, 2009).

To contribute to reducing this deficit, this study asks a number of questions. How do daughters gain the successor position in their family business? What is the cultural context of FOBs and how important is it in developing the leadership of a family business? What are the characteristic features of these processes? How do implicit and explicit factors, such as gendered cognitions, and contextual factors, such as family culture, affect this process?

This study focuses on daughters as successors in Turkish FOBs and explores the importance of FOB culture and to what extent the FOB owners have an important role in implementing the culture in the enterprise in order to smooth the daughter’s succession. Utilising a multidimensional model of succession in family business and stewardship theory, this study aims to shed light on the issue of daughter successors in Turkey. To understand the dynamics of daughter succession, it examines the factors that explain daughters’ perceptions about their roles and functions in the family business.
4.2. Turkish National-Organisational Culture Dynamics and Entrepreneurship

Family business culture is closely linked to the national culture. Thus, in order to able to examine the family culture of Turkish FOBs, the national culture will be examined first.

Geographically and culturally, Turkey has played a major role in world history as a crossroad of civilisations bridging Europe and Asia (Ozkan & Lajunen, 2005). Turkey has experienced growing political, cultural and economic engagement with Europe, pursuing an integration policy with Western institutions (Keles & Aycan, 2011, p.3081). With its unique cultural and historical background, Turkey is a democratic and secular state with a predominantly Muslim population. Traditional Turkish culture is characterised by high levels of collectivism, high power distance, high uncertainty avoidance and relatively moderate feminine and hierarchical characteristics (Hostede, 1981; Cavusgil, Civi, Tutek & Dalgic, 2003; Uzkurt, Kumar, Semih Kimzan & Emiroglu, 2013). Although Islamic culture is dominant in Turkey, it has its own characteristics that set it apart from other Islamic countries (Sabah et al., 2014).

Many authors stress the relationship between power and politeness (Holmes, 2000; Holmes & Stubbe, 2003; Shibamoto-Smith, 2011). In these studies, power generally affects the politeness in all kinds of environment, but especially the workplace. Power distance is the extent to which less powerful members of organisations expect and accept that power is distributed unequally (Brown, 1998). Hofstede also defines power distance as “the dependence relationship in a country” (Hofstede 1994). The Turkish cultural system is classified as being high on power, distance and uncertainty avoidance whereas the United Kingdom are low on both (Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1999). Turkish organisations are known for their vertical hierarchical structure, low delegation, centralised decision-making and strong personality of managers (Trompenaars & Hampden-Turner, 2000). Therefore, Turkish society must maintain its
high-power distance structure to overcome uncertain circumstances (Pellegrini & Scandura, 2006).

In high power distance cultures, the participation of employees and personal initiatives by subordinates are not valued since subordinates are likely to continue accepting centralised power (i.e. dependent on superiors for directions in order to dutifully implement their policies) (Lim, 2001). Additionally, in high power distance cultures, the elderly and those in power may have a constraining and controlling effect on individual decisions to act (Goktan & Gunay, 2011, p.459).

In individualist societies, people are autonomous and independent from their in-groups; they give priority to their personal goals over the goals of their in-groups, behaving primarily on the basis of their attitudes rather than the norms of their in-groups. Exchange theory adequately predicts their social behaviour (Triandis, 2001). Turkey, with a score of 37, is a collectivistic society, meaning that the ‘we’ is important, people belong to ‘in-groups’ (families, clans or organisations) who look after each other in exchange for loyalty, communication is indirect, the harmony of the group has to be maintained, open conflicts are avoided and feedback is always indirect. These characteristics also apply to the business environment (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Loyalty to the group is an essential element in collectivist cultures, which makes them more prone to share complaints, as it could be beneficial for the group to know which dissatisfying situations to avoid (Pinillos & Reyes, 2011; Chapa, Hernandez, Wang & Skalski, 2014). In Individualistic societies, “the ties among members are loose; everyone is expected to look after him/herself and her/his immediate family only” whereas, in collectivist cultures, an individual’s identity is based on group membership (Hofstede, 2001). In Turkish society, levels of trust are comparatively very low, communication is indirect to maintain the harmony of the group, and open conflicts are avoided. Turkish people tend to trust members of their own families, village, or town (Kaslow, 2006; Erden & Akbag, 2015). Empirical evidence suggests a positive relationship between individualism and entrepreneurial activity, suggesting
that the search for personal objectives (a dominant aspect in individualist cultures) is positively associated with an entrepreneurial spirit (Pinillos & Reyes, 2011, p.23).

Morris et al. (1997) found that entrepreneurship declines the more collectivism is emphasised. In other words, in cultures in which group thinking may outweigh individual initiative, few individuals put their entrepreneurial ambitions into action (Beugelsdijk, 2007, p.23). In the family business context, in collectivist cultures, entrepreneurs are likely to focus on generating family income to take care of themselves and family members rather than be concerned about individual economic achievement, profit and growth (Goktan & Gunay, 2011, p.458). Some authors, however, also observe that despite arguments that individualism is positively associated with entrepreneurship, there are many countries characterised by a collectivist orientation that also exhibits high levels of entrepreneurial activity (Hayton & Cacciotti, 2013; Hunt & Levie, 2003).

Some studies also discuss cultural context as a discriminating element in the succession process, highlighting gender considerations in successor selection (Fahed-Sreih & Djoundouras, 2006; Tatoglu & Demirbag, 2008; Hayajenh, Maghrabi & Al-Dabbagh, 1994). For example, some cultures “hinder women’s professional careers as a consequence of the implicit rules keeping women in the background and out of consideration” for leadership roles. In others, “family firms offer a series of advantages that help women progress professionally and achieve leadership roles without coming up against the feared glass ceiling” (Martinez Jimenez, 2009, p.58). Understanding the unique, complex social structure of Turkish families, particularly their hierarchies and traditions, is essential to all interaction with them (Kaslow, 2006). Traditional societies, where power distance and in-group collectivism tends to be higher, also tend to assign more traditional roles to women (House et al., 2002). In these societies, women tend to play a less visible leadership role in the family businesses (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). Thebaud (2010) investigated whether
women’s self-perceived lack of competence at entrepreneurship continues even after they have become an entrepreneur. Importantly, by influencing self-assessments of ability, it is possible that cultural beliefs about gender play a role in constraining women’s involvement in economic development and, more broadly, their position as leaders in society.

4.3. A Gendered lens on women entrepreneurship in Turkey

Entrepreneurial activity varies across countries and regions (Hayton and Cacciotti, 2013). While it is also strongly linked with personal skills and education level, the social environment primarily determines its characteristics (Ufuk & Ozgen, 2001). Maysami & Gobby (1999) claim that demographic factors, such as age, gender, perceptual experience, and level of education, influence entrepreneurial tendencies. Entrepreneurial activity plays a very important role in the creation of an active and dynamic economy, especially entrepreneurial activity by women, both in developed and developing economies (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013; Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011; Zhu et al., 2015). Moreover, entrepreneurship has long been considered a significant factor for socioeconomic growth and development because it provides millions of job opportunities, offers a variety of consumer goods and services, and generally increases national prosperity and competitiveness (Zahra, 2012).

The literature suggests that women have more doubts about their capabilities to be entrepreneurs and that they perceive they will need a higher level of education than men do to be competent entrepreneurs (Thebaud, 2010; Marlow & Swail, 2014). On the other hand, male entrepreneurs are more than two times more likely to believe that they have sufficient knowledge, skills, and experience to be an entrepreneur (Thebaud, 2010). Remery et al. (2014) support Thebaud (2010), asserting that women may require a higher level of education on average before they consider themselves to be competent at entrepreneurship. Thus, entrepreneurship is generally considered as a ‘masculine’ occupation (Gupta et al., 2009; Verheul, 2005; Mueller, 2008), with
entrepreneurship scholars observing a wide discrepancy in the rate of entrepreneurial activity between men and women entrepreneurs (Gorji & Rahimian, 2011; Marlow & Swail, 2014; Terjesen & Elam, 2012; Cetindamar, Gupta, Karadeniz & Egrican, 2012).

Women entrepreneurship is increasingly recognised as a key source of employment creation and innovation and for addressing inequalities (OECD, 2015). In OECD economies, two and a half times as many men as women are self-employed with paid employees.

However, in all OECD economies except Turkey, self-employed women are more likely than self-employed men are to work in the service sector (OECD, 2015). At 43.0 % Turkey has the highest gender participation gap among OECD countries and even among emerging economies; this gap is one of the highest although it has narrowed somewhat over recent years (OECD Better Life Index, 2016). One of the main reasons for this is Turkey’s male dominated social structure, which clearly indicates that women in Turkey face significant gender-based barriers to becoming entrepreneurs (Tuzun et al., 2015). Ufuk & Ozgen (2001) examine the effect of being a woman entrepreneur in Turkey in terms of the multiple roles and conflict between the entrepreneur role and others. They found that women think that because being an entrepreneur harms their roles in family life while enhancing their roles in social, economic and individual life, they suffer from conflicts between these two roles. The role of entrepreneur particularly conflicts with being a housewife, mother and wife.

Turkish women are less likely than men are to engage in entrepreneurial activities (Maden, 2015), which Davidson (2016) suggest may be related to the dominant patriarchal relationships in society and families. The Turkish Statistical Institute (2016) Labour Force Survey results indicate that the proportion of female employees increased by 0.5% to 8%, meaning that Turkey has the lowest labour force participation rate for females among European Union member countries and candidate countries. Hisrich and Ayse Ozturk (1999) show that Turkish women entrepreneurs start their ventures for a wide variety of reasons, with the most frequently mentioned being an interest in this area of business followed by boredom.
from being a housewife, moving location, and job frustration. Turkish women entrepreneurs give different reasons to their counterparts in other countries, being bored by being a housewife the primary reason for starting their venture (Hisrich & Ayse Ozturk, 1999).

Research indicates that entrepreneurs need to be educated in order to develop their entrepreneurial abilities and enable their business to survive (Bullough, De Luque, Abdelzaher & Heim, 2015; Welsch, 2004; McAdam, 2012; Thebaud, 2010; Remery et al., 2014).

Turkey is a developing country where women seek self-employment as a means to overcome occupational disadvantages and participate in economic development (Tuzun et al., 2015). In developing countries, characterised by resource-constrained environments, education may be seen as more important for men than for women (Cetindamar et al., 2012). However, across OECD countries, the proportion of women who hold a university-level qualification now equals or exceeds that of men in 29 of 32 countries. However, while OECD data shows that 59% of all graduates who held a first university degree in 2009 are women, unfortunately, in China, Japan, Korea, and Turkey, this proportion is below 50%. In developing countries, education is an important instrument for changing one’s social status. Specifically, formal education may facilitate the interaction of tacit and complex knowledge that helps solve complex problems and make entrepreneurial decisions (Honig & Paul Dona, 2008). Karatas-Ozkan (2011) argues that persistent patriarchal social values and associated traditional gender roles, together with limited access to education and training opportunities, lack of experience in business life, and limited access to informal and formal networks deter women from entrepreneurship in Turkey. Whilst cultural profile, gender, age, and previous work experience also influence the entrepreneurial profile, the level of education has a major role in entrepreneurial success or failure (Demirci, 2013).
Hisrich and Ayse Ozturk (1999) found that, after financial problems, Turkish women entrepreneurs face the most problems with personnel, marketing, lack of involvement with business colleagues, obtaining lines of credit, and inexperienced in hiring outside services. Women in Turkey also face significant gender-based barriers on their way to entrepreneurship (Tuzun et al., 2015). Cetindamar et al. (2012) found that, except for post-graduate levels (masters or PhD), women in Turkey who attained a higher level of education are more likely to engage in entrepreneurial activity than men. Female entrepreneurs in Turkey are generally over 30 years of age, like their counterparts in other countries (Yilmaz et al., 2012; Hisrich & Ayse Ozturk, 1999; Maden, 2015; Sonmez & Toksoy, 2014).

Maden (2015) reports that the majority of Turkish women entrepreneurs are married although the percentage is much higher among male entrepreneurs.

As indicated above, entrepreneurial activity plays a very important role in creating an active and dynamic economy, especially entrepreneurial activity by women in both developed and developing economies (Avolio Alecchi & Radovic-Markovic, 2013; Estrin & Mickiewics, 2011; Zhu et al., 2015). Among developing countries, Turkey offers a unique perspective on the issue of women’s entrepreneurship as the government supports women entrepreneurs by offering special credits to women wanting to start a new venture or carry out production in their home (Hisrich & Ayse Ozturk, 1999). In Turkey, KOSGEB (the Republic of Turkey Small and Medium Enterprise Development Organisation) has provided financial support to over 1 000 women entrepreneurs each year since 2009. This programme applies positive discrimination, providing larger grants (10% more) to women wishing to start up their business (OECD, 2014). Although governmental and non-governmental initiatives are effective in supporting women’s labour, women in the private sector still need to overcome gender barriers in order to prove themselves successful in a male-dominated business culture (Davidson, 2016).

Even though their participation is much lower than in western countries, women in Turkey are much more emancipated and able to realise their potential than in most
Islamic countries (Simsek, 2014). Moreover, the participation of Turkish women in work life has recently increased enormously with the increase in consciousness regarding their importance in social life and success stories of women entrepreneurs (Aytanci & Gurbuz, 2012).
4.4. Sibling Rivalry in FOBs: implications for the succession process

Succession is one of the most important factors for the continuance of a family business (Miller et al., 2003; Breton Miller et al., 2004; Chrisman et al., 1998; Ruiz Jimenez et al., 2015; Francis, 1999; Halkias et al., 2011b; Stafford et al., 1999; Dumas, 1992; Humphreys, 2013). However, most family-owned businesses cease when the next generation fails to continue the business (Ward, 1997; Zahra & Sharma, 2004).

Family businesses can also fail for many other reasons. One of the key reasons is rivalry among family heirs, especially during the succession process (De Massis et al., 2008; Avloniti et al., 2014; Anne Lister, 2001; Sorenson et al., 2013). The majority of research on family business succession focuses on how families can best prepare a successor who is from the next generation. However, some studies have attempted to discover factors preventing intra-family succession, such as sibling rivalry (Avloniti et al., 2014; Anne Lister, 2001; Vera & Dean, 2005; Kaufmann, 2011). In addition to market forces, natural disasters and the ordinary life cycle of many products and services, family relationships, especially relationships between siblings and cousins, have a significant impact on the survival of family firms in the third generation (Frankerberg, 2014).

Sibling rivalry is a competitive relationship between siblings, often associated with a struggle for parental attention, affection and approval, but also for recognition in the world (Avloniti et al., 2014). Among other things, siblings differ in temperament, knowledge, or attitudes toward money; often it is because of growing up in the same household that they become so different (Aronoff & Brun de Pontet, 2015). According to Kaufmann (2011), the feeling of rivalry appears as a product of the bond between siblings, consisting of the desire to retain control over the others. Indeed, conflicts arising from relationships in the family businesses are often moderated by altruism levels among family members (Kellermans & Eddleston, 2004). Because first-born
children from different families are often more alike than siblings from the same family, the first-born child of the FOB owner can benefit a third-generation family firm. However, they can also become a source of rivalry if the eldest cousin feels entitled to be in charge and if the family as a whole has never developed clear criteria and common values regarding succession planning (Frankenberg, 2014). When women are considered as successors, they seem to face many challenges (Remery et al., 2014). For example, as indicated by Vera and Dean (2005), even if they are the oldest child, women feel less visible than their brothers as possible successors. In this way, if the family displays a high level of commitment, shared values and altruistic behaviour toward one another, it achieves a higher level of cohesion (Sorenson et al., 2013).

While the birth order has a powerful impact on successor selection, gender is always the dominant factor (Zahra & Sharma, 2004). Socioculturally assigned gender roles often have extraordinary power to create different roles for the two sexes. According to Frankenberg (2014), two siblings of the same gender often develop more divergent interests than two first-born cousins, one male and one female, born in the same generation with similar family experience, similar education, and similar work histories. Additionally, sharing leadership with siblings, cousins, and other distant relatives requires commonality, although effective successors develop a vision for the enterprise and find ways to connect it (Aronoff & Brun de Pontet, 2015).

According to Schuman et al. (2010), family business crises emerge predictably during intergenerational transitions in both the family and business. In the founding stage, businesses are usually considered first, to promote the business’ survival and success. The complexity that emerges in the second generation family and business requires a range of skills, including sophisticated business know-how, deep emotional intelligence, and a great capacity to bring family members together (Aronoff & Brun de Pontet, 2015). According to Frankenberg (2014), sibling rivalry occurs particularly in the third generation (G3). He argues that the founding entrepreneur and his or her spouse ordinarily raise their children with a shared faith and tragedies. When siblings are raised in the same household by the same parents with the same work ethic, they
have a reasonable chance of becoming effective partners in the family business. In the third generation, however, the family structure becomes more complicated.

As the offspring of the founding entrepreneur marry and raise their own families, this can introduce different values, ethnic, and religious traditions, or attitudes toward work and play. Not only must each member of the next generation demonstrate individual competence, but the siblings must also prove that they can operate as a unified team, according to Aronof and Brun de Pontet (2015).

When studying sibling pairs, it is also important to consider both gender combinations and age differences (Williams, Conger & Blazis, 2007). They examine rivalries between three different sibling dyads: same sex (boy-boy pairs; girl-girl pairs) and mixed-sex pairs, finding that boy–boy pairs demonstrate the highest rate of inter-sibling conflict and aggression, followed by mixed-sex and girl–girl pairs, On the other hand, same-sex pairs tend to demonstrate higher rates of concordance in problem behaviour than mixed-sex pairs.

According to Kaslow’s (2006) family survey, while gender issues still exist in some companies, there is less friction between brothers and sisters or fathers and daughters working together, and more competition or rivalry between two brothers or fathers and sons. According to Kaslow, because women create better working relationships, two sisters or mothers and daughters experience less conflictual working relationships in business.

4.5. Family conflict during the succession process

The intersection between family members, the family and the business creates a unique set of features explaining performance differences between family and non-family businesses (Habbershon et al., 2003). Family members’ relationships are strongly associated with the outcome of FOB succession (Sorenson et al., 2013), which also causes conflict within the family and business (Kellermans & Eddleston, 2004; Harvey, Cosier & Novicevic, 1998; Shepherd & Haynie, 2009; Carr & Hmieleski, 2015).
Such conflict may occur in the family business environment between family units, within family units, and among different generations within a family unit (Harvey et al., 1998).

Business-owning families can transmit unique resources to the firm through family member interactions in both their family and business systems, and at their interface (Danes et al., 2008). The family and business interact by exchanging resources and capital across boundaries (Danes et al., 2007). Sustainable Family Business Theory (SFBT) suggests that resource transactions (e.g., utilisation or transformation of social, human, and financial capital) and interpersonal transactions (e.g., communication, personal relationships, and conflict management) from either firm or family may facilitate or inhibit family firm sustainability (Werbel & Danes, 2010). Shepherd and Haynie (2009) assert that, in a FOB context, conflict within the family may arise due to business related disagreements over growth targets, succession or product offerings, while conflict within the business may also be driven by family issues. However, in either case, these conflicts often originate from close and repeated interactions between family members, the family, and the business (Shepherd & Haynie, 2009). Conflicts within family businesses can be quite damaging if not anticipated and proactively managed, particularly leadership succession or generational transition.

According to some research (Harvey et al., 1998; Kellermanns & Eddleston, 2006), some conflicts may have a positive impact. For example, if the elder generation wants to create a conflict around the succession to determine which sibling should lead the family business, they may want to contain the discussion, debate, and potential resulting disagreement to family members only. However, if employees or outside stakeholders become involved in the conflict surrounding the selection process, they may discover the candidates’ weaknesses and the disunity among family members (Harvey et al, 1998). Common reasons why family firms fail to survive through the generations include lack of planning and integration of the next generation, disregarding the opinions of the next generation, disconnection between shareholders and management, lack of leadership, poor planning, lack of
communication, lack of stress management, lack of mutual respect, lack of use of resources, lack of decision making, lack of trust among members involved in the business, and failure to effectively manage conflict (Ward, 1997; Dyer, 1988; Keyt, 2015).

According to Garcia-Alvarez et al., (2002), the selection of the successor plays a crucial role in the succession process, providing family continuity, raising the entrepreneurial potential of descendants, and reducing conflict among siblings during the process. However, conflict is seen as an obstacle to FOB longevity (Breton Miller et al., 2004; Sharma 2004)

Considering daughter succession, the first issue concerns the daughter's desire to become a mother and raise children while at the same time retaining her position in the family business and working long hours. Because the latter may prevent her from raising a family, this can raise doubts concerning her own identity and conflict with societal expectations that she produces offspring (Cole, 1997; Salganicoff, 1990). As Cole (1997) notes, women in family businesses continue to struggle with the traditional limitations imposed on them by others, particularly general assumptions that they need flexible schedules, have difficulty in reconciling private and professional spaces, struggle with child care, and are not always willing to advance in their careers (Curimbaba, 2002). Masuo et al. (2001) also suggest that women may perceive work-family conflict as lack of support from the organisation. Life may be particularly complex for women who manage both their family and a business (Philbrick & Fitzgerald, 2007). Unfortunately, although father-daughter successions are less competitive and conflictive than father-son successions (Haberman & Danes, 2007), Garcia-Alvarez et al. (2002) report that daughters are only chosen as successors when all other descendants are female or the daughter is the first born.

Succession it is a lengthy process that begins before heirs even enter the firm (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Handler, 1994; Mazzola et al., 2008). However, even a highly
competent successor may be an inappropriate choice if their selection will cause conflicts among influential family members. At that point, a family council may help ensure that successors meet both competency and social criteria (Breton-Miller et al., 2004). Because strategic policy in a family business is determined by the majority of family members (Lyman et al., 1985), a family council plays an important role in giving advice or handling family disputes (Ward, 1997, p.139).

On the other hand, Miller et al., (2009) suggest that conflicts are more apt to occur among older family firms with ownership diffused across different branches of the family. However, they suggest that under these conditions, one would expect the relevance of the stewardship perspective to decline and that of the stagnation perspective to grow (Miller et al., 2014).

4.6. Family successors’ requirement profiles in the family business succession process

The intergenerational transfer does not just affect firm behaviour (Chrisman, Chua, Steier, Wright & McKee, 2012); it also affects firm performance (Bennedsen, Nielsen, Perez-Gonzalez & Wolfenzon, 2007; Halkias et al., 2011b; Breton-Miller et al., 2011). Family succession refers to situations where both the incumbent who relinquishes managerial control and the successor who takes it over are family members (De Massis et al., 2008). Although family business successesions are not rare events, in individual family businesses, the succession process occurs infrequently, perhaps once every 20 to 25 years (Schlepphorst & Moog, 2014). Incumbent tenure is simply the number of years that the incumbent has held the top job (Hutzschenreuter, Kleindienst & Greger, 2015).

The transfer of management decision authority within a family business is critical for the long-term viability of FOBs (Danes et al., 2005; Ward, 1997) and vital for the survival of the family (Stavrou, 1999). Successful family business management transfer
requires the senior generation to mentor, encourage, and support the upcoming generation as it takes control of the business and its operations (Haberman & Danes, 2007). On the other hand, the incumbent manager’s feelings of immortality, the lack, or abundance of appropriate successors, lack of trust in the next generation’s entrepreneurial competencies, and the manager’s fears of retirement are important factors explaining why some firms fail to think about succession (Pardo-del-Val, 2009, p.167).

For a successful succession, once the next generation enters the business, the successors should become increasingly familiar with the firm’s culture, values, mission, and philosophy (Mazzola et al., 2008). Among other factors like trust, confidence in management, and developing a learning network, shared vision among the family and business is the most powerful predictor of the success of family business succession (Boyatzis & Soler, 2012).

Mutual respect and understanding between the next-generation family members and the parents (or another family member as founder or owner) are critical to the quality of the family successor’s quality and succession experience (Handler, 1991, p.141). The most important issues at this stage are trust and communication among family members. For an effective succession, the next generation must develop an appropriate relationship between the family firm’s past and present (Miller et al., 2003), with the quality of the family relationship being a dominant predictor of successful transition (Breton-Miller et al., 2004). Morris et al. (1997) found harmonious family relationships to be a variable in successful FOB successions, and that the incumbent’s priorities should be building trust, encouraging communication, and fostering shared values among family members. Family leaders also agree that the best successor is someone who wants the job, and has the trust and the respect of family members and employees (Chrisman et al., 2009).

A number of characteristics enhance the effectiveness of any family business leader, regardless of gender or personality (Francis, 1999). Studies indicate that the successor
must develop various critical characteristics, including business and industry knowledge (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011; Francis, 1999), ability to gain respect of non-family employees (Sharma, 2004), decision-making and interpersonal networks (Chrisman et al., 1998; Duh, 2014), legitimacy and credibility with stakeholders (Sharma, 2004; Miller et al., 2003), and commitment (Sharma & Irving, 2005). Besides these characteristics, successors to family firms face unique job requirements that require specific skills to maximise their chances of leading business growth (Ward, 1997).

If the successor has proven skills, performance, and experience in leading the organisation, the succession is more likely to be successful (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Francis, 1999). Analysing this stage as the successor development process, Fiegener et al. (1994) argue that, in addition to education, training, and working experience, managers learn best from real task accomplishments, developing and learning through their interactions with superiors and subordinates.

Besides these characteristics, successors need a special set of skills to adopt particular strategies at appropriate times in the development of the business, the environment, and the organisation (Ward, 1997, p.206). Surprisingly, Gallo and Point (1994) find that the most successful international family firms are those whose successors have education and work experience outside their home country as well as outside their company. Chrisman et al. (1998) report that, among the other most important attributes, the key three are decision-making ability, experience, and superior interpersonal skills. De Massis et al. (2008), on the other hand, identified low ability, dissatisfaction, or lack of motivation and unexpected loss of a successor as factors preventing successful intra-family succession. The family business literature also stresses that succession is obstructed by poor interpersonal relationships among family members or between family and non-family members, sibling conflict, or competition between family members (De Massis et al., 2008; Churchill and Hatten, 1987; Wright and Kellermanns, 2011; Carr and Sequeira, 2007).
Competitive succession refers to the degree to which the successors must demonstrate their competence to earn employment and leadership in the family business; kinship alone does not guarantee the right to be employed or the privilege of leading the family business (Gupta and Levenburg, 2012). Family members, who often hold all the key leadership positions, frequently prevent non-family members taking key leadership positions (Lipman, 2010), making it unlikely for non-family members to gain leadership positions in FOBs (Ward, 1997). Thus, family descendants are usually the first option in a founder’s succession (Garcia-Alvarez et al., 2002). Family leaders agree that the best successor is someone who wants the job, and has the trust and the respect of family members and employees (Chrisman et al., 2009). Family firm founders exhibit stronger requirements for control, being less likely to delegate power, so family firms tend to be centralised and controlled by the founder’s beliefs (Ketz de Vries, 1996; Brice and Jones, 2008) The literature suggests that succession encompasses many activities.

These include training the successor from childhood onwards (Sharma et al., 2003), getting information about the family and business, becoming familiar with family culture (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011), and selecting and training the successor in appropriate skills and experience to lead the organisation into its next phase (Dyck et al., 2002). This chapter examines this crucial phase for FOBs of transferring management control from one family member to another.
4.7. Adopted Research Model

Figure 1 reshow; A multidimensional model of succession in family business. Source: Barbot, Bayad and Bourgiba (2004)

![Diagram of multidimensional model of succession in family business](image_url)

Current models of management succession focus on elements such as personal development of potential successors, decision-making processes by incumbents and governance bodies, inside-family succession characteristics, and interactions among actors (Royer et al., 2008; Boyd, Botero & Fediuk, 2014; Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Sharma et al., 2001). However, existing models do not account for the effect of national culture on the actors involved in the succession process.

Family business studies have pinpointed the importance of the family unit in different ways. The family and family culture are usually utilised to invoke positive associations of unity, integration, harmony, and loyalty (Karatas-Ozkan, 2011). Gupta et al. (2010) analyse family characteristics and work cultures of family businesses in Anglo, Germanic, and Nordic cultures. Their results indicate differing patterns in terms of
family involvement in family business and other key organisational dimensions. Malach-Pines, Lerner & Schwartz, (2010) focus specifically on culture and gender differences in family business, particularly on the extent that family businesses differ across cultures, the extent that women-owned family businesses differ from those owned by men, and on whether culture interacts with gender. Minkes and Foster (2011), examine the role of culture in the workings of firms, especially family firms, with particular reference to Hong Kong and China, and by extension to South East Asia. These studies reveal consistent cross-cultural differences between the owners of family businesses in the ten countries coupled with far smaller and less consistent differences between male and female-owned family businesses. Karataş-Özkan et al. (2011) examine the role of women in the context of Turkish family businesses, particularly the motivations, contributions and challenges facing Turkish women in family business settings. Based on in-depth interviews with female participants, they highlight the importance of rapidly changing cultural values and, therefore, changing views as to what roles women should hold in the public sphere in Turkey. However, none of these previous studies focused on the effects of family business culture on decision makers or on other factors influencing the decision-making FOB owner.

The majority of previous models of succession processes neglect culture and gender variables, tending to assume that the successor is male (Barbot et al., 2004) (Figure 2). Another important omission is that these models do not explicitly account for the dynamics resulting from strong cultural impacts on the actors involved (family, business, FOB owner) when potential female successors pursue the leadership position. It is important to consider how families and their businesses may react if several siblings express an interest in being named the successor, and pursue the position along the lines suggested in the literature. It is also necessary to consider whether culture determines preferences for female over male successors, and culture’s role in dealing with the internal and external dynamics, and the challenges of family businesses.
Family businesses are, by their nature, complicated by dynamics within the owning family, which affect business performance and business growth, change and transitioning over time (Olson et al., 2003). Barbot et al. (2004) propose a model that addresses the father-daughter management transition process by taking into account the impact of cultural variables. In order to address specific questions concerning father-daughter transfer, while considering the impact of cultural variables, Barbot et al. (2004) stress the character of the two types of transmission and the characteristics of key actors.

4.8. Adapted Research Theory

This study aims to examine the effect of FOB owners’ influence on family and enterprise on daughters’ succession process in Turkish FOBs, by categorising the family business culture, adapting Barbot et al.’s (2004) multidimensional model of succession and applying stewardship theory. These theories and frameworks emerged to explain the specific characteristics and behaviours of family businesses. As stated in 2.2.2., a comprehensive theory of the family firm is still lacking (Siebels & Knyphausen-AufseB, 2012), while the most important existing theoretical frameworks are the principal-agent theory, lifecycle approach, resource-based view and stewardship theory. Stewardship theory offers a contrasting perspective to agency theory (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004), which highlights the possibility of goal commitment between owners and managers (Davis et al., 1997).

One of the main arguments of stewardship theory is that the owning family has a crucial impact in shaping the ‘model of man’ prevailing within the organisation, whether the self-serving, economically rational man of agency theory, or stewardship theory’s self-actualising, collective-serving man (Vallejo-Martos & Puentes-Poyatos (2014). Additionally, as indicated by Davis et al. (2010), stewardship theory applies to the family business because the leadership of the family business can act independently of the family that owns the organisational wealth. The family firm is
conceptualised as a dual system with the properties of both a family and a business (Whiteside & Herz-Brown, 1991), so most models developed to explain family businesses suggest a dual rather than a single system (Staffor et al., 1999). For instance, Donaldson (1990) points out that agency theory is one-sided because it examines an individual’s moral and collective behaviour while ignoring worker loyalty, pride, and identification with the organisation’s mission and goals. Therefore, stewardship is considered as a capability of family businesses by the authors (Breton & Miller, 2015). Linking stewardship theory to family business, this study argues that stewardship FOB owners dominate the FOB culture and succession process by his/her stewardship culture.

Zahra et al. (2008, p.1051) suggest that family firms benefit from having a culture that values the involvement of the family members in its decision-making process and adopting a stewardship perspective in managing their operations. Eddleston (2008) extended Zahra et al.’s earlier study, claiming that some founders create firm cultures that become an important heritage of the family, embodying its traditions, beliefs, and values, and providing an enduring vision and sense of identity for the family firm. In addition, he argued that, as transformational leaders, FOB founders may be most capable of establishing cultures that reflect family commitment, stewardship, and strategic flexibility.

Stewardship theory appears to be a suitable perspective in viewing the family as a resource because it depicts organisational members as collectivist, pro-organisational and trustworthy (Davis et al., 1997).

When family members are stewards of their organisations, they are motivated to fulfil organisational goals and maximise firm performance (Davis et al., 1997). According to the stewardship perspective, firms must pursue long-term financial performance rather than short-term goals (Davis et al., 1997). From the stewardship perspective, the literature identified a series of aspects (such as concern for employee training, the design of broader jobs with more responsibility, and greater job flexibility) as elements
that create optimal group cohesion in which organisation members work together for a common objective (Miller et al., 2009).

Stewardship literature suggests moving from an agency relationship toward a stewardship relationship built on trust, alignment of goals, and organisational identification. Identification with an organisation and its values is strongly related to commitment in that individuals who consider themselves as belonging to an organisation are much more likely to form stewardship relationships than others that do not identify themselves with their organisation (Toivonen & Toivonen, 2014, p.1361), which is strongly related to succession as well. As Handler (1994) notes, the greater the commitment to family business perpetuation as a family value, the more likely it is that the individual will have a positive succession experience (except when the commitment is to business means rather than business ends). Vallejo (2009, p.384) also suggests that the identification level of non-family employees positively and significantly influences the profitability and the survival or continuity of family-owned businesses. Thus, stewardship theory holds that people with a high level of identification with the in which they work are more likely to behave as stewards in their relationship with the principal than people with a lower level of identification (Vallejo-Martos & Puentes-Poyatos, 2014, p.787).

According to stewardship theory, the conditions that are expected to be associated with family firms include high levels of identification. Research also show that members of family firms are more committed to their organisations than employees in non-family firms.

Likewise, Zahra et al. (2008) find that a culture of commitment to the business on the part of the family also contributes to a strong organisational identity. High levels of identification with the firm in the family will lead to high levels of identification among the employees.
However, nepotism and nonfamily employees’ exclusion from senior positions can restrict nonfamily employees’ ability to satisfy their need for enhancement, need for coherence (i.e. predictability, control, order, and structure), desire to achieve personal aspirations, and desire to be part of the family business group (Memili, Misra & Chrisman, 2012).

In this study, the succession process will be examined using stewardship theory under two dimensions: psychological and situational. The psychological factors are considered by Davis et al. (1997) are motivation, identification, and use of power, while the situational factors are management philosophy and organisational culture.

4.9. Research Model

In the transition of leadership from one family member to another, two family members should be involved in the family business: the owner and successor. Considering the significant impact of other family members on succession selection (Birley, 1986), the FOB owner, the FOB owner’s family, the successor and the business who share the same business culture, are all important actors in the succession process. Since the family business culture influences each individual’s ways of being, thinking, and doing, it can influence the role of each member of the family business (Barbot et al., 2004). Consequently, this study includes family business culture as a key factor affecting these four actors.

While there is a rich literature on the succession process in family firms, few studies have taken a gender approach, although an increasing number of businesses are launched, taken over, or managed by women, making an important contribution to economic development.

In order to address specific questions concerning father-daughter leadership transfer, while considering the impact of cultural variables, this study adopts Barbot et al.’s
(2004) multidimensional model of succession in family business. Although this research uses slightly different modelling assumptions than Barbot et al., (2004), many of the results are qualitatively similar. Using the model of a multidimensional model of succession in family businesses (Figure 2), this research identifies the key actors of the FOB environment at each stage of the succession process and analyses their interactions by using precepts from stewardship theory.

One key decision when considering succession planning is whether to choose a family member as a successor (Royer et al., 2008). The stewardship view sees pride as the main goal of the owners of the family business, which can result in either business success or failure (Poza, 2008). Davis (1997) introduced the concept of stewardship into organisational governance and management.

Davis et al. (1997) proposed a set of psychological and situational antecedents of stewardship behaviour. The psychological factors considered by Davis et al. (1997) are motivation, identification, and use of power, while the situational factors are management philosophy and organisational culture. Both the psychological and situational dimensions are highly interrelated and intangible, suggesting a composite operand resource (Dibrell & Moeller, 2011, p.45). According to FOB researchers (Hartel et al., 2009; Cruz et al., 2012; Chung & Chan, 2012; Barrett & Moores, 2009; Humphreys, 2013), FOB survivability depends upon the successful transfer of leadership as owners retire or decide to leave the business to their heirs or other candidates. A successful transfer of management requires the senior generation to mentor, encourage, and support the upcoming generation as it takes control of the business and its operations (Haberman & Danes, 2007). Regarding survivability, Beckhard & Dyer (1983) consider the business, the family, the founder, and the FOB's board of directors as an entity that works through its subsystems. Because each has its own identity and culture, they often have competing needs and values.
Thus, FOB leaders are forced to deal with this complex set of relationships to ensure the business survives. Family business ownership affects future generations in many ways aside from the issue of succession. According to stewardship theory, the time pressures and resource lacks (as well as financial rewards and autonomy) of family business ownership have powerful and lasting impacts on the social interactions and psychological development of the family in the family business (Carr & Sequeira, 2007; Dyer & Handler, 1994).

As Halkias et al. (2011a, p.5) report, family relationships vary across cultures, which in turn influences father-daughter succession across cultures. Similar to Davis et al. (2010), in this study, stewardship theory is used to explain the culture and relationships within family businesses. According to Chrisman et al. (2004), a stewardship relationship may exist, or even prevail, at least in some family firms while the impact of family structure and dynamics on the family firm is mediated by the “model of man,” provided it is widely shared (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004). Psychological and situational factors that differentiate between agency and stewardship theories define two different models of man. The owning family has a strong influence on virtually all psychological and situational antecedents of organisational behaviour (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004, p.357).

The decision to become the successor in the family business is a decision that involves both psychological and situational factors. The fundamental difference between agency and stewardship theories with respect to psychological factors lies in their conceptions of the model of man (Vallejo-Martos & Puentes-Poyatos, 2014). Psychological and situational factors that differentiate between agency and stewardship theories define two different models of man (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004, p.356). While the model of man stresses agency theory as a self-serving individual, it stresses stewardship theory as a steward. Therefore, stewardship is considered as more humanistic than agency theory.
Figure 1 Adapted by Ozlem Ozdemir (2017) from a multidimensional model of succession in family business (Barbot et al., 2004), PF: Psychological Factors, SF: Situational Factors.
4.9.1. The impact of Family business culture on FOB owners

Culture is a powerful force in regulating human behaviour (Nayeem, 2012). Taking into account the FOB context, culture influences individual ways of being, thinking, and doing, which can influence the role of each member of the family, as well as how the patrimony is passed on from one generation to another, the choice of the successor and the predecessor–successor relationship (Barbot et al., 2004). Family culture is also passed on from generation to generation through its members’ ways of thinking and behaviours (Dan et al., 2014). Family business founders play a significant role creating and developing an organisational culture (Aronof & Brun de Pontet, 2015). The family firm literature strongly suggests that family firm culture has a significant impact on performance (Brice & Jones, 2013; Eddleston et al, 2008; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Brice & Richardson, 2009), goals set (Sharma et al., 2014), strategy (Brice & Jones, 2008; Zahra et al., 2008), and competitiveness (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Vallejo-Martos, 2011; Zahra et al., 2008). The way the unique conditions of a family business culture affects daughter succession will be examined below.

Stewardship theory is used to explain the culture and relationships within family businesses (Davis et al., 2010, Corbetta & Salvato, 2004; Sharma & Irving, 2005). This theory especially ideal for explaining governance in the FOB context due to FOB owners’ strong ties to the reputation of the organisation, emotional investment, and his/her personal satisfaction (Davis et al., 2010; Corbetta & Salvato, 2004; Ward, 2011). FOB owners are in a stronger position than other organisational members to influence their organisation’s culture because their power stems from ownership as well as formal position (Efferin & Hartono, 2015). In the realm of stewardship, managers are more concerned about the well-being of the organisation and find their identity is tied to that of the organisation (Dibrell & Moeller, 2011).
According to stewardship theory, pride is the main goal of owners of family businesses, which can result in either business success or failure (Poza, 2008). FOB ownership gives the business some strategic and cultural advantages, such as taking a longer term perspective and enabling family pride to strengthen employee commitment (Ward & Aronoff, 1993) while encouraging family members to keep and control the values and beliefs that spread within the family member group (Zahra, 2012). Vallejo (2009) suggests that stewardship theory is a powerful and useful tool to theoretically argue and explain the differential aspects of the specific dynamics observed in family firms.

According to Sorenson et al (2013), the most commonly found culture in first-generation family firms is paternalistic, where power and decision-making are centred on the incumbent leader, while other family and non-family members involved in the business largely carry out the decisions of this leader. Collectivist values influence paternalistic-considerate leadership behaviours, meaning that the ‘we’ is important, with people belonging to in groups (families, clans or business organisations) who look after each other in exchange for loyalty, communication is indirect, the harmony of the group has to be maintained, open conflicts are avoided and feedback is always indirect (Hofstede, 1980, 2001). Paternalistic culture is typical in businesses managed by the founder, who assumes a parental role, not only by providing well-being to the family but also to employees considered and treated as part of an extended family (Casimiro and Chambel, 2014, p.44). Similarly, owners in collectivist societies are satisfied with their control over a firm when the top managers are also family members (Gomez-Mejia, Larraza-Kintana & Makri, 2003) as family ownership is more prominent in collectivist cultures (Charabarty, 2008). Additionally, collectivist societies tend to be more hierarchical so that leaders operating under such systems are expected to help and care for followers’ private lives (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003). In paternalistic culture, the founder prioritises direct and informal relations, going as far as to establish friendships with some employees, especially the older ones (Casimiro & Chambell, 2014). However, when it comes to selecting someone to occupy top positions in the business hierarchy, the founder gives preference to family members.
Similarly, Chakrabarty (2009) argues that family business owners in collectivist countries might prefer to have family managers in their firm because the family in collectivist societies allows efficient information flow and convergence of mutual interests among family members without the hassles of formal contracting.

On the other hand, the laissez-faire culture tends to emerge when the second generation takes over management. Yang (2015) found that, given paternalistic leadership and natural deference to authority in Asia, Asian subordinates may have higher expectations of their leaders to get involved than subordinates from other cultural backgrounds. In contrast, laissez-faire could be effective in Asian countries, due to the high power distance and a substituting of leadership with high collectivism (Yang et al., 2007; Yang, 2015). Dyer (1986) claims that the laissez-faire culture is more amenable to business growth and individual creativity than the paternalistic pattern is, since the family delegates a great deal of responsibility to employees. The major danger of the laissez-faire culture is that employees may not act consistently with the family’s basic values and assumptions. Moreover, according to Miller et al. (2003), when the second generation takes control, they may show effective leadership abilities or show extreme rejection of it. Casimiro and Chambel (2014) claim that the paternalistic styles of leadership tend to become more formal, objective, and professionalised, as the new generations tend to be more innovative in their management.

Dyer (1986) describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or, possibly, a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations. However, research shows that, in some cultures, many business founders with a low academic level may be very entrepreneurial or, after the start-up phase, centralise power for themselves while developing paternalistic relations with their employees (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014;
Marshall et al., 2006). Family values and beliefs influence the way things are done (Klein et al., 2005).

Thus, the organisational culture of the FOB with its values and beliefs shapes the character of the family firm and how it adapts to the external business environment (Zahra et al., 2004). According to Casimiro and Chambel (2014), other aspects, besides generation, may be associated with the development of cultural patterns that differ from the paternalistic culture in businesses managed by founders. The founder does not necessarily develop a paternalistic way of dealing with employees as this may depend on his age and academic level. Furthermore, their data suggests that the paternalistic pattern tends to prevail in businesses managed by the founder, especially the older ones (over 50 years of age) and of a low academic level.

Following this line of argument, this study offers the following proposition:

**Research proposition 1.** Family leaders may differ significantly in their personal characteristics and attitudes, such as age and educational level. Whether paternalistic or participative FOB cultures develop in first or later generations depend on the FOB owners’ personal characteristics.

**Research proposition 2:** First generation FOB owners more easily accept a daughter as a successor without considering gender as a determining factor since a laissez-faire culture is more amenable to entrepreneurship than the paternalistic pattern.

**Research proposition 3:** Paternalistic family business owners are less likely consider their daughters as a successor and more gender-centred than in laissez-faire cultures.
4.9.2. The interaction between FOB owner and family

The family shapes a family firm’s culture, with family members being encouraged to behave as either “the self-serving, economically rational man postulated by agency theory, or the self-actualizing, collective serving man suggested by stewardship theory (Corbetta and Salvato, 2004, p.357).

As stated earlier, in FOBs, culture influences each individual’s way of being, thinking, and doing, which can influence the role of each member of the family, how patrimony is passed on from one generation to another, the choice of the successor, and the predecessor–successor relationship (Barbot et al., 2004).

Although family culture has a great effect on the family business succession process, as noted by Miller (2014), national culture generates behavioural differences through family, training, education, traditions, lifestyles, politics, and religion. Accordingly, daughters’ participation in family businesses and their succession to family businesses are also affected by cultural factors (Daneshyar, 2011). Moreover, economic environment, family background, employment history, organisational experiences, social networks, national culture, and personality traits all affect the probability that someone will act entrepreneurially (Beugelsdijk, 2007).

Relationships in family businesses are dynamic and interdependent because what occurs in the family may affect the business and vice versa (Danes et al., 2005). According to Miller (2014), family orientation is the primary characteristic that distinguishes family businesses from other businesses. Another special aspect of the family firm is the unique involvement, influence, and interplay of the family within the business context (Sorenson et al., 2013; Meneses, Coutinho & Pinho, 2014). A common characteristic of leaders’ succession decisions in family businesses is that they tend to assign an offspring as their heir in a form of nepotism (Liu et al., 2015). As suggested by Cropanzano, Prehar and Chen (2002), family influence in family firms may lead to agency-based problems of nepotism, free riding, and adverse selection,
which are likely to have negative effects on the perceived distributive justice for non-family employees regarding compensation, promotion, performance appraisal, and job status. To reduce to such agency-based problems stemming from family involvement, Zahrani, Nikmaram & Latifi (2014) stress the importance of communication within the family. Their study shows that the intra-firm relations can either facilitate or hinder the succession process, depending on the family's commitment and the quality of family relations. It also highlights the importance of communication quality among the family firm's members.

Thus, for the family factor in family businesses to have positive effects, the dominant coalition in the family firm must effectively manage family involvement and interactions between the family unit and the business (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006).

The quality of the relationship between family members in general, whether they have a direct involvement in the business or not, is vital so improving these relationships may support successful succession planning more than any other action (Morris et al., 1997). In other words, the impact of family dynamics on business decision making is often most apparent at the time of a generational transition (LeCouvie & Pendergast, 2014). Regarding generational transitions, families tend to believe that family members should have employment opportunities regardless of the circumstances (Schuman et al., 2010). However, diverse ownership transfer perspectives within the family can have serious consequences (LeCouvie & Pendergast, 2014).

An increasing number of family businesses are facing succession-related concerns (Astrachan, 2003; Giambatista et al., 2005) so most research on work–family conflict has focused on identifying the antecedents and outcomes of this (Mortazavi, Pedhiwala, Shafiro & Hammer, 2009). The family prefers a member of the family’s next generation to take over while the business seeks someone with a specific set of qualifications (Schuman et al., 2010). According to Dyer and Handler (1994), the founder’s family members may not want to accept the founder’s mortality, seeing the founder as the only person able to manage family conflicts and keep the family together. Thus, they are reluctant to see the founder move out of a leadership role.
Additionally, the family may also be unwilling to upset the founder with discussions regarding retirement in case this makes them appear disloyal by suggesting retirement (Dyer & Handler, 1994).

The literature has identified a wide range of culture-based behaviours distinctive of family firms, which may provide some competitive advantage to the family firm (Chrisman, Chua & Steier, 2002; Antokolskaia, 2008; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Powell et al., 2009). Stavrou et al. (2005, p.192) assert that families may be patriarchal (matriarchal), collaborative, or conflicted.

In patriarchal cultures, one family member has the authority, makes decisions and defines family goals, which the other members follow. According to Pellegrini and Scandura (2008), paternalism is congruent with the values of collectivistic and high power distance cultures. Highly collectivist cultures show greater solidarity and cohesion among members of extended families or groups (Zhang, Lowry, Zhou & Fu, 2007), with people being tightly integrated and acting in unison to accomplish joint goals by emphasizing group over individual needs (Doney, Cannon & Mullen, 1998, Ashford et al., 2000). Those who grow up in collectivistic societies learn to intuitively think of themselves as part of a group focusing on ‘we’ whereas those who grow up in individualistic societies learn to think of themselves as an individual with a focus on ‘I’ (Hofstede, 2001, p.56). Sharma and Manikutty (2005) find the dimension of individualism-collectivism to be useful as this dimension relates closely to the integration of individuals into primary groups such as families. In collectivist societies, like paternalistic cultures, family executives that view themselves as interdependent with other executives, the owner and the family business itself are likely to form a group-level rather than individual-level identity. Thus, they would not feel individually accountable to the FOB’s principal owner (Guidice et al., 2013). Collectivistic cultures also integrate their work and home roles more than individualistic cultures (Guidice et al., 2013). In a similar vein, Fikret Pasa et al. (2001) point out that managers in paternalistic cultures do not only consider their employees’ work-life, but also take a personal interest in workers’ private lives and attempt to promote workers’ personal
welfare (Fikret Pasa et al., 2001). Unquestioning loyalty is expected and assumed in collectivistic cultures while individual excellence is nourished and celebrated in individualistic cultures (Sharma & Manikutty, 2005, p.297). Similarly, in paternalistic cultures, those in authority consider it their obligation to provide protection to those under their care; in return, they expect loyalty and deference (Jackson, 2016, p.4).

A defining characteristic of people in collectivist cultures is their notable concern with relationships (Triandis & Suh, 2002). During conflicts, for example, collectivists are primarily concerned with maintaining relationships with others (Triandis, 2000).

Collectivist families tended to have close family ties and vary from the extremely familistic, where themes of family ties pervade the family system, to those where high levels of commitment, contact, and interdependence are distributed unevenly across generations, but nonetheless predominate (Pyke & Bengtson, 1996). Overall, in conflict situations, collectivists give greater consideration to the in-group than do individualists (Cai & Fink, 2002).

Roles and patterns of behaviour within families are often gendered specific (Danes & Olson, 2003). As Otten-Pappas (2015) points out, the gender of the incumbent also seems to play an important role in succession. Various studies have found that successions involving an incumbent–successor pair of the same gender are different from those where the two are of different genders (Davis & Harveston, 1998; Harveston et al., 1997; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007). A father’s expectations of the career choices for his children often follow traditional gender lines: the male pursuing a serious business career and the female raising a family (Mischel et al., 2011, p.422). Thus, although sons and daughters may be equally well educated in the fields of management and business, fathers are deeply concerned about the capabilities of daughters in effectively managing the demanding tasks associated with the company (Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007; Lubatkin et al., 2007). Fathers also wish to ‘protect’ their daughters from the harsh world of business management (Lingas, 2013). As Overbeke et al. (2015) show, fathers’ perceptions of daughters’ expressive characteristics disqualify daughters as successors. Furthermore, fathers who are blind
to discriminatory environments do not realise if their daughters have a vision of taking over, which is an antecedent to succession (Overbeke et al., 2015).

In both high power distance and collectivist cultures, business is considered a family property to remain in their possession. Resistance to succession from incumbents is low because, even when children assume business leadership, they are expected to consult with their father and show him respect (Yan & Sorenson, 2006, p.242).

In cultures high in power distance and in-group collectivism, family systems tend to follow traditional ideologies, keep few boundaries between the family and the business resources, are concerned with the family's face, and attend to family bonds (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012, p.67). Traditional societies, where power distance and in-group collectivism tends to be higher, also tend to assign more traditional roles to women (House et al., 2002).

This discussion leads to the following research proposition:

**Research proposition 4:** Families in high power distance and collectivist cultures, due to their paternalistic pattern, will follow traditional roles and accept FOB owners’ decisions more easily without involving themselves in the owners’ decisions. Paternalistic FOB owners do not tend to let family members influence their decisions.

The interaction between the FOB owner and the FOB A family business is a company where the voting majority is in the hands of the controlling family, including the founder(s), intending to pass on the business on to family descendants (Ezziane et al., 2013, p.164). The founder/owner leads the family to maintain and control values, beliefs, and ownership within the family members (Zahra, 2012). In many FOBs, the founders try to ensure their legacy of family control continues through intergenerational succession when they hand over leadership to their children (Miller et al., 2003). Family owners and other family members usually occupy key decision-making positions in the core company or the affiliate firms to control the total business
group (Luo & Chung, 2005). Family businesses share common characteristics and face
common problems, among which generation change is recognised to be the most
relevant (Bigliardi & Dormio, 2009). Turning the business over to the children without
creating chaos depends on how well the owners prepare themselves, their children
and the enterprise for this transition (Johnson, 2010; Barnett & Kellermans, 2006).
According to Astrachan and Jaskiewicz (2008), the managerial competence of the
successor is a key factor in planning and successfully completing the transfer, together
with the integrity, trust, and the respect of stakeholders.

Some family businesses suffer from a lack of human resources because parents tend
to offer investment opportunities to their children (Lubatkin et al. 2007), even if they
have insufficient skills for international entrepreneurship, and even though hiring the
right person is one of the most important functions of human resource management
(Busser, 1996; David, 1999; Martin 1993). However, in terms of ownership and
management, there is significant evidence that family businesses are quite reluctant
to accept non-family ownership (Vadnjal & Zupan, 2011). In minority-owned family
firms, however, the preference for hiring family members may be culturally rooted
rather than based on business needs alone (Shinnar et al., 2013). Additionally, Brice
and Jones (2008) argue that mistrust and the need for control are two common
characteristics of family firm founders. They do not like to delegate power so their
firms are usually centralised and controlled by the founder’s beliefs.

To ensure that succession is indeed competitive and merit-based, family members are
hired to existing, open leadership positions that match their backgrounds. As the
incumbent selects a successor, other siblings or non-family members may contest that
selection, claiming favouritism or adverse changes in business direction (Gupta &
Levenburg, 2012, p.62). Entering the family business as an employee to gain
experience seems natural to all members of the family, with parents giving important
practical and psychological support (Constandinidis & Nelson, 2009, p.47). Nepotism
can be a serious problem in FOBs when favouritism is shown to nephews and other relatives by giving them positions because of their relationship rather than their competencies (Royer et al., 2008). Nepotism is defined as an individual’s attainment of recruitment, promotion, provision of more favourable working conditions or similar advantages irrespective of their knowledge, abilities, skills, educational level, and experience, but owing to their kinship ties (Liu et al., 2015). In some cultures, the succession process is driven by the principle of nepotism and family harmony rather than competition (Bedi, 1996). This is based on the view that the business is family property and will remain in the family (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012).

However, although all employees in both family and non-family firms may form perceptions about the fairness of the treatment that they experience within their organisations, family involvement and influence in family firms can have unique effects on the fairness of these firms’ human resource (HR) practices as they relate to non-family employees (Barnett & Kellermanns, 2006, p.838). Frequently, a non-family member employee may feel threatened by the owner’s offspring (Dumas, 1998).

Stewardship theory is generally used as an alternative to agency theory to explain the relationship between owners and managers (Davis et al., 1997, Vallejo, 2008). According to Zahra (2003), altruism is also a key component of the stewardship perspective, where FOB owners attempt to satisfy both their own needs and the objectives of others (e.g. the family and firm). In particular, according to the stewardship theory of the family firm (Corbetta & Salvato, 2004), altruism may explain why some family firms members are able to successfully work together by fostering mutually trusting relationships, involvement-oriented environments, and empowering organisational structures that increase effective organisational behaviours and firm performance (Davis et al., 1997; Corbetta & Salvato, 2004). In this theory, altruism is a family-based resource that encourages family members to place the firm’s objectives ahead of their own (Zahra, 2003).

Dyer (1986) identifies family business culture dimensions as paternalistic, laissez-faire, participative and professional. According to him, 80% of first-generation family
businesses seem to have paternalistic FOB cultures, especially in non-western societies. As explained in the previous chapters, in paternalistic cultures, decision-making is centralised, which can leave many ‘family’ and ‘non-family’ members with minimum or no role in the process (Kelly et al., 2000). On the other hand, in laissez-faire family firm cultures, the family delegates a great deal of responsibility to employees. In participative and/or professional cultures, the family firms encourage all firm members’ opinions, which elevates their perceptions of worth and importance, and fosters a positive communication climate to increase trust and involvement, which is consistent with stewardship behaviours (Eddleston and Kellermanns, 2007; Smidts et al., 2001; Sorenson et al., 2013).

In sum, the degree of employees’ organisational identification and attachment may vary in different types of family business cultures (Memili and Welsh, 2012).

This discussion leads to the following research propositions:

Research proposition 5: Family member employees have more job satisfaction than non-family member employees; family member employees feel their managers have more impact on them than non-family member employees in paternalistic family business culture.

Research proposition 6: A laissez-faire family business culture will be positively associated with employees’ collectivist behaviour, although they are less steward than paternalistic employees and feel less impact from their managers than paternalistic culture employees.
4.9.3. Family influence on daughters as FOB successors

As indicated above, various studies (Poutziouris et al., 2015; Vallejo, 2009) suggest that owners and family employees in family businesses share a certain vision, value, and beliefs, and have high levels of loyalty, commitment, trust, and communication-based on their long-term family relationships. However, while family commitment and loyalty are important elements of sustainability, Gherardi and Perrotta (2016) assert that family dynamics may have impairing effect as a firm grows older and ownership disperses, maintaining control over the business becomes increasingly difficult.

The motivation of the steward in a stewardship relationship is based on internal factors such as growth opportunities, achievement, affiliation, recognition, responsibility, and self-realisation, rather than external factors, as occurs in agency relationships (Vallejo-Martos and Puentes-Poyatos, 2014). Whereas agency theory relies on extrinsic rewards as sources of motivation, stewardship theory relies on intrinsic sources of motivation, such as self-actualisation and professional growth (Toivonen and Toivonen, 2014; Davis et al., 1997).

According to stewardship theory, the motivation for family members to act as stewards can be considered an important factor for the succession process. An FOB’s most important asset is the commitment of its members, owners, family members, and family employees, with research suggesting that the commitment of family members is a particularly important competitive advantage for the majority of such businesses (Keles et al., 2011; Humphreys, 2013; Otten-Pappas, 2013; 2015).

According to Otten-Pappas (2015, p.88), the pull of the family business can be experienced by children early in their development, which they term early commitment. The present study also found evidence of this early commitment in family decisions concerning the daughter’s education or work experience, and her own desire to choose her life path.

The family is one of the most important groups forming individuals’ attitudes toward entrepreneurship, developing their capabilities to step into new ventures, applying
creativity in developing new business ideas, and making them more likely to choose entrepreneurship as their future career path (Boz and Ergeneli, 2013; Gupta, 2009). Studies of the entrepreneurial personality indicate that the entrepreneur’s family plays an important role in the development of certain entrepreneurial personality characteristics (Dyer & Handler, 1994; Ward, 1997; Biblarz & Raftery, 1999; Boz & Ergeneli, 2013; Sciascia, Mazzola, Astrachan & Pieper, 2012; Zahra, 2012; Vera & Dean, 2005; Stamm & Lubinski, 2011). Dyer and Handler (1994) found that the family can also support the entrepreneur by providing money, contacts, labour, and other resources. Given the family’s importance to developing an entrepreneurial personality, Stamm and Lubinski (2011) highlight the role of family occupation and education. They argue that an entrepreneurial family plays a major role in understanding succession processes in multi-generational family businesses, which can be understood as a means to keep the entrepreneurial spirit alive. Stamm and Lubinski (2011) also highlight the links between individual lifestyles, family, and regional embeddedness, and new business creation or business continuity. However, they add that the family can also hinder starting a new business by providing insufficient material resources and little or no social support.

This discussion leads to the following research proposition:

**Research proposition 7:** Daughters in paternalistic family businesses are less likely show motivation to be a successor and less likely show early commitment.

**Research proposition 8:** Daughters in laissez-faire family business cultures are more encouraged by their families to gain outside experience due to their entrepreneurial and educational background.
4.9.4. Family business culture, employee perceptions and accepting a daughter as a successor

Kim (2003) claim that one of the key components of succession planning management is assessment - of both the organisation and its employees. Therefore, employee assessment should be considered as a significant factor for smooth succession by FOB owners. Kim (2003) believes that employee assessments that focus on employee values and opinions are an important information source for helping organisations to make significant adjustments (Kim, 2003, p.533) like succession. Similarly, Patricia de Sá Freire, Soares, Nakayama & Spanhol (2010) examined the perceptions of the employees of one FOB regarding changes brought about by the company’s succession process. They found that, in order to achieve the objectives of the changes, required a new look at intra-organisational integration to eliminate harmful features of the FOB, such as lack of dialogue and unilateral decisions. They also suggest the use of strategies for sharing information and knowledge to pave the way for understanding the entire succession process, overcoming uncertainties and individual resistance. Cabrera-Suarez (2005) also discuss this issue, suggesting that poor relations between the successor and the family firm's non-family team can hamper if not prevent successful intra-family succession.

In the context of understanding gender differences, it is pertinent to consider also the cultural characteristic of gender egalitarianism – the extent to which a society minimises gender-role inequality and discrimination, and determines men’s and women’s roles in their homes, organisations and communities (House et al., 2002). Gender-centred leadership refers to the degree to which women family members have access to important strategic positions in the family business. Under conditions of gender-centred leadership, women are seen as a strategic asset (Gupta and Levenburg, 2012, p.65). Gupta and Levenburg (2012) also argue that, in high power distance cultures, a family business should have less gender-centred leadership (Gupta and Levenburg, 2012). However, power distance is lower in groups with higher education, class and occupational status (Hofstede, 1991) so professionally trained
managers may have lower scores in this dimension (Brice & Jones, 2008) like family members. In societies where power is distributed equally and the sense of belonging and obligation to one’s family or in-group is weak, the spirit of professionalism tends to be stronger, greater controls exist over family control of business, and succession processes follow competitive norms (Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). On the employees’ side, higher power distance employees prefer directive leaders and do not enjoy the same levels of favourable outcomes (e.g. job satisfaction) as those lower on power distance when their leaders break from simple, hierarchical leadership styles to which people high on power distance are accustomed (Daniels & Greguras, 2014, p.1216). Traditional societies, where power distance and in-group collectivism tend to be higher, also tend to assign more traditional roles to women. As it was pointed out by Barry (2001) lower power distance cultures are more egalitarian and place less emphasis on status.

To sum up, the literature shows that organisation in low power distance and less collectivist societies are more gender egalitarian than high power distance societies. This discussion regarding the perceptions of employees in the succession process leads to the following propositions:

**Research proposition 9:** in paternalistic cultures, employees feel less gender egalitarianism than laissez-faire culture employees.
4.10. Conclusion

The family business literature stresses that large numbers of family businesses fail following intergenerational leadership transfer (Breton-Miller et al., 2004; Otten-Pappas, 2015; De Mais et al., 2008; Handler, 1994; Duh, 2014; Miller et al., 2013). Family businesses exemplify organisations that are likely to have a dominant group whose members occupy diverse positions in the organisation (Arregle et al., 2007; Ruggieri et al., 2014; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). In attempts to understand this dominant family group’s involvement, scholars have drawn on a range of theories, such as agency theory (Schulze et al., 2001; 2002; 2003; Greenwood, 2003), stewardship theory (Davis et al., 2010; Corbatta & Salvato; 2003; Sharma & Irving, 2005; Eddleston & Kellermanns, 2007; Miller et al., 2009), and the resource-based view of the firm (Habberson & Williams 2009). In the present study, stewardship theory is used for explaining culture and relationships within FOBs, which has also been cited the most suitable perspective for FOB analysis (Eddleston & Kellermans, 2007; Sharma & Irving, 2005; Miller et al., 2009). However, this is not the only reason for adopting stewardship theory for this study. As explained in this chapter, the stewardship literature suggests moving from an agency relationship toward a stewardship relationship built on trust, alignment of goals, and organisational identification. The main arguments of stewardship theory are that the owning family has a crucial impact in shaping the ‘model of man’ prevailing within the organisation, and whereas agency theory relies on extrinsic rewards as sources of motivation, stewardship theory relies on intrinsic sources of motivation. Additionally, according to stewardship theory, the motivation for family members to act as stewards can be considered an important factor in the succession process.

The conceptual model for this study used to investigate daughter succession in Turkish FOBs is shown in Figure 2 above. This conceptual model allows us to understand the dynamics in daughter succession, including implicit and explicit factors such as gendered cognitions, and contextual factors such as family culture, using precepts from stewardship theory.
Stewardship theory’s psychological and situational factors were examined within this model in order to able to examine the dynamics and consequences of the succession process. The research model, which provides a foundation for developing a methodology for the case studies, was first presented in a landmark cross-national study conducted by Barbot et al. (2004), exploring the influence of culture on father–daughter succession in different cultures in order to investigate the specificity of father–daughter transfer while considering the impact of cultural variables. The model’s propositions highlight that, beyond gender diversity (female/male), stages in the succession process may vary for female successors due to cultural factors.

Dyer (1986) describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture, or possibly a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations. In the present study, the FOB succession process is examined using family business cultural patterns, which are closely linked to the national culture. However, one of the research goals is to show that Dyer’s temporal sequence does not match with every family business or all countries, as will be examined in the results chapter.
CHAPTER 5. RESEARCH PROCESS

5.1. Introduction

The previous chapter set out the conceptual framework, reviewed FOB succession processes and the interaction between this and selecting a daughter as a successor, as well as the effects of family culture on FOB members (owner, employees, and board members) in terms of selecting a daughter as a successor. The chapter also examined major family business models and theories.

This chapter reviews and justifies the research philosophy and data collection methods underlying this study of the FOB succession process, which seeks to understand how family business culture affects FOB members in selecting a daughter as a successor. The proposed approach addresses the specific features of father-daughter transfer while considering the impact of cultural variables to provide information to scholars and family business owners, employees, and successor daughters about how FOBs and family business culture are associated in successor selection in Turkey.

Succession refers to situations where both the incumbent, who holds the top management position in the family business and who must relinquish that position before another family member can take over, and the successor, who will take it over, are family members (i.e., related by blood or by law) (De Massis et al., 2008). To achieve this, it is necessary to understand how culture influences an individual’s ways of being, thinking, and doing, and can influence the role of each member of the family, as well as how patrimony is passed on from one generation to another, the choice of the successor, and the predecessor–successor relationship (Barbot et al., 2004). The methodological approach of this study is qualitative; using both interviews and document analysis.
The qualitative methodology aims to identify and understand family culture effects in the succession process without any objective of statistical generalisation or comparison. The aim therefore to understand the succession processes and to study the impact of culture on the succession process. The method used in this study allows for analysis of the actions, reactions and feelings of individuals as well as their perceptions and representations, with special attention to the cultural context and succession processes. This chapter explains and justifies this research strategy based upon the use of questionnaires followed by semi-structured interviews. This justification also includes an account of the ethical considerations of this study.

5.2. Research Philosophy and Philosophical Justification

According to Saunders, Lewis and Thornhill (2012, p.158), the research philosophy of any study carries important assumptions about the way the researcher views the world, and these assumptions underpin the research strategy and the methods the researcher chooses as part of that strategy.

A discussion of philosophy essentially involves deliberations around ontology and epistemology (Singh, 2015; Saunders et al., 2012, 2013; Corbetta, 2003), although Saunders et al. (2012) also include axiology as another major way of thinking about research philosophy. Ontology is concerned with reality, particularly the nature and form of social reality (Saunders et al., 2012; Corbetta, 2003), with objectivism and subjectivism being two contrasting approaches to this (Saunders et al., 2012). While objectivism sets out to establish objective regularities (structures, laws, systems of relationships, etc.) independent of individual consciousness (Hamati-Ataya, 2013; 2014), subjectivism develops its own research procedures, its own observation techniques and its own ways of analysing empirical reality, which form the body of qualitative research (Corbetta, 2003).
According to Goodwin and Darley (2008), if an individual takes a particular ethical claim to be true, and regards situations of ethical disagreement as necessarily implying that at least one party is mistaken, then they are an objectivist (with respect to that statement), whereas if they instead allow that neither party need be mistaken, then they are a subjectivist (Goodwin & Darley, 2008).

Epistemology is the theory of knowledge and investigation of what distinguishes defensible belief from opinion (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). In other words, epistemology, concerned with the reliability of our senses and the power of our mind, deals with how we know things and what we can regard as acceptable knowledge in a discipline (Quinlan, 2011, p.99).

Positivism, social constructionism and Interpretivism are accepted as three main epistemological positions (Saunders et al., 2012; Corbetta, 2003; Goodwin & Darley, 2008; Quinlan and Zikmund, 2015). Positivism holds that there is an objective singular reality, separate from consciousness (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). Social constructionism, along with social constructivism, holds that social phenomena develop in social contexts in which individuals and groups create their own realities (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). Constructivism also suggests that each individual constructs his or her own reality or perception (Byrne, 2001). The conceptual model diagram presented earlier (Figure 2) shows various features related to this point. One of the main reasons for choosing this daughters’ succession process as a research issue is that in FOBs, successor selection is very much biased by gender, with daughters being usually excluded as candidates (Wang, 2010). Therefore, an interpretivist and social constructivist philosophies are used to assess FOB members’ own perceptions that they construct, in order to able to examine daughter succession process.
From an interpretivist perspective, the social world of management and business is too complex to be formulated in natural science theories and laws (Walliman, 2011). Interpretivism also argues that there are many truths and meanings of a simple fact, with several factors affecting the nature of individuals, such as differences in individual living standards, social and cultural environment, or personality and family groups (Saunders et al., 2012; Johnson & Christensen, 2014). As mentioned in chapters 2 and 4, the literature suggests that succession encompasses many activities. These include training the successor from childhood onwards (Sharma et al., 2003), getting information about the family and business, becoming familiar with family culture (Cabrera-Suarez et al., 2011), and selecting and training the successor in appropriate skills and experience to lead the organisation into its next phase (Dyck et al., 2002).

Social constructivism and interpretive research must begin with the assumption that access to reality passes through social constructions such as language and shared meanings (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003, p.140). Both perspectives hold that reality is unique to each individual and to the manner in which each individual, given their own unique set of circumstances and life experiences, constructs, experiences, and/or interprets their world (Quinlan, 2011, p.13).

The popular notion is that an irreconcilable divide exists between positivism and interpretivism (Saunders et al., 2013, p.12). Indeed, these two organic and strongly opposed visions of social reality have generated two coherent and highly differentiated sets of research techniques (Corbetta, 2003). Positivism claims that science provides the clearest possible ideal of knowledge (Cohen, Manion, Morrison & Bell, 2011, p.7). Technology-driven researchers tend to favour a positivist research philosophy relying on experimentation as its research method. Model-driven researchers, however, are more likely to be philosophical interpretivists and methodological action researchers (Saunders et al., 2013). In order to answer epistemological questions, the researcher must explain and justify the methodology and methods used in the research project (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015) regarding the
five basic elements of research; Methodology, epistemology, ontology, theoretical perspective and data gathering methods.

An interpretivist epistemology focuses upon the details of the situation, the reality behind these details, and subjective meanings and motivating actions (Sekaran, 2003). It assumes that the act of understanding is always an act of interpretation (Carr, 2006) that provides the framework to interpret, in this study, the perceptions of individual FOB members. These perceptions are determined by their particular national cultural context within which the research findings are produced.

Interpretation is fundamental in the search for knowledge, whether scientific or social (Kakabadse & Steane, 2010), with knowledge being created within the research project through the researcher’s exploration of the phenomenon under investigation by means of methodology (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). Interpretivists argue that we cannot understand why or what people do, or how particular institutions exist and operate in characteristic ways, without grasping how people interpret and make sense of their world and act on their interpretations. In other words, we need to understand the distinctive cultural character of people’s beliefs, attitudes and practices, how these have developed over time, and/or how they continuously generate the social world (Hammersley, 2012. p.26). Interpretivist epistemology requires the researcher to immerse herself in every part of the project as a core element of its research design (Carson et al., 2001). In this study, the researcher was immersed at every stage of data collection methods, specifically surveys and interviews.

This research adopts a qualitative approach since this approach is generally most suited to gaining an in-depth understanding of a phenomenon or situation under study (Huff & Smith, 2008). Qualitative research methods should be congruent with epistemology (Byrne, 2001). Qualitative research is more likely to take the actor or subject’s viewpoint, thereby revealing important issues and topics that might otherwise be omitted by relying on the researcher as the determinant of what is
relevant (Bryman, 2004; Byrne, 2001; Singh, 2015). Therefore, the three decisions to select, integrate, and operationalise are considered relevant to all the three core issues but are more prominent regarding philosophy, methodology, and methods respectively (Singh, 2015) (Figure 3.).

According to Ng and Coakes (2013), the epistemological basis of constructivism is interpretivism. Social constructivists believe that social reality is constructed through the activities of social actors (Bryman, 2004). Thus, the Turkish FOBs daughters’ succession process is constructed by FOB members and their activities based on their cultural assumptions. Interpretivist and the constructivists both hold that reality is unique to each individual, given his/her own unique set of circumstances and life experiences, constructs, experiences, and interpretation of the world (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015, p.26). By extension, social construction in working organisations involves a constant process of interpretation and reinterpretation: for example, an organisation’s culture as it seeks to compete by drawing on its market reputation to win over more customers, or the attractiveness of internal HRM practices that reward effort instead of merely focusing on success and failure (Ng & Coakes, 2013, p.32).

Interpretivism advocates that it is necessary for the researcher to understand differences between humans in our roles as social actors by emphasising the differences between conducting research with people rather than objects (Saunders et al., 2012, p.106). A qualitative approach is also known as exploratory research, inductive (Saunders et al., 2012; Engel & Schutt, 2005), or formulative (Bryman, 2004).

Cohen et al. (2011) identify five traditions within qualitative methods, namely biography, case study, phenomenology, ethnography, and grounded theory. Of these, phenomenology is most appropriate to the present study. The phenomenological research attempts to understand participants’ interpretations of reality, which are influenced by their values and their ways of seeing the world, as well as by other people’s interpretations and the compromises and agreements that arise out of the
negotiations between them (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). In fact, interpretivism itself is derived from two intellectual traditions: phenomenology and symbolic interactionism (Saunders et al., 2012).

Social research using interviews, participant observation, oral histories, historical data, etc... in order to study people’s experiences and the meanings they make of social phenomena and social experiences are referred to as qualitative research (Quinlan, 2011). Taking a social constructivist approach, the current study also focuses on the actors’ viewpoints about the meanings of the succession processes occurring around them. It aims to understand the experiences, shared meanings, opinions, and relationships between FOB members and the definitions they construct.

Following an interpretivist philosophy as part of the social constructivist perspective, this action research data is collected either in collaboration with the research participants, namely the FOB employees, owners and daughters, or by the participants themselves in order to understand the cultural context and to bring about direct and immediate practical change in the context of the research (Andrews, 2012). From an interpretivist point of view, what distinguishes selecting daughters as successors is inherently meaningful (Schwandt, 2007) in order to understand how it is negotiated and understood by those directly affected (Grant, 1996). The knowledge acquired in this discipline is socially constructed rather than objectively determined (Carson et al., 2001. p.5). As a theoretical and philosophical position, the constructionist theory assumes that all knowledge and claims of certainty are culturally, politically, and historically saturated (Korobov, 2000).

This study used interviews with FOB owners and daughters, and surveys of FOB employees in order to obtain information on their perspectives about selecting daughters as FOB successors. These insights are gained through their experiences, which are constituted and sustained through the process of interpretation and social
interaction in which they engage (Hammersley, 2012). Thus, the goal of this interpretivist research is to understand and interpret the effect of national culture on FOB members’ behaviour and decisions rather than to generalise and predict causes and effects (Neuman, 2000; Guthrie, 2010).

Interpretivists and social constructionists hold that reality is unique to each individual and to the manner in which each individual, given their own unique set of circumstances and life experiences, constructs, experiences, and/or interprets their world (Quinlan, 2011, p.105). This study adopts an investigative approach that emphasises careful and systematic study by professionals interested in FOB succession and FOB members’ reflections related to it (Lapan, Quartaroli & Riemer, 2011). This study reveals a diversity of cultural assumptions and associated beliefs about the succession process at different points and coexisting at any one time across within the same society (Hammersley, 2013). Moreover, this diversity is analysed with concrete details, including the researcher’s own feelings, doubts, credibility, and vulnerability related to succession processes, guided by an ethical self-consciousness (Brinkmann, 2012).

In summary, the adoption for this study of an epistemological interpretivist philosophy within a social constructivist perspective is justified.

5.3. Research Approach

The goal of this study is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of selecting a daughter as a FOB successor (Creswell, Hanson, Clark Plano & Morales, 2007). A qualitative approach associated with the social constructivist paradigm is used in order to uncover the deeper meanings and significance of FOB members’ behaviours and experience, including contradictory beliefs, behaviours, and emotions related to the succession process (Costley, Elliott & Gibbs, 2010). In the nature of social constructionism, this research involves understanding concepts from the
unique perspective of each member as meanings arise from the interactions and language used by members of a FOB (Guthrie, 2010). Indeed, constructionists often question whether understanding other people and perhaps even oneself is ever possible (Hammersley, 2013).

The methodology and data collection methods of this research project depend on the kind of knowledge needed in order to respond to the research question. This study was undertaken to contribute to knowledge related to culture and FOB succession. It is fundamentally concerned with questions of epistemology (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015) about the nature of succession and with how culture affects this process.

The qualitative researcher needs to clearly address issues of philosophy (their ontological and epistemological stance), methodology (following clear steps) and methods (tools used for data collection, collation and analysis). These three aspects also need to be internally consistent in terms of their underlying assumptions and orientations (Singh, 2015). As a qualitative study, this research relies upon collecting and analysing data in stages, and gradually developing a theory inductively, based on, or ‘grounded’, in the data (Oliver, 2004). The interview questions were used to better understand of research participants’ perspectives toward their relationship with their father/daughter and were focused on their thinking towards gendered norms, cultural influences and succession process. The personal viewpoint of daughters has also been examined, including the perspective of her own ideas in assuming a future leadership role. Similarly, the interview questions of FOB owners are focused on topics such as FOB culture, succession process and their gendered norms. In grounding and developing a theory, interviews can be the most powerful tool for gaining insights because FOB owners and daughters can recount their experiences and reactions in ways that they would be unlikely to do using questionnaires or other data collection tools (Lapan et al., 2011). An interview allows a natural conversation to be recorded in full (or nearly so) for later analysis (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). Unstructured interviewing, in which the researcher provides minimal guidance and allows considerable latitude for interviewees, is one of the favoured techniques for social research (Bryman & Bell, 2015).
Qualitative studies do not represent a uniform perspective; rather, depending on assumptions regarding ontology and epistemology, different qualitative techniques and approaches are applicable (Neergaard, 2007). Family business researchers often conduct qualitative research (Sharma et al., 2014), as does this study, to evaluate the succession process in Turkish FOBs by examining the effect of national culture on FOB owners, FOB employees, and other family members, and their effects on the daughter as a successor. Qualitative research is interpretive so researchers are concerned primarily with reaching understanding about how meaning is constructed and reconstructed through communication relationships, which they study in their ‘natural’ or ‘local’ setting (Daymon & Holloway, 2010; Shaw & Gould, 2001). Accordingly, this study is also concerned with questions related to the succession process occurring in natural settings (Daymon & Holloway, 2010).

5.3.1. Overview

This is an exploratory study for gaining the relevant features and factors that applied to the chosen topic. The purpose of this exploratory study is to ascertain the impact of FOB members and cultural factors on succession processes and investigate the influence of the family business culture and FOB members on the FOB owner’s decision to select a daughter as a successor. The research is grounded in the multidimensional model of succession process in family business theory, which has been expanded to include interactive and collaborative action and the influence of national culture and the social environment of Turkish FOBs.

The study primarily follows a qualitative research strategy and design, namely an approach to studying the social world which seeks to describe and analyse the culture and behaviour of humans and their groups from the point of view of those being studied (Bryman & Bell, 2015). Acquiring knowledge of people’s meanings (i.e. their
understandings of ‘something as something’) plays a central role when the researcher aims to explain human action and interaction (Lukka, 2014) like this study.

In order to able to capturing the rich and depth perceptions and feelings of key stakeholders of FOB, deepen the understand of research participants, a qualitative method is chosen by the researcher. All the nuances of participants’ perceptions and meanings are interpreted as fully and accurately as at this research. More specifically, a phenomenological approach is used in data collection and data analysis throughout the research process. The epistemological foundation of this view is that knowledge comes from human experience; thus researchers in this field require direct, experiential contact with the phenomenon under investigation (Corbetta, 2003). Therefore, the rich data related to FOB succession processes, interviews and semi-structured interviews come from the direct, experiential contacts under investigation.

Semi-structured interviews are probably the most widespread knowledge-gathering method in the human and social sciences (Brinkman, 2012) for interpreting the meaning of the described phenomena. Therefore semi-structured interviews and surveys were chosen as the most appropriate data-collection method in this study. After the sources of data were identified and the data collection method designed for use, the researcher asked permission to access the interviewees. The process of entering the field is very delicate and must be properly managed (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). Since the data was gathered from business organisations (FOB), formal letters were sent in order to get their permission. Corbetta (2003) states that, when conducting a semi-structured interview, the interviewer refers to an outline of the topics to be covered during the course of the conversation. In order to collect data concerning different aspects of the succession process, issues were collected under various topics: organisational history, organisational culture, family influence, and relationship with father/daughter. In order to obtain the interviewee’s full cooperation, it is necessary to establish a relationship of trust. Questionnaires were
used as another data-gathering method along with two different sets of semi-structured interviews. Questionnaires were used in drop-and-coll... after the respondent had completed them (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015).

5.3.2. Selected Paradigm and Methodological Justification

Generally, there are various procedures for collecting data. The main instruments used in the mixed method research consist of closed-ended, open-ended questionnaires, interviews, and classroom observations (Zohrabi, 2013). This study collected data from family businesses through semi-structured interviews with each company’s owner and daughter. While structured interviews have a formalised set of questions, semi-structured interviews are flexible, allowing the interviewer to raise new questions during the interview according to the interviewee’s responses (Shaw & Gould, 2001). As defined by Kvale and Brinkman (2009), a semi-structured qualitative research interview aims at obtaining descriptions of the life world of the interviewee in order to interpret the meaning of the described phenomena. In this study, semi-structured qualitative research interviews were used to obtain the FOB owner’s opinions about selecting his daughter as a successor in order to interpret the national cultural effect on FOB succession. In general, a frequent form of participant engagement in the semi-structured interview is intended to achieve clarification and understanding, and engaging for clarification ensures, as much as possible, accurate interpretation (Galletta, 2013, p.78). Open-ended questions were used to give respondents the freedom to answer in their own way rather than force them to choose from previously determined sets of responses (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006; Sofaer, 2002). When open-ended questions are used, whether in a questionnaire or during an interview, the answers can be transformed into variables for which there are values for all cases (Sapsford & Jupp, 2006). With semi-structured interviews, the researcher attempted to capture data on the perceptions of FOB actors “from the inside” (Shaw & Gould, 2001).
Questionnaires were also used for obtaining FOB employees’ opinions about having the daughter as the FOB owner’s successor. As cited by Brice and Richardson (2009), every culture includes a range of values and beliefs that can be measured via survey questionnaires. Therefore, in order to capture the employees’ assumptions about their business culture, data was collected through survey questions.

In this study, both interviewees and questionnaire respondents were selected by randomised (equal probability) sampling. This permits generalisation from the sample to the population it represents and increases confidence in making generalisations to particular subgroups and areas (Wengraf, 2001). Snowball sampling was also used in this study by conducting an interview with one participant and then asking that participant to recommend another participant fitting the inclusion criteria for the research project (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015).

Interpretation is fundamental to the search for knowledge (Kakabadse et al., 2011). As Quinlan and Zikmund (2015) argue, knowledge is created within a research project through the researcher’s exploration of the phenomenon under investigation, using methodology and methods appropriate for the research project. They also claim that the research project and methodology must “fit” and must be “capable” of generating the knowledge required for the research. According to Gummesson (2003), interpretive approaches with an interactive research strategy perhaps only codify the best of common sense, insights, wisdom, sound judgement, intuition, and experience. As interpretive research is interested in meanings developed by subjects, it is closely related to the idea that reality is, at least partially, socially constructed (Lukka, 2014). As such, it is a subset of qualitative research, which assumes that social reality is locally and specifically constructed, and emphasises the reflective subjectivity of the process of making sense of and deriving knowledge claims about this reality (Walther, 2014. p.453). The present study used one-on-one interviews as a reality test or improvement
strategy to see whether they make sense both to successor and FOB staff, and how the succession process could be enhanced by extensive use of qualitative methods (Sofaer, 2002). In addition, questionnaires allow the participants to share their experiences of the succession process and having the owner’s daughter take over (Pathak et al., 2013).

While female labour participation rates in Turkey are higher nowadays, the number of women taking over family businesses still seems rather low (Remery et al., 2014). This study adds to the still limited field of research into women in family businesses. It presents the results of an analysis of gender differences according to the effect of national culture on (potential) successors in Turkish family firms.

5.3.3. Limitations of the Adopted Methodology

Phenomenological research engages with participants in a particular way, exploring the multiple realities of their individual uniquely lived experiences within a framework of constructivism (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). In contrast to positivism, the phenomenological approach assumes that the world is socially constructed from the interpretation of people within it. Thus, the researcher in this field requires direct, experiential contact with the phenomenon under investigation (Stiles, 2003). This FOB and succession process research engages with FOB members and explores their unique experiences. However, as stated by Qinlan and Zikmund, within such a study, no one reality is more valid than any other, and no one person’s understanding of reality is more valid than any other person’s understanding. In addition, relying solely on extreme forms of phenomenology has certain disadvantages. In particular, sole reliance upon a subjective perspective could create distortions as the researcher’s interpretation and value judgements could influence data collection and interpretation (Stiles, 2003).
As a philosophical position, the social constructionist theory holds that all knowledge and claims to certainty are culturally, politically and historically saturated (Korobov, 2000). However, in this FOB and succession process study, the constructionist theory does not determine where and how the researcher might go about finding knowledge related to these processes within a particular culture and course of history. Constructionism may be a new, more liberal, and progressive philosophical position, but it cannot be turned into a set of directions for how to do epistemology (Korobov, 2000).

Once interviews and questionnaires were accepted as a data collection method for this research study, the main challenge arose from the nature of the fieldwork, working with business people within working hours. As suggested by Quinlan and Zikmund (2015), when in the field, the researcher has to manage relationships carefully to maintain the level of access necessary to stay in the field and gather the required data. Due to the nature of FOBs, while conducting a good qualitative interview, the most difficult part was getting the interviewee to talk: that is, eliciting a fluid account in which the interviewer restricts himself [or herself] to listening and occasionally asking for clarification or steering the conversation cautiously back to its central issues (Corbetta, 2003). People will not put up with interviews and observations unless the purpose is explained. Gaining access to the study environment is probably the most difficult task in participant observation (Wengraf, 2001). Hence, in this study, in order to obtain the interviewee’s full cooperation, it was necessary to establish a relationship of trust.

Semi-structured interviewing has a characteristic pattern of a small number of prepared interviewer-questions by further questions improvised to follow-up the interviewee’s response to the original question (Wengraf, 2001).

A particular type of non-probability sampling, snowball sampling, can also be used when respondents are difficult to identify (Adams et al., 2014). In this FOB study, respondents were asked to recommend another sample. However, bias is likely with
this sampling technique because a person who is known to someone else has a higher probability of being similar to that person (Adams et al., 2014). As argued by Gilham (2000) and Smith (2011), open-ended questions lead to a greater level of discovery and longer, higher quality responses, although it is difficult to analyse (Stapleton and Mills, 2008). On the other hand, personal interviews have an inherent problem in that respondents know that their answers may make them identifiable to someone else (Erdos, 1974).

5.4. Research Design

5.4.1. Overview

There are numerous types of research designs which are appropriate for many different types of research projects. Each includes a range of research methods commonly used to collect and analyse the type of data generated by the investigation (Walliman, 2011). Quinlan and Zikmund (2015) claim that knowledge is created within the research project if the study’s exploration of the phenomenon under investigation uses the appropriate methodology for that research.

A social constructionist paradigm underpins this exploratory study. As social constructionist research, a qualitative research design was selected to gather data appropriate for the aims. It sought to reveal processes involved in daughter succession in FOBs in Turkey. The dominant research strategy and design of the study was largely qualitative. A phenomenological approach was used in data collection and data analysis through an inductive process.
Based on a review of research into succession in family businesses, Sharma and Manikutty (2005) conclude that FOB succession research should be designed to understand the similarities and differences between long-lived firms across cultures in terms of how cultural factors and economic development impact succession. The employee survey instrument was designed to collect data about their opinions of the company and its strengths, opinions on those higher in the company hierarchy, self-assessment (Erdos, 1974), problematic conditions (Englander, 2016) and organisational effectiveness (Fauth, Hattrup, Mueller & Roberts, 2013). Questionnaires are the favoured and primary tool of many researchers as they can often provide a cheap and effective way of collecting data in a structured and a manageable form (Wilkinson & Birmingham, 2003; Zohrabi, 2013).

In the main, quantitative data were obtained in this study through closed questionnaire items while qualitative data were obtained through open-ended questionnaire items and interviews (Zohrabi, 2013). As Gilham (2000) and Smith (2011) argue, open-ended questions lead to a greater level of discovery and longer, higher quality responses, although it is harder to analyse (Stapleton & Mills, 2008).

According to Korobov (2000), constructionist theory tells us that all knowledge and claims to certainty are culturally, politically, and historically saturated. However, it does not tell us where and how we might go about finding knowledge within the culture and over the course of history. This requires the researcher to become a co-constructer of data (Kukla, 2000). Interviews and questionnaires were used in this research as a way of obtaining detailed information about FOB succession and the effects of culture on FOB members during this process. The items of this FOB research’s questionnaires were developed based on the research objectives and research questions.
5.4.2. Research Process Overview

The research process was designed and conducted as formulated in Figure 3.

Figure 2 Research process overview
5.4.3. Data Collection Procedures

The purpose of this study was to investigate daughter succession processes in Turkish FOBs. The phenomenon under study concerns the personal decisions of individuals (FOB owners, families, enterprise, and daughters as successors) under the influence of the family business culture, and explicit and implicit factors affecting this succession process.

The primary data was collected to seek answers to the study’s research questions. The main research questions of the study were:

1. What is the temporal sequence of patterns during FOB succession in Turkey and to what extent does it affect the daughters’ succession process?
2. How do daughters gain the successor position in their family businesses and what are the characteristics features of these processes?
3. How do implicit and explicit factors, such as gendered cognitions, and contextual factors, such as family business culture, affect this process?

The major contribution of the current study is that it includes the perspectives of the FOB owner, successor, and employees to analyse Turkish FOB succession processes. Data were collected in 2014 and 2015. Data on ownership structure and ownership characteristics were collected from public official filings at the Turkish Young Businessmen Association (GYIAD). Such filings represent the definitive source of information for FOBs and daughters as successors. All the ownership, governance characteristics, and ownership structures were examined together with GYIAD general secretariat. In doing so, certain family related actors for this research were identified. FOBs were selected that still employed the owner’s daughter in the business, whether or not there was an existing succession process and the researcher had no connection any of the families which took part in this study.
Two methods of data collection were used in this research: first, qualitative interviews with a purposive sample of Turkish FOB owners and daughters; second, a survey of 252 FOB employees working in the FOBs. Of the 252 survey respondents (55% female, 45% male), only 4% female and 12% male participants filled the survey as members of the FOB owners’ family. Of the survey respondents, 2.8% were less than 20 years old, 65.6% were 20-39 years old, 22.3% were 40-49 years old, 7.7% were 50-59 years old and 1.6% were 60 years old or above. In terms of positions in their businesses, 82% held non-management positions, 15% management positions, 2% top management, and 1% were from the board of directors. Regarding educational level, 0.4% graduated from elementary school, 2.5% graduated from high school, 59.9% had a university degree from Turkey, 9.7% gained a university degree abroad, 7.4% had a master degree from Turkey, 3.2% had a master degree abroad while 1.6% had a PhD degree from Turkey. Qualitative data were gathered via in-depth open-ended interviews with male FOB owners and their daughters in addition to surveys conducted by the organisations themselves. The researcher conducted in-depth interviews with 20 FOB owners and 20 daughters working at their FOB with their fathers. Each interview recording was transcribed by the researcher. The interviews explored the leadership succession philosophies of father and daughter and succession-related activities and policies with regard to leadership succession practices. The open-ended interviews provided sufficient flexibility for both the interviewees and the researcher in that the researcher could ask additional questions to better understand the situation. This interview type was chosen for the current study, not only to investigate the succession process but also to understand the interviewees’ feelings.

For the purposes of this study, family-owned and managed organisations were defined as those where 51% or more of the business was controlled by the family, decisions about management or ownership were influenced by family members, and two or more members of the immediate family (i.e. father, mother, daughter or son) were employed and actively participating in the firm’s management (Dumas, 1992).
While FOB researchers use various forms of this definition, the common factor is that the FOBs are managed and controlled by family members.

The first step for gaining access to participants was sending a letter of inquiry with a brief description of the study’s fieldwork (Appendix 4). Questionnaire items were designed to measure different facets of FOB demographics and culture to understand their effects on the selection process within Turkish FOBs and gender norms in the context of FOB norms, which impact both family members and the business itself.

From each company, the first target group of interview partners were female successor candidates who were actively involved in their family’s business. The second group of interview partners were the fathers of first target group who are still actively working in the business. In individual interviews, 20 fathers and 20 daughters told their succession stories. The qualitative design of this research presented the voices of fathers and daughters as family business incumbents and successors respectively. The interviews were designed to allow participants to reflect and select content relevant to themselves and their experiences. The researcher conducted the interviews on a one-to-one basis during spring 2015. The language spoken was Turkish, the main language of the researcher and all interview partners. Interviews varied in length from 50 to 60 minutes, depending on the length of the participants’ explanations. Two sets of open-ended, semi-structured interview questions were prepared by the researcher to understand the participants’ opinions about succession under the influence of Turkish national culture. At the beginning of the interviews, the researcher briefly informed the interviewees about the study and explained her personal connection to the study. The interviews were conducted in an interactive dialogue format that permitted follow-up questions. Interview questions for the FOB owner (Appendix 1) consisted of 5 sections with 15 questions in total. The first section asked about company demographics: age, sector, generation, the number of employees, etc. The second section asked about the company’s values and assumptions to understand the FOB owner’s cultural assimilation. Respondents were also asked to narrate any previous success stories. This allowed the researcher to
understand the owner’s approach to succession. The third section asked about the father’s ideas about succession decision-making processes and the extent that culture affected his decisions. The fourth section asked about succession in his own business.

The last section asked about his daughter as a successor within wider questions about women in business life in Turkey. The interview questions for daughters (Appendix 2) also consisted of five sections. The first section asked daughters about their age, education, experience, etc. The second section asked about their family life, their siblings, and their work experience. This enabled the researcher to understand the family’s values to analyse primogeniture and understand the family values related to their experiences. Questions in the third section asked about the succession process from the daughter’s point of view while the fourth section asked about gendered norms in their family’s company and Turkey, and about their assumptions related to gender barriers. To understand the father’s cultural assumptions and his daughter’s feelings about her father, the last section asked about the daughter’s relationship with her father.

A self-administered five-section survey for employees was constructed based on prior research presented in the literature review (Appendix 2). The first section asked about the company’s major characteristics in terms of being managed by a family. The second section asked about company culture. The third section asked about the succession process. The fourth section first asked about employees’ preferences regarding having a woman leader from within or outside the owner’s family, before asking respondents to rate statements about their preferred women leadership characteristics from 1 to 5, with 1 being the most preferred and 5 being least preferred. The final section asked participants for their most preferred five leadership characteristics from 20 characteristics. Respondents were also asked to provide demographic information, including age, years of education, the length of employment in the FOB, and their department. Participants’ responses were anonymous and confidential. Of 380 surveys distributed, 252 (66%) were completed and returned.
The process of analysing the data began after the first few interviews were conducted and transcribed. After each interview, I took some immediate notes, in addition to interview records. They were a more detailed explanation of additional insights obtained from the interviewee and I found these notes were very useful while writing results. All the interview transcriptions, along with the personal notes, were read through, whilst underlining specific words or phrases of participant responds. Some small notes were written in the margins in order to help me interpret the meaning within the spoken story of the participant. Of course, I was involved in collecting the data, transcribing, coding and then analysing it. However, to further limit the amount of bias in this study, I sent all interview transcribes to the participants. Eleven of the twenty interviews were reviewed by the participants with relatively no difference in codes or themes identified. This process added credibility to the study and verified the themes that I had initially identified.

In this research study, an employee survey was used in order to support and consolidate the interview results, as well as analysing the succession process while considering the employee assumptions. Potential participants, who worked at FOBs that were interviewed with fathers and daughters were asked to complete the survey. In some organisations, it was completed during the interviews, some completed and sent to the researcher mail address later. At the end of a month, the researcher sent reminder notes to the owners or potential successor daughters of those organisations that were interviewed in order to remind those employees who had not completed the survey. All data collection was considered complete when 252 surveys were completed, which occurred after the interviews.

Microsoft Excel was used for the data analysis of questionnaire that were completed by the employees. The Microsoft (MS) Excel data analysis menu was used for containing descriptive statistics. I used ‘input range’ tools and selected the range of data that I wanted to be analysed. I focussed on my research questions and analysed the results in order to formulate results. Since some of this research proposals occurred with two or more variables, like demographics and cultural assumptions,
‘Cross Tabulation’ frequency table and Pivot Table were used for the analyse. MS Excel automatically creates the percentages of the variables that the researcher want.

5.4.4. Trustworthiness

Qualitative research as a set of interpretive activities that seek to understand the situated meaning behind actions and behaviours, and rely heavily on the researcher as a unique interpreter of the data (Sinkovich & Alfoldi, 2012, p.818). As a qualitative research, this study aims to develop an understanding of the phenomenon by examining the ways in which FOB owner, daughter and employees’ experience, perceive and make sense of their lives (Kornbluh, 2015). In order to able to developing an understanding of research participants’, this qualitative research study use text based, open-ended, semi-structured interview and survey for collecting empirical material. During the data collection and examination process, trustworthiness is considered as a primary concern. As stated by Connely (2016), the trustworthiness of a study refers to the degree of confidence in data. Additionally, one of the major challenges in qualitative research is establishing confidence and trust in the theoretical insights that the researcher proposes to explain or understand the phenomenon being investigated (Whiting & Sines, 2012).

Social research using interviews, participant observation, oral histories, historical data, etc... are used in order to study people’s experiences and the meanings they hold towards social phenomena and social experiences are referred to as qualitative research (Quinlan, 2011). The phenomenological approach, which adopted as the most appropriate perspective for this research, attempts to understand participants’ interpretations of reality, which are influenced by their values and their ways of viewing the world, as well as by other people’s interpretations and the compromises and agreements that arise out of the negotiations between them (Quinlan & Zikmund, 2015). The purpose of this qualitative phenomenological study was to explore factors
that stem from the culture and impacts on daughters’ succession process. Additionally, taking a social constructivist approach, the current study also focuses on the actors’ viewpoints about the meanings of the succession processes occurring around them. However, in this point, reliability is considered as a crucial point that it refers to an ability to measure or observe a phenomenon of interest (Kornbluh, 2015). The social constructivist approach aims to understand the experiences, shared meanings, opinions, and relationships between FOB members and the definitions they construct. However, reliability and validity are an important concern for this construction. As mentioned by Connely (2016), reliability does not only mean that observed measurement is correct, reliability means that the measurement process can consistently produce an accurate measurement.

This research study used interviews and survey method for collecting data. Although coding and classifying qualitative data is an intricate and challenging task, proper coding helped in developing a meaningful content analysis of the conducted interviews (Comstock, 2012). However, according to Creswell (2003), measures are valid if they in point of fact actually measure what they are intended to be measuring. At this point, the researcher’s aim was to secure the validity of this research. Although it is rare to have perfect reliability in a qualitative study, the researcher focused on four things to improve reliability; (1) clearly conceptualise constructs, (2) use a precise level of measurement, (3) use multiple indicators, and (4) use pilot tests (Neuman, 2014). Neuman (2014) stresses that reliability increases, when each measure indicates one and only one concept, in this research study, the researcher used the same questionnaire and survey to indicate theoretical background. In other words, questions were specified and categorised for clearly conceptualise the construct, both interview questions and survey, they both supported themselves. The second issue of improving the reliability was, increasing the level measurement. As a researcher, I tried to measure at the most precise level possible, for example, rather than asking to survey participants yes or no, I used multiple choices for improving the reliability of measurement. A third way to improve reliability is to use multiple indicators. Multiple indicators consist of two or more “alternative” measures of the same concept.
In this study, some questions were asked two different ways, especially related to employees’ assumptions about organisation culture and succession process. Finally, I improved the reliability by first using a pilot version of a measure and then developed one or more draft versions of a measure and tried them before applying the final version. I prepared many draft version of the questionnaire and tested every version by asking people to check to see whether they make sense. The principle of using pilot tests extends to replicating the measures from the researcher (Neuman, 2014). In this way, the quality of measure was improved over time as long as the same definition used. On the other hand, as stated chapter 5.4.3. to further limit the amount of bias in this study, I sent all interview transcriptions to the participants. Eleven of the twenty interviews were reviewed by the participants with relatively no difference in codes or themes identified. This process added credibility to the study and verified the themes that I had initially identified.

Triangulation is a strategy through which researchers may try to ensure the trustworthiness of the research (Curtin & Fossey, 2007) and use of two or more different methods from within a particular methodological approach to measure the same results (Carter, Bryant-Lukosius, DiCenso, Blythe & Neville, 2014). In fact, triangulation is cited as a method to improve the credibility of the research findings and data interpretations (Kornbluh, 2015). In this FOB study, perceptual data between incumbent, successor and employees are triangulated to able to improve the data credibility. The triangulation procedure employed in this study is based on the researcher’s view of the impact of national culture on FOB succession process. In this study, researcher focussed on triangulation by method through developing a strategy for combining the data collected with three different instruments and triangulation by data source by collecting data from different persons, at different times and from different places. As a method, interviews, observation, survey and documents used for developing a new theory. Interview and survey methods of this qualitative research are triangulated with the Data Collection Procedures in Chapter 5.4.3. Documents from interview respondents and survey participants such as content letter and the interview request forms also included the triangulation. Results are not
generalizable to the larger population of family businesses, since the quality of this study depends on the quality of the researcher’s observation. Interview transcription and survey results. However, it is expected that the results will provide great insight on family business and daughters’ succession issues.

5.5. Ethical Considerations

Ethical concerns are intrinsically linked to the very nature of the way in which data are collected by researchers to better understand the beliefs, motivations, and behaviour of research participants (Oliver & Eales, 2008, p.346), to whom may be vulnerable because of age, social status, or powerlessness (Wiles, 2012). Additionally, ethics are standards of professional behaviour that guide the researcher, especially towards research participants (Guthrie, 2010) by asking questions about harms and benefits, virtues and vices, choices and dispositions, conflicts and agreements, and the justifications of decisions (Comstock, 2012, p.10).

Qualitative research is applied within this study. 20 FOBs were selected in Turkey and delivered a questionnaire in each, together with interviews.

The design of the questionnaire items reflects what emerged as key factors of ethical consideration in corporate governance including considerations such as ethical leadership, as well as variables including family management and organisational performance (Wu, 2006).

The researcher in this study sought to establish trust with each interviewee and survey participant. If people do not trust the researcher, the data may be invalid because they do not reflect what respondents are truly thinking or doing (McNeill & Chapman, 2005).

Specifically, in FOBs, family and business systems have their own unique traits and business entity may be entirely unique (Johnson, 2007, p.1088). In particular, social
Researchers, like in management studies, when they carry out research, enter into personal and moral relationships with those they study, be they individuals, households, social groups, or corporate entities. At that point, reflexity is considered the cornerstone in the works of many critical management scholars (Prasad & Mills, 2010) like FOB area. Indeed, in this study, researcher act as an objective observer, while, at the same time hope to achieve some truth.

As many authors point out, non-malfeasance and avoidance of harm to research participants were essential (Comstock, 2012; Oliver & Eales, 2008; Wiles, 2012; Ross, 2014). This has led some organisations and members of professional bodies to sign psychological contracts to uphold and abide by ethical guidelines as a condition of their continued membership (Brewerton & Millward, 2001). Wherever research is conducted, it must honour the autonomy and dignity of all persons, and fulfil the principles of respect for persons, beneficence, and justice (Abdel-Messih et al., 2008).

Although these research ethical principles were developed in Western societies, they are widely adopted and play a significant role in research ethics worldwide (Caballero, 2002).

Because this study included human participants, ethical considerations for these participants were vital. The researcher has a fundamental responsibility to participants, including their right to give informed consent (Israel & Hay, 2006). All research participants have a right to know what the research is about and to refuse to take part in it or to answer particular questions (McNeill & Chapman, 2005) since, researchers are responsible to their research participants to gain informed consent, which includes telling them their rights (May, 2004; Benson, 1989; Nedlin, 2003; Peduzzi et al., 2010).

According to Polit and Beck (2006), informed consent means that participants obtain the necessary information regarding the research, are capable of comprehending the information, and have the power of free choice, enabling them to voluntarily consent to or decline participation in the research. A further consideration in phenomenological research is recognition that the lived experience of those who are
recruited to participate may render them vulnerable and less able to act autonomously (Walker, 2012). Therefore, informed consent is necessary for most human subject research (Peduzii et al., 2002; Walker, 2012, Oliver & Eales, 2008). Informed consent also requires the researcher to share and discuss with participants’ necessary information about the purpose of the study, confidentiality, risks and benefits of engaging in the research project, and their right to discontinue participation in the study at any time (Nedlin, 2003). In this study, participants read and signed the consent form as an agreement of confidentiality. In addition, business confidentiality was vital in the FOB context since most family businesses are known to be traditionally secretive (Appendix 5) (Benson, 1989). Indeed, information privacy is of growing concern to multiple business stakeholders more widely, including business leaders, privacy activists, scholars, government regulators, and individual consumers (Smith, 2011). In this study, all participants’ responses were confidential. Therefore, all the interview partners were informed with the interview requests letters about their information’s privacy (Appendix 4). At the FOB owners’ and daughters’ requests, responses were not recorded but noted by the researcher without writing any company names. Interview participants also asked the researcher not to state the city where their business was located. The researcher was the only collector of the interview and survey data. Similar to interview request letter, all survey participants were informed about the privacy and consent form were read and signed by the survey partners (Appendix 5). Surveys were handed out to participants in open envelopes. If they completed them, they returned it in the sealed envelope without writing their name on it. Before sending the survey questions all participants read and signed the consent form (Appendix 4). Additionally, with those letters, all participants were assured that their responses will be kept confidential.

There are two main theories in ethical philosophy: deontological and consequentialist (Burton, 2000; Chakrabarty & Bass, 2015; Forschler, 2013). According to deontological theory, researchers must respect every human being, guided by natural laws and rights (Comstock, 2012; Burton, 2000), while consequentialist theory argues that
people should seek to act ethically bearing in mind the consequences of their behavior (Goldstick, 2002). Consequentialists consider an action’s ethical value to be entirely a function of its intended or expected consequences as opposed to deontologists, who think that quite different intentions are often required of us (Forschler, 2013).

Avoiding causing harm to participants is a fundamental consideration for all researchers. Possible risks and corresponding benefits may include psychological, physical, legal, social, and economic issues (Abdel-Messih, Setouhy, Crouch & Earhart, 2008, p.34). The potential harm to participants in qualitative social research is often quite subtle, stemming from the nature of the interaction between researcher and participant (Guillemin, Gillam, Rosenthal & Bolitho, 2012, p42). Therefore, with most qualitative research, researcher and participant relationships require sensitivity, understanding, and ethical consideration (Nedlin, 2003). This relationship is also important regarding interpretation, since it is in the community that interpretations are produced, developed, and evaluated (Moisander & Valtonen, 2006).

In this research study, an interpretivist methodology was adopted to explore, interpret and to understand meanings of knowledge. The interpretivist methodology is focused on the subjective researcher as well as the meanings and values of the participants. This methodology creates opportunities for all research participants as well as the researcher to share experiences in an open and relaxed way. The initial design of the research was intended, to begin with, to determine any significance in the relationship between fathers and daughters and their assumptions about their FOB succession. At the same time, this research aimed to investigate the daughters’, fathers’ and employees’ experience within their business related with the succession process. However, due to nature of FOBs, in order to obtain an idea of the participants’ true views and experiences, it was necessary to maintain privacy. For this reason, the researcher made every effort to ensure privacy, confidentiality, and anonymity in
order to provide most relevant information from the research participants. As a woman researcher, who spent most her life in Turkey, be familiar with Turkish culture and the assumptions about women, helps for the observation; both FOB owners and daughters. However, I was interested in the perception of the successor/incumbent and what he and/or she experiences are in this situation. How she and/or he faces the specific family business issues and their expectations of the parents and daughters and how they will have positioned themselves.

Semi-structured interviews gave me the great flexibility and active listening, as well as this, it allowed the interviewee to freedom to talk and ascribe meanings while bearing in mind their succession stories. In order to gain an in-depth understanding of the succession process as experienced by the interview partner as well as gaining and maintaining trust it was important to provide open interview atmosphere. All the research participants were asked to choose a suitable place for the interview the interviews were conducted on a one-to-one basis. Additionally, fathers and daughters were interviewed separately in order to allow them to discuss their feelings more freely. The language spoken was Turkish; the native language of the researcher and the participants. As a researcher, for maintaining the truthfulness, I started with a description of my own background, albeit briefly, in order to signal to the interviewee partners that I have personal knowledge of the topic and to be discussed and thereby establish a level of trust leading to openness in the interview. Additionally, the interviews and surveys were conducted in Turkey within five different regions and eleven different cities. The researcher has had sufficient knowledge about the different cultures of these areas as well as their assumptions about working women. Having this knowledge helped me to approach research participants.

The ethics of qualitative research design pose distinctive demands regarding informed consent, confidentiality and privacy, social justice, and practitioner research (Shaw, 2008). In this study, several issues required ethical consideration: minimising harm, informed consent, and protection of privacy (Guillemin et al., 2012). This study
investigated people’s feelings about women as FOB successors, culture, gender, and people’s experiences in various areas. FOB members were an integral part of this research. The Bioethics Committee - UNESCO National Commission of Turkey has established basic guidelines for research ethics in Turkey (http://www.unesco.org.tr). These are consistent with the Turkish context, as these principles must take into consideration the country’s cultural context. The success of a research project depends on the trust and cooperation that researchers gain from potential participants (Asai & Kavathatzopoulos, 2016).

Therefore, in order to conduct effective and ethically appropriate questionnaire-based research, it was essential to establish the ethical standards that would govern it (Asai & Kavathatzopoulos, 2016).

5.6. Conclusion

The purpose of this study is to provide an explanation for the influence of family business culture over the succession process, which is accepted as a vital process for FOB sustainability. To achieve this aim, the study evaluates the effects of family business culture on the FOB members (family, FOB owner, daughters as a successor, and employees) and to what extent they influence the succession process. The research model for this study, which provides a foundation for developing a methodology for the case studies, was first presented in a landmark cross-national study conducted by Barbot et al. (2004), exploring the influence of culture on father–daughter succession in different cultures in order to investigate the specificity of father–daughter transfer while considering the impact of cultural variables.

Because this study included human participants, ethical considerations for these participants were vital, therefore, all research participants were informed about the ethical issues. Both FOB owners and daughters are informed about the importance of the information that they give. Before starting to interviews and surveys, sending the
content form and interview request letters aim to assure them to keeping all the information without sharing with any other parties.

The goal of this study is to rely as much as possible on the participants’ views of selecting daughters as FOB successors (Creswell et al., 2007). Hence, it uses a qualitative approach associated with the social constructivist and interpretivist paradigm to uncover the deeper meaning and significance of FOB members’ behaviour and experience, including contradictory beliefs, behaviours, and emotions related with the succession process (Costley et al., 2010).

This chapter has reviewed and justified the study’s research philosophy to understand the way that family business culture affects FOB members when selecting a daughter as a successor. The proposed approach was adopted to address the specific question of father-daughter transfer while considering the impact of the cultural variables. This study is intended to provide useful information for FOB scholars, as well as for family business owners, employees, and daughters as successors about how FOBs and national culture interact in determining successor selection processes in Turkish FOBs.
CHAPTER 6. RESULTS

6.1. Introduction

Succession planning and successor selection is a key theme in the FOB literature. To continue the business, a FOB owner needs to decide who will be the next leader before resigning. Although the succession process is one of the most researched areas within the family business field, studies have mostly focused only on incumbent or successor viewpoints. However, Van Mart (1998) claimed that employee values and opinions are an important information source for significant adjustments in the business, with employees being key factors in determining training, self-improvement, and career development needs as they affect succession planning. Therefore, in this study, employee values and opinions were examined as important sources for a successful and smooth succession.

The family business literature overlooks the gender dynamics of family business succession while the common use of the male pronoun betrays the assumption that sons will succeed their fathers (Gilding et al., 2015, p.303). However, Karakas-Ozkan et al. (2011) explore the role of women in the context of Turkish FOBs, highlighting the importance of rapidly changing cultural values that have changed views of women’s role in business life. This study was an important step in examining the changing cultural values, challenges, and issues that women face in family businesses in Turkey by addressing problems such as ‘invisibility’, lack of role models and mentors, and lack of support frameworks, such as tailored education and training. The current study carries this research one step further while encompassing both incumbent and employee perceptions in investigating the participation of daughters as FOB candidate successors.

In order to address the specific issue of father-daughter leadership transfer while considering the impact of family business cultural variables, this study adopted Barbot
et al.’s (2004) multidimensional model while adopting the stewardship perspective.

Using the multidimensional model of succession in family businesses (Figure 2), this research identified the key actors of the FOB environment at each stage of the succession process and analysed their interactions by adopting stewardship theory. Davis et al., (1997) suggest that stewardship theory consists of psychological and situational dimensions. The psychological factors are motivation, identification, and use of power, while the situational factors are management philosophy and organisational culture. Both the psychological and situational dimensions are highly interrelated and intangible, suggesting a composite operant resource (Dibrell & Moeller, 201, p.45).

In this study, FOB owners played a key role due to the importance of their decisions. In order to capture FOB’s personal approach to select a daughter as a successor, this study first examined the family business culture and effects on FOB owner to understand FOB dynamics and FOB owners’ leadership characteristics. Later on, the interaction between FOB owner and the family and enterprise were examined by using the stewardship theory. Subsequently, after explaining FOB culture and FOB owners’ leadership characteristics while using the stewardship theory’s physiological and situational factors, FOB owners’ successor selection process was analysed.

6.2. Family Owned Business Culture

As presented at chapter 2.2.2., the literature identifies a wide range of culture-based behaviours that may provide some competitive advantage to the family firm (Brice & Jones, 2008; Fletcher et al., 2012; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). Previous studies (Brice & Richardson, 2009; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012; Casimiro & Chambel, 2014) show the impact of culture on the behaviour of organisations as well as FOBs, but many studies focused on the national level. However, there is a variation in cultural patterns across family businesses and within a country (Ljunkvist & Boers, 2016). This study examined those cultural differences within a country and how they stem from.
As stated by various researchers (Stavrou et al., 2005; Vallejo, 2008), Dyer’s (1986) study of the culture of the family business is one of the most important contributions to family business cultural studies.

Dyer (1986) found four basic cultural patterns in the family business: a paternalistic culture, a laissez-faire culture, a participative culture and a professional culture. In this study, the family business succession process was analysed under these four cultural dimensions. In this chapter, FOB culture will be examined in order to identify both FOB owners’ and enterprise culture to understand the effect on FOB members and succession process later.
6.2.1. FOB Culture and FOB owner’s leadership characteristics

Family ownership and family leadership is a key control mechanism in a family business. Furthermore, literature on this topic points out that there is a relation between family and ownership culture and succession process (Lissoni et al., 2010; Chua et al., 1999; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). When observing succession movements, according to Davis (1996), it is more than one things and some transition involve people change, other involve cultural change.

Although there are unsuccessful family firms, successful family firms are accepted have a competitive advantage due to their business culture (Brice & Richardson, 2009). As examined in sections 2.2.3. and 4.9.1., the literature identifies a wide range of culture-based behaviours that may provide some competitive advantage to the family firm (Brice & Jones, 2008; Fletcher et al., 2012; Gupta & Levenburg, 2012). Although there are a wide range of culture-based behaviour classification of FOBs, according to various authors (Sharma, 2004; Stavrou et al., 2005; Vallejo, 2008; Cassia, De Massis & Pizzurno, 2012), Dyer’s (1986) study of culture of family business is one of the most important contributions to family business cultural studies. Dyer (1986) found four basic cultural patterns in the family business. In order to capture the connection to FOB culture and the leadership style of the FOB owner, in this study, FOB culture was assessed under Dyer’s four cultural patterns: a paternalistic culture, a laissez-faire culture, a participative culture and a professional culture. In this study, the family business succession process was analysed under these four cultural dimensions. Before assessing the answers related to leadership characteristics, the four FOB cultural patterns and related leadership characteristics are examined.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th><strong>Paternalistic culture</strong></th>
<th><strong>Paternalistic leadership style</strong></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Based on norms of protection, safety, guardianship and benevolence (Gupta &amp; Levenburg, 2012)</td>
<td>Most commonly found in first-generation family firms, where power and decision making is centred on the incumbent leader (Sorenson et al., 2013)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employees considered and treated as part of an extended family <em>(Casimiro &amp; Jose Chambel, 2014)</em></td>
<td>Assumes a parental role <em>(Casimiro &amp; Chambel, 2014)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Promotes a workplace culture to legitimate authority structures and centralised control (Brumley, 2014)</td>
<td>The employer cares about employees but maintains authority like a father would with his children (Brumley, 2014; Aycan 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships are managed hierarchically <em>(Stavrou et al., 2005).</em></td>
<td>Managers not only consider their employees’ work life but also take a personal interest in their private life <em>(Fikret Pasa et al., 2001).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Congruent with the values of collectivist and high power distance <em>(Pellegrini &amp; Scandura, 2008)</em></td>
<td>Authorities consider it their obligation to provide protection to those under their care; in return, they expect loyalty and defence <em>(Jackson, 2016).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Related to perceptions of transformational and/or charismatic leadership <em>(Pellegrini &amp; Scandura, 2008)</em></td>
<td>Employees are considered untrustworthy <em>(Stavrou et al., 2005)</em>; there is high distrust of “outsiders” <em>(Dyer, 1986)</em>; non-family employees may not have opportunity to satisfy their need for self-expression <em>(Memili et al., 2012)</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The firm’s environment orientation generally tends to be proactive in developing new products or markets <em>(Dyer, 1986).</em></td>
<td>Founders give preference to family members for the top positions <em>(Chakrabarty &amp; Bass, 2015; Casimiro &amp; Chambel, 2014).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Treating others the way parents would treat their children <em>(Aycan, 2005)</em></td>
<td>The founder prioritises direct and informal relationship, going as far as establishing friendships with some employees, especially the older ones <em>(Casimiro &amp; Chambel, 2014).</em></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is a function of real or implied status differences <em>(Brumley, 2014)</em></td>
<td>A leader’s behaviour is related to superior personal virtues, self-discipline, and selflessness <em>(Farh, Cheng, Chou &amp; Chu, 2006).</em></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 4. FOB and laissez-faire leadership characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>The laissez-faire culture</th>
<th>Leadership</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Tends to emerge when the second generation takes over management (Yang, 2015)</td>
<td>The founder and the family delegate a great deal of authority to lower-level decision makers (Dyer, 1986).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Employees are seen as being trustworthy, and they are given responsibility to make decisions (Dyer, 1986).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Is similar to the paternalistic pattern in many ways; relationships are again hierarchical in nature and family members are given favoured positions, based on a high level of trust between the workers and the family (Dyer, 1986)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>In the family business context, the laissez-faire culture is in place when family members turn management responsibility over to trusted employees (Stavrou et al., 2005, p.192); in other words, the laissez-faire culture is based on high level of trust in employees (Casimiro &amp; Chambel, 2014).</td>
<td>The leader delegates all the decision-making powers to followers (Zareen et al., 2014; 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Laissez-faire culture has been shown to have harmful effects on supervisory effectiveness and subordinate satisfaction (Skogstad et al., 2007; Hinkin &amp; Schriesheim, 2015; Fuller, 2010).</td>
<td>Is considered as absent leadership which is at the opposite end of transformational and/or transactional leadership (Hinkin &amp; Schriesheim, 2008).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>The laissez-faire culture is more amenable to business growth and individual creativity than the paternalistic pattern is, since the family delegates a great deal of responsibility to employees (Dyer, 1986).</td>
<td>Laissez-faire leadership might be viewed as a sign of respect of subordinates’ boundaries rather than the absence of leadership (Yang, 2015).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Situational factors become important in determining the positive or negative directions of laissez-faire leadership (Yang, 2015).</td>
<td>Laissez-faire leaders offer little support to their subordinates (Zareen et al.; 2004; 2005).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Could be effective in high power distance and high collectivist cultures (Yang, 2015)</td>
<td>Laissez-faire leadership encourages independence and entrepreneurial spirit, as laissez-faire leadership sends confidence to subordinates (Theodosiou &amp; Katsikea, 2007).</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Laissez-faire leaders give their followers a full chance to use their capabilities to understand ongoing problems and</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Participative culture tends to develop when the second generation starts to run the family business, but it is a relatively rare pattern (Casimiro & Chambel, 2014; Dyer, 1986). The literature on participative cultures suggests that they are characterised by a balanced distribution of power, a strong customer focus, an integration of managing with doing, a strategy of continuous learning, and an orientation toward community service (Bechtold, 1997, p.8). Additionally, in a participative culture, employees are generally able to be creative to develop their talents and abilities (Dyer, 1986) because, under participative leadership culture, employee participation is encouraged by those at the higher levels of the organisation (Huang et al., 2011). Elele and Fields (2010) examine the relationship between culture and employee participation, finding that employees from the low power distance and very individualistic cultures seem to judge participation levels only relative to levels that they desire. Jago’s (2016) recent study also show that participation level and power distance are negatively correlated. Similarly, Bass (1997) claims that countries with low-power distance favour and accept participative management, whereas those with high-power distance favour and accept autocratic styles.

The professional culture is used to describe the kind of culture pattern that often emerges when professional managers assume management of a family business (Davis, 1986, p.32). Professional cultures are often highly competitive, with managers striving to reach the top positions (Dyer, 1986). Additionally, according to Gupta and Levenburg (2012, p.60), in societies where power is distributed equally and the sense of belonging and obligation to one's family or in-group is weak, the spirit of professionalism tends to be stronger, greater controls exist over family control of business, and succession processes follow competitive norms.
In the present study, in order to identify the FOB culture and owners’ leadership style, they were asked some specific questions. The interview Question 5 and Question 8 (Appendix 1) were designed to understand their cultural characteristics. At question 5, FOB owners are asked to explain their leadership style.

Additionally, at question 8 (Appendix 1), FOB owners were asked, **When one of the managers of their company resign, how do they recruit the new leader? What kind of qualifications do they look for? Is it important to be from the family?** Their responses are shown below.

Since FOB owners of 5 and 6’s interview questions do not give detailed information, their characteristics are analysed by the supportive questions.

**OWNER 1.** I try to set up a close relationship with my staff, deal with their problems. **I want to inspire my employees with my attitudes and try to be a manager that employees want to follow my rules and decisions.**

**OWNER 2.** I try to be a good and effective leader. I learnt from my father that employees should respect you and the only way for this is you should inspire them with your decisions. What I have been doing for many years is I just want to show my employees and family members that **I am reliable and do what I have promised.** I always stand behind my decisions.

**OWNER 3.** I am like their father. **I always take care of them,** all of my employees. I treat them

**OWNER 4.** Sometimes I find myself to be very naive. I want to be quite more instructive but it’s too late now. All of my employees are my friends and I can’t treat them like my slaves.

**OWNER 7.** I try to set up a good relationship with them. **They can say everything with me.**
OWNER 8. I wasn’t happy about my leadership style, but I learned how to be a good leader. I learned from my mistakes. I am more serious and I usually keep a distance between me and my employees. I think being a friend or setting up a close relationship with your staff is not always good.

OWNER 9. Yes, I have enough experience for testing it; now I know how I should be, which kind of leader is preferred. As a 70-plus-year-old man, I know that employees want to see their leader as powerful and quite mystical. Employees should not know everything about their leader and not be able to reach him easily.

OWNER 10. I am not sure, sometimes I am quite stubborn and do not let my subordinates implement their decisions. I can be quite open to their ideas.

OWNER 11. Yes, I am. I am not a snobbish leader. I try to encourage and motivate my team.

OWNER 13. Yes, but my daughter and son do not like it. They find me too friendly.

OWNER 14. Yes, I can arrange the distance between me and my staff. We have a conglomerate and I cannot know my whole staff but they are usually very friendly when I come across them. But I prefer to maintain a distance.

OWNER 15. Not really, I am not a leader of my staff. I am in all stages of production and always with them. But they respect me; they know that I solve their problems and think of them and their career.

OWNER 16. Yes, I am an easy-going person and can set up a good relationship with them.

OWNER 17. I do not know what they think. Employees should evaluate my leadership style. But, as far as I can see, they are happy about my leadership style. I just want to be a bit more relaxed, to have more free time. I work too much, involve myself in too many things.
OWNER 18. Yes, I do not know. Working with my daughter and son, but they criticise me too much about my management style. They want me to be stricter.

OWNER 19. Yes, I try to solve their problems and try to be like their father exactly the way I treat my daughters.

OWNER 20. Yes, my brother finds me too friendly and says that I am not like their manager. But he is too strict and our employees cannot reach him easily; that’s why I try to be friendly with them. I know about all their private lives and problems

Paternalism occurs in a hierarchical relationship between a “superior” and “subordinate” who occupy different roles and the role of the “superior” is to provide care, protection and guidance to the “subordinate” in both work and non-work domains, while the “subordinate”, in return, is expected to be loyal and deferential to the superior (Mussolino & Calabra, 2014, p.200) and is related to treating others the way parents would treat their children and employers maintaining authority like a father would with his children (Aycan 2005; Brumley 2014; Dyer, 1986). FOB owners 3 and 19 described their leadership styles as being like a father and taking care of their employees. Another important characteristic of the paternalistic leadership attitude is that managers in paternalistic FOB culture do not only consider their employees’ work life but also take a personal interest in workers’ private life (Fikret Pasa et al., 2001), as does O20.

FOB Owners 8, and 12 do not show paternalistic leadership characteristics and prefer to keep a distance between the employees. As stated by Yang (2015), they assume the subordinates’ boundaries as a sign of respect like a laissez-faire leader. Three interview partners, O1, O11 and O12 prefer to inspire, encourage and motivate their followers as a leader who gives confidence to employees. The laissez-faire leadership style sends confidence to subordinates and gives their followers a full chance to use their capabilities. However, O1 prefers to inspire his followers; he wants them to follow his rules and decisions as a paternalistic leader. Moreover, O4 and O15 appear to have paternalistic leadership characteristics with their quotes.
In paternalistic cultures, employees are considered untrustworthy; authorities consider it their obligation to provide protection to those under their care; in return, they expect loyalty and deference (Jackson, 2016). O15 stressed how he provides help and care to his employees and expects their loyalty and respect for his attitudes. O10 shows very autocratic/paternalistic leadership characteristics and does not let his followers implement their decisions. Paternalistic culture’s most characteristic feature of lack of trust is seen clearly in the company.

According to Question 5, 13 (O1, O2, O3, O4, O8, O9, O10, O12, O14, O15, O16, O18 and O19) FOBs culture and owners’ characteristics can be identified clearly. However, in order to support owners’ leadership characteristic and understanding the others which cannot clearly identified by the Question 5, Question 8 is examined below.

As shown in Table 4, another important leadership characteristic is FOB founders in Paternalistic cultures give preference to family members for the top positions (Chakrabarty & Bass, 2015; Casimiro & Chambel, 2014) and there is high distrust of “outsiders” (Dyer, 1986). In order to able to analysing this attitude, FOB owner were asked, when one of the managers of their company resign, how do they recruit the new leader? What kind of qualifications do they look for? Is it important to be from the family?

OWNER 1. According to our company’s experience, the candidate of the manager should have sufficient experience in our sector. As a family business, I would give the priority to my family members.

OWNER 2. The manager should be trained and he/she should have the desire to manage his/her department. Experience and performance are the most important qualifications for us.

OWNER 3. We are working with an HR company but we have the final word. We emphasise experience, education, and performance; they are our priorities. I tend to give priority to my family members if there is an available candidate within the
family.

OWNER 4. We give priorities within the business. The manager candidate must be someone in an important position. Basically, we promote someone from the company to the manager position after internal training for the managerial position. If there is someone suitable from the family, we want to give them a chance first.

OWNER 7. To be honest, I don’t want to hire anyone from my relatives. The manager should carry some specific leadership characteristics, like good communication skills, creativity, crisis management, and vision, which are very important for me. If I had a son who didn’t have managerial skills, I wouldn’t hire him.

OWNER 8. He/she must be the one who can add something extra to our company, someone who has a good ability of communication with us, he/she is able to encourage employees and employees should respect him/her. I do not want to hire someone from my relatives, it all depends on the leadership ability of the person. The best manager should be the best leader for me.

OWNER 9. Actually, we prefer to hire someone internally, but for some positions, we have some help from a consultancy company. The manager must get respect from all the directors of the departments and our family. Although we are a listed company, traditional family business rules are valid in our company. I appointed to all the key positions someone from my family: my daughters, son-in-law or someone who is well-educated from my family.

OWNER 10. We prefer an experienced leader to hire, either within the company or not. But they should carry leadership characteristics; Managers must be successful in order to hold onto their authority and serve as role models for other employees.
OWNER 11. I would choose the best candidate from my family, but they must show themselves in the company first. Of course, some characteristics are important. They should show respect to us, they should know that we are a family business. We struggled too much to bring our company in this position. They should understand our company and family culture. We train our family members to be in the management positions because we don’t think people from outside will have enough loyalty to the company.

OWNER 12. I consider people’s performance and the way they deal with problems. Communication and coordination abilities are too important. Education and experience are also very important. In my point of view, experienced candidates can be our managers.

OWNER 13. In contrast to a traditional family business mentality, I don’t want to work with someone from my relatives or my wife’s relatives. I consider my work as a family, it should have some regulations, it should have its own culture. I look at people’s abilities. Whether she/he can manage the best way and they have to be a responsible person. He/she has to be open-minded and should encourage his/her followers in a good way. They have to comply with us as one of our family members.

OWNER 14. I have a couple of people from my relatives, but I consider their abilities rather than who they are. They should be educated, experienced or open to be trained. I prefer to assign my position to one of my sons and prefer to see my daughter in one of the key positions. But, they are all qualified and able to sustain our company culture. We are active in seven different sectors and none of them are managed by a person who comes from my family. Managing the organisation is the most important issue for me and I just looked at their background and qualifications. Leadership abilities, communication skills, languages, their entrepreneurship style, etc. is important. Also, due to globalisation, managers must have a global vision. I never hired someone for just being an acquaintance.
OWNER 15. Our company is a traditional family owned business. I tend to put my family members in the key positions but they respect and listen to me all the time. Even though I still do many things on my own, I do trust my relatives more than other people. Maybe it is just me.

OWNER 16. If someone from the family has the qualifications, I prefer them. As a traditional family business, we want to supply the job to our family members first. Even if they are not familiar with our company culture or our job, I can train them.

OWNER 17. We don’t have too many leader positions. I only have someone outside my family who is a farmer and who is extremely professional in olive harvesting. To be honest, I don’t prefer to work with someone from the relatives.

OWNER 18. Maybe it is not good but, I would like to deal with everything on my own. I have been working with many of my relatives for a long time. My nephews have been working with me but they are not in managing positions. Although they can’t decide on their own, I prefer to work with them rather than the people who I don’t know. At least they are from my family and I trust them.

OWNER 19. You know it is a family business and we deal with jewellery, precious stones and gold. You can’t trust everybody. Therefore, I would like to choose the people from my family, especially in the production departments. Almost all the shop managers are from my family. I don’t think people from outside will have enough loyalty to the company and I have no confidence in this idea of hiring professional managers from outside.
OWNER 20. We are working with a very professional HR company; they do the interviews but we just have the last word. In our company having a graduate degree, having studied abroad, and knowing one or two foreign languages are all required, as key points. To be honest, I am not a person who wants to supply a business to relatives only for their family ties. In international business, you need a global viewpoint. Knowing English and studying in another country are very important to us. This affects their chances of promotion.

As stated above, Question 5 gives sufficient information about 13 FOBs’ culture, however, Question 8 was asked for both support the Question 5 and identifying rest of 5 company’s culture (O7, O11, O13, O17 and O20).

Nine FOB owners (O1, O3, O4, O9, O11, O15, O16, O18 and O19) report that they tend to give priorities to their family member. They both stated that if there is a suitable candidate within the family they do not need to hire someone outside. They think loyalty is important and they do not trust someone from out of the family in terms of loyalty and trust. O3 and O9 mentioned that they decide who will work with them, even though they work with a professional HR companies. O19 think that, since their business is related with jewellery trust is the most important issue for them. By these responses, they support their paternalistic culture which they mentioned at Question 5. Moreover, even though, Owner 7, 11, 13, 17 and 20 described themselves as friendly leaders, their answers of Question 8 show their Laissez Faire characteristics clearly. However, 10 FOB owners show more trust in non-family employees than family members. O7, O8, O14, O17 and O20 mentioned that they do not want to work with their relatives and they both stated that experience, knowledge and education are more important for them. Moreover, O13 stated that he does not want to work with someone from his or his wife’s family members. O2, O12 and O13 give priority to their business and emphasises the importance of the experience.
Paternalistic cultures follow the traditional roles and the organisation is managed using hierarchical norms. Even though O20 described himself as a friendly and dealing with employees’ not only business life but also their private life, the answer of Question 8 answers shows that his organisation is far from the paternalistic culture.

Although some FOB owners’ leadership characteristics are identified clearly, some FOB owners’ (O5 and O6) business culture and leadership characteristics could not be identified with their interview responses. In order to better understand their leadership characteristics, these FOB owners’ employees were asked about their owner’s leadership style. According to the employee survey (Appendix 3), employees described their FOB owner as follows:
Table 5. Family business owners’ characteristics (C5-6)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>QUESTIONNAIRE ITEM</th>
<th>COMPANY 5</th>
<th>COMPANY 6</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>FOB owner makes all decisions on his own</strong></td>
<td>67% seldom, 22% never, 11% sometimes</td>
<td>37% never, 37% seldom, 26% sometimes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Everybody can talk with our business owner when they want</strong></td>
<td>89% always, 11% usually</td>
<td>47% always, 37% usually, 5 % sometimes, 11% seldom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Everyone can share their ideas with our managers</strong></td>
<td>56% agree, 44% strongly agree</td>
<td>32% strongly agree, 37% agree, 11% undecided, 16% disagree, 4% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Family business members make all decisions in this organisation</strong></td>
<td>66% agree, 11% strongly agree, 22% undecided</td>
<td>32% strongly agree, 38% agree, 15% undecided, 15% disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>New ideas and opportunities are explored</strong></td>
<td>66% always, 33% usually</td>
<td>32% always, 26% usually, 22% sometimes, 20% seldom</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

According to the employee survey, both O5 and O6 seems to follow a laissez-faire culture as decision-making is not centralised by the founder and the family is not considered to retain all decision-making authority. Not trusting others is one of the major characteristics of paternalistic cultures and, as stated by the majority of both sets of employees, their FOB leader does not make all decisions alone. Thus, these two organisations’ cultures can be taken as laissez-faire.

Twelve (Companies 3, 5, 6, 7, 8, 9, 12, 13, 16, 17, 18, 19) of twenty interview partners, run their business as a first generation. Five (Companies 1, 2, 11, 14, and 18) of twenty
interview partners, run their businesses as a second generation and three companies (Company 4, 10 and 15) run by third generations.

Dyer (1986; 1988) describes a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or, possibly, a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations. According to interview questions and employee survey, research participants’ expected and stated business culture and their generations showed below (Table 10).

Table 6. Family business culture and expected leadership characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>COMPANY</th>
<th>Generation</th>
<th>FOB owner’s age</th>
<th>FOB owner’s education</th>
<th>Expected Cultural pattern</th>
<th>Stated Cultural pattern</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>69</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Laissez faire/Participative</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>72</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Laissez faire/Participative</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>52</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>54</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>63</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>Master Degree</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>61</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>53</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>44</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Laissez-faire/Participative</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>55</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>58</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Master Degree</td>
<td>Laissez faire/Participative</td>
<td>Laissez faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>66</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Professional</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>60</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>51</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>59</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>Laissez-faire/Participative</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>71</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>First</td>
<td>57</td>
<td>PhD</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The business culture of the interview partner owners’ organisations and their leadership characteristics have been analysed so far. Even though researchers suggest that some cultural patterns are related to specific FOB generations, this study finds that cultural patterns of FOB culture and leadership characteristics are more related to each leader’s education, age, and the environment where they grew up and set up their FOB business. When we look at the results at Table 7, only 33% of first-generation FOBs seems to have paternalistic cultures while 67% show laissez-faire/participative culture characteristics. While when second-generation FOBs are supposed to have laissez-faire or participative cultures, 40% of second-generation FOB owners in this study seem to adopt a laissez-faire culture while 60% show a paternalistic culture. Interestingly, 100% of third-generation FOB owners show paternalistic cultural characteristics.

In total, 50% of all interview partners described themselves as paternalistic leaders while 50% showed laissez-faire characteristics. On the other hand, when FOB owner’s education level is examined, only 40% of paternalistic leaders had a university degree, while 60% had high school or lower. However, it was observed that 90% of laissez-faire company owners’ had university or higher degree education levels.

Research proposition 1. asserts that family leaders may differ significantly in their personal characteristics and attitudes, such as age and educational level. Whether paternalistic or participative FOB cultures develop in first or later generations depend on the FOB owners’ personal characteristics. To sum up, after examining the FOB owners’ interviews and the employee survey, whereas Dyer (1986) identified a temporal sequence of cultural patterns across FOB generations, the present study found that this sequence does not necessarily have to start with the paternalistic culture. This study examined whether certain cultural patterns are more likely depending on the incumbents’ education level. The second and third generations, which are expected to adopt laissez-faire/participative and professional cultures, if they show paternalistic culture it depends on their education level.
6.3. FOB owners and succession process

This study found that FOB owners play a key role due to the importance of their decisions. In order to capture the FOB’s personal approach to selecting a daughter as a successor, the previous chapter examined family business culture and its effect on FOB owner to understand FOB dynamics and FOB owners’ leadership characteristics. Here, the interaction between FOB owner, the family, enterprise and the daughter will be examined. However, in order to able to examining Research proposition 2 and 3, family business culture and leadership characteristics and the impact of selecting daughter as a successor will be examined using stewardship theory first.

6.3.1. FOB owner and daughter as a successor.

The main arguments of stewardship theory and agency theory differ in a number of dimensions, characterised as either psychological or situational factors. The psychological factors are motivation, identification, and use of power, while the situational factors are management philosophy and organisational culture (Davis et al., 1997). The purpose of this study was to investigate how organisational culture affects daughter succession processes in Turkey and the culture that challenges traditional gender role assumptions.

Research proposition 2 and 3 assert that “First generation FOB owners more easily accept a daughter as a successor without considering gender as a determining factor since a laissez-faire culture is more amenable to entrepreneurship than the paternalistic pattern” and “Paternalistic family business owners are less likely consider their daughters as a successor and more gender-centred than in laissez-faire cultures”.

In order to understand FOB owners’ approaches about choosing daughter as a successor, they were asked a couple of questions. First, they were asked (Appendix...
1, Question 6) Is there a certain successor for the leadership of the company? If succession is expected, has a date been set or announced?

Related part of the comments is shown on the next page;

OWNER 1. [...] my eldest daughter will be our organisation’s next leader. It is not expected now [...] (P)

OWNER 2. [...] I am planning to make my son the next CEO of the organisation. I am planning to resign in a year but the date has not been set and announced yet [...] (L)

OWNER 3. Yes, my daughter will be. The date is not clear yet. (P)

OWNER 4. [...] Everybody expected my son to be the next leader of our companies but, surprisingly, unfortunately, he decided to be an academician and stayed in the US. On the other hand, my daughter started to work with me after graduating from university. She has a degree in marketing and also has an experience in PR (Public Relations). I do not feel confident enough about her yet because she hasn’t got experience in another sector or company, therefore I want my daughter to have some experience apart from our business. The date hasn’t been announced yet. (P)

OWNER 5. Yes, my youngest daughter. We haven’t announced yet. (LF)

OWNER 6. Yes, we haven’t indicated the date and announced yet. (LF)

OWNER 7. [...] My daughter developed herself in order to be the next manager of our business. She is an architect and has been working together with us for five years. I do not wish to leave the business yet but I think I will announce in advance when I decide to resign [...] (LF)

OWNER 8. [...] Yes, my daughter will run the business. I would like to announce it in 3-4 years’ time [...] (LF)
OWNER 9. [...] Actually, to be honest, if I have a chance, I would like to leave my chair to my eldest son in law. He has extremely good experience and good leadership qualifications, but I think my daughter wants to be the next CEO. I think it will be happening this year and I will announce it to everyone [...] (P)

OWNER 10. [...] I have only one son and he is supposed to be the next CEO. However, he is a doctor and he is not interested in at all. My daughter will be the next CEO of our family business. [...] (P)

OWNER 11. Yes, my eldest daughter is willing to carry the leader position too much. Her abilities are suitable for it. Actually, she is already running our business but I would like to transfer all my responsibilities in a very short time. We haven’t announced a date yet. (P)

OWNER 12. [...] I want to leave my business to my son, of course in terms of management. I want my daughter to set up her own life if she wants she can work in our business but managing the constructing company as a girl is quite difficult. But, of course, we will see [...] (LF)

OWNER 13. I am working with my daughter and son. I think my son will run the business after me. Even though they both work with me I think my son will be the next CEO but I am sure my daughter will be responsible for some departments and will be a member of the board. The date is not clear yet. (LF)

OWNER 14. [...] My eldest son will be the next CEO of our conglomerate. I am sure my youngest son and my daughter will keep working at our business [...] (LF)
OWNER 15. [...] I wanted my son to work with us and to be the boss. But, he doesn’t want to work in this sector and we opened him a car gallery and he sells cars now. I have my daughter with me and she will run the business when I decide to retire. It will happen soon [...] (P)

OWNER 16. We are working together with my boy and girl. There are only 2 and a half years between them. Actually, I want my son to run the business after me but it might create a conflict between them because my daughter is also willing to manage the company. I haven’t decided yet who and when it will happen. (P)

OWNER 17. Luckily I have a daughter and she is happy working with us in that business. She will run the business but I am still young enough to work so we will work together some more time (LF)

OWNER 18. [...] I think my son will take after me. I am planning to resign next year [...] (P)

OWNER 19. [...] I tried to keep my daughter away from working [...] [...] On the other hand, the more I pushed my son, the more he hated this sector. I sent him to America, he studied business management. He started to work when he came back but neither him nor the employees didn’t like to work with him [...] [...] I am planning to leave everything to her in two-three years [...] (P)

OWNER 20. There are two possibilities, either my son or my brother’s son. But, my son has more chance and he is the oldest. If it will be agreed I am planning to hand over to my son. We are not planning to leave the work yet. (LF)
As examined in the previous chapter and shown in Table 7, in this study, only 33% of first-generation FOBs seems to have paternalistic cultures while 67% show laissez-faire culture characteristics. Also, as it was gathered from the previous analysis twelve FOBs are run by the first generation and four (Company; 3, 9, 16, 19) out of twelve FOBs were observed as a paternalistic FOBs, while eight (Company; 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 17, 20) of them shown laissez-faire cultural characteristics.

Per paternalistic owners’ comments, only one owner, O3, decided to hand over his business to his daughter. O9, as a paternalistic leader, even though he has three daughters, he intends to hand over his business to his son in law. Similarly, O16 and O19 also stated that, even though they both have daughters, they desired to make their son a new leader after them. When we look at the laissez-faire FOB owners; apart from one undecided owner (O6), O5, O7, O8 and O17 think their daughter will be able to manage their organisations, however, O12 and O13 think their business sector is not suitable for daughters. Similarly, O20 thinks there are two possibilities since their daughter is younger than boys, either his son or his brothers’ son.

Thus; when 25% of the first generation paternalistic FOB owners already decided to leave their businesses to their daughters, 57% first generation laissez-faire FOBs owners decided to leave their businesses to their daughters.

As an overall analysis, ten out of twenty FOBs show paternalistic and ten out of twelve show laissez-faire cultural characteristics. When we look at the paternalistic culture owners’ responds, only three out of ten FOB owners (O1, O3 and O11) decided to leave their business to their daughter without any doubt. Nonetheless, four owners show to much desire for to leave their business to their sons but, in two business (O4 and O10), since their boys’ decide to choose another carrier, they have to choose their daughter.
Similarly, even though, O15 and O19 intend to leave the business to their sons, due to the sector (jewellery and pastry) and their sons’ low interest, daughters were chosen as a successor. O16 and O18, as a paternalistic owner, leave their business to their sons and surprisingly, O9, even though he has three daughters want to leave their business to his biggest son in law.

In laissez-faire cultures, four out of nine (one owner (O6) did not mention anything about this issue) FOB owners decided to hand over their business to his daughters. However, five business owners show their preference at their sons’ side. O2 and O20 worry about the cousin conflict if they choose their daughters as a successor since they work with their brothers and they are too many boy candidates as a successor. O12 and O13 think their sector is not suitable for the woman and O14 has two eldest sons than his daughter and he doesn’t think she has enough experience yet.

Thus, when 30% paternalistic FOB owners desire to leave their business to their daughters, 44% of laissez-faire owners intend to leave it to their daughters.

In another question (Appendix 1; Question 11), FOB owners were asked, whether gender makes any difference when evaluating the successor and how?

Related part of FOB owners’ responds is shown below.

OWNER 1. [...] It does. It also depends on the sector. In our sector, I am sure if I would have a son, it couldn’t be as easy as it is now [...] (P)

OWNER 2. [...] Girl or boy does not matter for me. However, I do not know what I would think if I had an elder son. Gender is important for managing, especially for a business like ours [...] (LF)
OWNER 3. In my point of view, I would consider the capability rather than gender. It is not important for me. (P)

OWNER 4. It is. I would prefer to hand over my position to my son, but, unfortunately, he can’t. I think in Turkey being a female leader and running the business is more difficult than being a male leader. (P)

OWNER 5. [...] I think girls have disadvantages for having a baby, spending time with their family and husband [...] (LF)

OWNER 6. I don’t need to think about it because I have three daughters. (LF)

OWNER 7. It does not make any difference for me. I am happy to have a daughter but even I have a son. I would consider the talent and ability rather than the gender. (LF)

OWNER 8. In my point of view, it does not play an important role. I am so happy for having two girls and my eldest daughter is more talented than many of my male staff. (LF)

OWNER 9. [...] I think it does. I would prefer to hand over my business to someone who can handle everything. You know, this is a men’s world and business life is gathered with them. Even though my daughters and, many other entrepreneur women do not accept it, it is difficult for a woman. Per me, women should focus on their marriage and kids. (P)

OWNER 10. No, it is not. My eldest child is a boy but he won’t run our business and my daughter can do what he is supposed to do. The importance is their talents; gender is not important. (P)

OWNER 11. I think it depends on the sector. Our business is more women oriented and women can run this business, thus I am quite lucky. My daughter can run this business. However, if I need to talk about Turkey and running a business as a woman; gender is important. (P)
**OWNER 12.** It does, especially at construction industry. Because it is a men business, you must check the area, deal with workers, need to buy and check the products etc. It is important to evaluate the successor. (LF)

**OWNER 13.** It never makes any difference for my family and our business. We evaluate their talents and their contribution to the company. That is important for us. Gender never makes any difference. (LF)

**OWNER 14.** It does not but I don’t know, my son is the eldest and he will take over. I don’t know what I would do if I had a daughter older than my son. I think she would be the next leader. (LF)

**OWNER 15.** [...] It does but I am lucky that our family business is suitable for women more than men. But, to be honest, I would prefer my son to take over the business. Actually, he also thinks that this business is not suitable for a man [...] (P)

**OWNER 16.** [...] It is important to evaluate our business. It is difficult for a woman. I have been running this business for more than 40 years and it is already difficult even for me as a man who grew up in this environment [...] (P)

**OWNER 17.** It does not. It just depends on the leadership characteristics. (LF)

**OWNER 18.** [...] All family owned business owners want to leave their businesses to their sons as a legacy [...] (P)

**OWNER 19.** [...] It is very important for our culture, especially in the Black Sea region. Every father wants to leave their business to their sons. But, unfortunately, my son did not do it, did not work at this sector [...] (P)

**OWNER 20.** Never. My oldest kid is a boy, but even he doesn’t want to do my job. And if my daughter wants to run the business instead of her brother, I can transfer it to her. (LF)

Like previous quotes, the majority of the first generation paternalistic FOB owners think the business life is not suitable for a woman, except O3, they both think a woman
should concentrate their family life. When we look at the Laissez-faire cultures; 75% of first generation FOB owners think that capacity is more important than gender.

As an overall consideration of the question 11, eight (O1, O4, O9, O11, O15, O16, O18, O19) out of ten paternalistic FOB owners state that gender is an important factor for choosing a successor, because some of them (O1, O16) state the importance of the sector and some (O18, O19) mentioned the regional cultural characteristics. On the other hand, six (O7, O8, O13, O14, O17 and O20) out of nine laissez-faire interview partners did not agree with evaluating gender while considering their successor, instead stating that they just look at talent. To sum, while 80% of paternalistic FOB owners see gender as a barrier for the woman, 67% of laissez-faire FOB owners never think gender as a barrier for them.

As the last question, in order to understand more, differences between paternalistic and laissez-faire cultures, in terms of gendered assumptions, FOB owners were asked (Appendix 1; Question 13) \textit{If you had an older son, would you have chosen your daughter as the successor? Why?}

Comments are shown below.

\textit{OWNER 1.} [...] If I had an older son, I think I would choose him and I have to choose my son. (P)

\textit{OWNER 2.} No, I don’t think so, but in succession rules, I must choose my son instead of my daughter. Like my father did. (LF)

\textit{OWNER 3.} Not because of their gender, but as a family owned business leader I have to choose the oldest one. If my son wants to be the next leader I think I wouldn’t consider my daughter. (P)
OWNER 4. [...] I have a son older than my daughter but unfortunately, I will hand my business over to my daughter because my son works as an academician. (P)

OWNER 5. It depends on my older son’s capability, character and education. I will choose the one who will be more helpful to our business. I don’t determine in order to their age. (LF)

OWNER 6. It doesn’t make any difference. Either boy or girl is not important. The most important thing is, who is going to be able to value and continue the long-lasting effort. (LF)

OWNER 7. [...] Gender is not important for me and my family. The important thing is their talent, experience and performance [...]. (LF)

OWNER 8. I can’t imagine it now but it all depends on them. If my daughter would be more suitable for this position, why not? They can arrange an agreement between them. (LF)

OWNER 9. To be honest, I don’t think so. I think no one skips over their son and make their daughter the next leader. (P)

OWNER 10. [...] To be honest, if my son hadn’t been a doctor I wanted to leave my position to him. But I am happy for him being a doctor. Under normal circumstances, no one would choose their second child, especially a daughter as a leader, instead of their son. (P)

Response 11. No, I don’t and no one does under normal circumstances. (P)

OWNER 12. I am planning to choose my son although my eldest child is my daughter. Because this is a construction business and I think men are more suitable for it. (LF)

OWNER 13. Neither gender nor age is important for me. It is up to them; they will agree about it. I won’t make a choice. However, in this condition that you asked, I might not choose my daughter instead of my son. (LF)

OWNER 14. I don’t think so. But it is difficult to answer it, you cannot imagine it without knowing her talent and experience. If I would have a daughter, her performance would
play an important role and my son’s performance also. Then I could make a choice. (LF)

OWNER 15. I have already done this. Even though I wanted to see my son to run our business he didn’t want and I must leave our business to my daughter. But it isn’t my choice. (P)

OWNER 16. No, I think I wouldn’t. Because it is his right, as long as he wants, he would be the next leader. (P)

OWNER 17. If I would have a younger son like my daughter now, I would absolutely do it. According to me, it depends on their performance. (LF)

OWNER 18. I don’t think so because it won’t be fair. (P)

OWNER 19. No, I won’t do it. No one would do it. (P)

OWNER 20. I do not care about the age. Someone will run our business who has more talent and desire. (LF)

To able to evaluating first generation FOB owners’ gendered norms, when we look at the above quotes; the whole paternalistic leaders agree upon to not to choose their daughter as a successor if she has an eldest son. However, only one (O12) out of eight owners think they would choose his son if he eldest. Rest of seven owners agree upon the importance of the capabilities and performance.

Thus, while 100% of paternalistic leaders think they never choose their youngest girl as a successor if she has an eldest brother, only 13 % of laissez-faires leaders think like paternalistic ones. 87% of laissez-faire owners think that the gender is not important for choosing a successor.

When looking at the whole response, similar to the previous result, 100% of paternalistic owners think, if they have an eldest son, it’s his right to be a successor.
Moreover, O10, O11 and O19 stated that not only them no one would choose their youngest daughter if she has an eldest son.

O4, O10 and O15, even though they will hand over their businesses to their daughters, they don’t think it is fair and added, if their sons accepted to be the next leader, they wouldn’t have chosen their daughters as a successor. When we look at the laissez-faire responds; only two (O2 and O12) out of ten respondents think it is a succession rule and they don’t do it. O12 also stressed the importance of the sector. To sum, when 80% of laissez-faire FOB owners think, they would choose their youngest daughter as a successor, if she has sufficient characteristics, experience and talent, while 20% of them think it is not suitable for the succession rules and the sector is considered as a barrier for the woman.

In family businesses, family ownership and family leadership are accepted as a key control mechanism. It comes as no surprise that majority of paternalistic and a minority of laissez-faire FOB owners, who are all male, declared that gender is an important factor in selecting a successor and most of them prefer to hand over their businesses to their son if they have one. In several cases, the owner had considered the gender of the successor, finding this to be a normal process. They both stressed the difficulties of being a woman in business life, seeing marriage and motherhood as barriers for women, and if business life in Turkey is a man’s world and business life is unsuitable for a woman.

Considering women in business life, the sector is also challenging FOB owners’ regarding choosing their daughter as a successor. As discussed by Thebaud (2010), since entrepreneurship is viewed as a male-type task, men make higher self-assessments of their entrepreneurial competence than women. FOB owners claimed that as well as accepting gender as an important factor for evaluating the successor, the company’s business sector also plays an important role. Thus, they accept that
jewellery, textiles or bakery businesses are suitable for women, they do not think construction, and transport or businesses dealing with farmers are.

To sum, these interview results show that first generation laissez-faire FOB leaders more easily accept a daughter as a successor without considering gender as a critical because such founders often display characteristics of an entrepreneurial personality and a laissez-faire leadership style more easily accepts a daughter as a successor than paternalistic leadership style since the laissez-faire culture is more amenable to entrepreneurship than the paternalistic pattern. In contrast, paternalistic family business culture leaders consider gender more than laissez-faire culture leaders.

6.3.2. FOB owners and family interaction for selecting daughters as successors

Each family business has its own history and specific family culture passed down the generations to play an important role during the succession process. FOB members are tied to each other through strong connections. This specific relationship between FOB family members is termed ‘familiness’. As discussed in the literature review, familiness was first defined by Habbershon et al. (2003) as interactions between family members, the family unit itself, individuals, and the business, which lead to positive synergies that create competitive advantages for the firm.

Research proposition 4 claims that FOB owners in paternalistic cultures will follow traditional roles and will not let family members affect his/her decisions. Similarly, stewardship theory/ posits a model of man “based on a steward whose behaviour is ordered such that pro-organisational, collectivist behaviours have higher utility than individualistic, self-serving behaviours” (Davis et al., 1997, p.24). In order to understand the influence of family members on FOB owners’ decisions and examine
the owners’ self-serving behaviours and the family’s effect on the succession process in paternalistic cultures, employees were asked about their FOBs and the family. Employee responses regarding the FOB owner’s family are provided below.

Table 7. Family effects on family business owner decision processes in paternalistic FOBs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>FOB owner makes all decisions on his own</th>
<th>Family affects FOB owner’s decisions</th>
<th>Board of directors affects owner’s decisions</th>
<th>Family business members make all decisions in this organisation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>30% always, <strong>40% usually</strong>, 20% sometimes, 10% seldom</td>
<td>10% always, <strong>30% usually</strong>, 20% sometimes, 25% seldom, 15% never</td>
<td>10% usually, 5% sometimes, 50% seldom, 35% never</td>
<td><strong>75% strongly agree</strong>, 20% agree, 5% undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>22% always, <strong>67% usually</strong>, 11% sometimes</td>
<td>22% sometimes, <strong>56% seldom</strong>, 22% never</td>
<td>33% sometimes, 56% seldom, 11% never</td>
<td><strong>22% agree</strong>, 33% undecided, <strong>45% disagree</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>11% always, <strong>32% usually</strong>, 21% sometimes, 26% seldom, 10% never</td>
<td>32% usually, 21% sometimes, <strong>37% seldom</strong>, 10% never</td>
<td>5% usually, 21% sometimes, 37% seldom, 37% never</td>
<td><strong>21% agree</strong>, 36% undecided, <strong>37% disagree</strong>, 6% never</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>10% usually, 30% seldom, 35% sometimes, 25% never</td>
<td>5% usually, 40% sometimes, 35% seldom, 20% never</td>
<td>20% always, 30% usually, 40% sometimes, 10% seldom</td>
<td><strong>25% strongly agree</strong>, 30% agree, 25% undecided, 20% disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>C</td>
<td>FOB owner makes all decisions on his own</td>
<td>Family affects FOB owner’s decisions</td>
<td>Board of directors affects owner’s decisions</td>
<td>Family business members make all decisions in this organisation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>14% usually, <strong>43% sometimes</strong>, 28% seldom, 15% never</td>
<td>14% usually, <strong>71% sometimes</strong>, 15% seldom</td>
<td>14% usually, 71% sometimes, 15% seldom</td>
<td><strong>14% agree</strong>, 29% undecided, <strong>57% disagree</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>39% always, 33% usually, <strong>28% sometimes</strong></td>
<td>11% always, 61% usually, <strong>17% sometimes</strong>, 11% seldom</td>
<td>17% usually, <strong>28% sometimes</strong>, 33% seldom, 22% never,</td>
<td><strong>68% strongly agree</strong>, 16% agree, 16% undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>22% always, <strong>88% usually</strong></td>
<td>11% always, <strong>56% usually</strong>, 22% seldom, 11% never</td>
<td>33% usually, 17% sometimes, 50% seldom</td>
<td><strong>78% strongly agree</strong>, 22% agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td><strong>100% usually</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% always</td>
<td>60% seldom, 40% never</td>
<td>40% seldom, 60% never</td>
<td>100% strongly agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-------------</td>
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<td>----------------------</td>
<td>---------------------</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>100% always</td>
<td>11% usually, 11% sometimes, 88% seldom</td>
<td></td>
<td>89% strongly agree, 11% agree</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

People who believe that superiors should have a great degree of power over subordinates are considered high on the power-distance orientation (Lee et al., 2000), as are those who believe that authority figures should be respected and shown deference (Yang et al., 2007). In contrast, individuals lower on power distance do not perceive many distinctions based on power or hierarchical position. Power distance is particularly important as it signals inequality and power dynamics between social groups (Ramaswami et al., 2014).

In the previous section, 50% of FOBs were found to have paternalistic cultures. Although the stewardship approach assumes that family firm members may hold family firm objectives higher than their individual objectives, FOB owners tend to follow their rules. A key component of the stewardship perspective of the family firm is altruism, which is also supported by Corbetta and Salvato (2004) as the concept of altruism in the stewardship framework is that of unselfish concern and devotion to others without expected return.

In 80% of the paternalistic enterprises in this study, a majority of the employees reported that their FOB owners make all decisions on their own. Only 10% of paternalistic culture FOBs, the majority of employees think the board of directors affect FOB owners’ decisions, has while 50% think FOB members make all decisions in their company.
6.3.3. FOB owners and enterprise interaction in FOBs

Stewardship theory is a suitable perspective for viewing the family as a resource because it depicts organisational members as collectivists, pro-organisational, and trustworthy (Davis et al., 1997). Moreover, the theory presents a relationship-based system that explains the strong psychological ownership of the firm and the high level of altruism. Research propositions 5 and 6 asserted that family business culture affects the degree of employees’ identification and collectivist behaviours. Research proposition 5 assert that family member employees have more job satisfaction than non-family member employees; family member employees feel their managers have more impact on them than non-family member employees in paternalistic family business culture.

In order to able to analyse family and non-family member employees job satisfaction, collectivist culture and perceived impact of their managers in paternalistic cultures, employees were asked three questions (Appendix 2; Section 1: Questions 10, Section 2: Question 1 and 3). Survey results from the paternalistic family business cultures (Company 1, 3, 4, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 18, 19) non-family member employees’ assumptions are shown below (Table 14). In order to able to observe paternalistic family business employees’ satisfaction, 119 employee’s survey in 10 companies are examined. The majority of employees (91%) are work as a non-family member employee.
Table 8. Paternalistic family business culture and non-family member employee job satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am satisfied with my business</th>
<th>People work like they are a part of team</th>
<th>Everyone believes that our managers have a great impact on us</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>37% always</td>
<td>54% strongly agree</td>
<td>28% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>44% usually</td>
<td>29% agree</td>
<td>37% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15% sometimes</td>
<td>12% undecided</td>
<td>30% undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4% seldom</td>
<td>5% disagree</td>
<td>4% disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

As can be seen in the table, a majority of non-family member employees agreed with their organisations’ collectivist culture and seems to satisfy with their businesses and believed that their managers have a great impact on them. On the other hand, when we look at the family member employees’ survey results in same companies, results support research proposition 5 and family member employees satisfaction and acceptance of great impact of managers’ are shown clearly. (Table 15).

Table 9. Paternalistic family business culture and family member employee job satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am satisfied with my business</th>
<th>People work like they are a part of team</th>
<th>Everyone believes that our managers have a great impact on us</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>82% always</td>
<td>36% strongly agree</td>
<td>55% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18% usually</td>
<td>64% agree</td>
<td>45% agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Research proposition 6 assert that a laissez-faire family business culture will be positively associated with employees’ collectivist behaviour, although they are less steward than paternalistic employees and feel less impact from their managers than paternalistic culture employees.

In order to able to analyse the employees’ job satisfaction and perceived impact of their managers in laissez-faire cultures, employees were asked three questions (Appendix 2; Section 1: Questions 10, Section 2: Question 1 and 3). Survey results from the laissez-faire family business cultures (Company 2, 5, 6, 7, 8, 12, 13, 14, 20) the whole employees’ assumptions are shown below (Table 10). In order to able to observe employee satisfaction, 133 employee survey in 9 companies are examined in.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am satisfied with my business</th>
<th>People work like they are a part of team</th>
<th>Everyone believes that our managers have a great impact on us</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>30% always</td>
<td>26% strongly agree</td>
<td>9% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>35% usually</td>
<td>43% agree</td>
<td>35% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26% sometimes</td>
<td>16% undecided</td>
<td>24% undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8% seldom</td>
<td>13% disagree</td>
<td>22% disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1% never</td>
<td>2% strongly disagree</td>
<td>10% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, when laissez-faire family business culture was examined, the results were somewhat different to those for paternalistic family business cultures.
Table 11. Paternalistic family business culture and employee satisfaction.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>I am satisfied with my business</th>
<th>People work like they are a part of team</th>
<th>Everyone believes that our managers have a great impact on us</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>41% always</td>
<td>52% strongly agree</td>
<td>30% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>42% usually</td>
<td>32% agree</td>
<td>38% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13% seldom</td>
<td>11% undecided</td>
<td>27% undecided</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5% never</td>
<td>4% disagree</td>
<td>3% disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>1% strongly disagree</td>
<td>2% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Kellermanns and Eddleston (2004) argue that when the controlling individuals have a strong desire for authority, trust levels may decrease, which can harm the stewardship tendencies in family firms. Paternalistic family business employees, especially family member employees, due to the impact of managers on them might show less stewardship than laissez-faire culture employees. Hence, kinship ties to the founder or the owner may empower stewardship tendencies in family member employees in family firms. As can be seen at Table 16, employees are shown less stewardship, less collectivist and feel less impact from their managers than paternalistic cultures, which supports research proposition 6.

Stewardship theory derives from social psychology to examine relations in organisations where members tend to be collectivists (Davis et al., 1997). Employees who are stewards hold common goals of the firm and work as part of a team. According to the stewardship approach, family members may hold family firm objectives higher than their individual objectives. Therefore, the different assumptions of the family members’ employees from the non-family member employees was an unsurprising result. The survey results showed that, while family member employees were more satisfied with their business, they also considered that their managers have a great impact on the employees. However, while they both report their organisation as a collectivist, as a paternalistic family business, family member employees’ degree of acceptance was higher than that of non-family member employees.
6.3.4. The FOB family and daughter interaction in FOB

Research proposition 7 asserts that; daughters in paternalistic family businesses are less likely show motivation to be a successor and less likely show early commitment. On the other hand, research proposition 8 asserts that; daughters in laissez-faire family business cultures are more encouraged by their families to gain outside experience due to their entrepreneurial and educational background. Using stewardship theory, this study also examined the family effect on daughters’ succession process in FOBs.

One of the family-specific factors affecting succession is motivation from the family. The literature emphasises the importance of education and experience for daughters to gain leadership positions (Kaslow, 2006; Dumas, 1992; Vera and Dean, 2005; Wang, 2010) and Gallo and Point (1994) find that the most successful international family firms are those whose successors have education and work experience outside their home country as well as outside their company. In several cases in this study, the daughters reported that they were encouraged by their family to gain education and experience. This generally had an important facilitating effect on succession.

The reflective, semi-structured interviews allowed the daughter participants to share, in their own words, their perceptions and understandings of their experiences that led to their current positions of leadership in their family businesses. The second interview question (Appendix 2, Question2) asked, “What kind of work experience do you have? Did you work outside the family business? If yes, why did you leave? What do you bring to the family business as a result of this work? Did the family business encourage you in outside work experience? Why or why not?” Participants were encouraged to say as much as they wanted before further probing questions were asked. As examined in section 6.3.1., there was a close relationship between daughters’ outside experience, the family’s business culture and the owner family’s educational background. Laissez-faire family business cultures pay more attention to
outside experience of daughters than paternalistic cultures.

Comments are shown below.

**DAUGHTER 1.** [...] My family, especially my father, encouraged me too much to get experience outside our business in terms of management and culture [...] (P)

**DAUGHTER 2.** [...] My family didn’t want me to work outside our business so I don’t have any other experience. If I had a chance, I would like to have it [...] (LF)

**DAUGHTER 3.** [...] Yes, I have one year of experience outside our business [...] [...]To be honest, it wasn’t my family’s idea; I just wanted to stay in Istanbul [...] (P)

**DAUGHTER 4.** [...] Not my mother, but my father encouraged me to get experience, especially in a foreign country. I worked in one PR agency’s marketing department and it was an enormous experience for me. I met many people and I learned many different things. It taught me how to be an employee, and now I can understand the people who are working with me. I can understand what they expect, what they think, what makes them happy or unhappy [...] [...] I have been working as a general manager in our business for 9 years and I have also one and a half year working experience in the UK. Not my mother but my father encouraged me to have experience, especially in a foreign country. I worked in one PR agency’s marketing department and it was an enormous experience for me”. (P)

**DAUGHTER 5.** [...] I haven’t worked outside the family business. My family did not support us to work outside the family business but also it did not force us. They just encouraged us to work in the family business [...] (LF)

**DAUGHTER 6.** No, just start at family business. (LF)
DAUGHTER 7. [...] To be honest, in order to get extra experience and see another family culture, working as an employee instead of the manager’s daughter, my family wanted me to work as an employee in another job [...] (LF)

DAUGHTER 8. [...] I haven’t worked in any other workplace, even though my family wanted me to have extra work experience outside our family business. I don’t know how it would have affected my managerial performance if I had some experience [...] (LF)

DAUGHTER 9. [...] No I don’t have any other experience. (P)

DAUGHTER 10. [...] Yes, I have two years working experience in America as a consultant just after graduation [...] I can say, Mr. X, who is the owner of our business and father of 2 daughters, encouraged us to get work experience outside. However, on the other hand, when you have working experience out of Turkey, you start to compare the two countries’ business life and sometimes it makes you unhappy [...] (P)

DAUGHTER 11. [...] I didn’t have a chance. I started to work in our business while I was a student at the university. My father was looking forward to my graduation to pass some responsibilities on to me [...] (P)

DAUGHTER 12. [...] Yes, I have. I worked two years in one architectural office as an architect. I worked at the very entry level but it taught me many things. It was quite a very good experience for me [...] (LF)

DAUGHTER 13. [...] I got an offer from my university in order to be an academician but I didn’t accept it. My father said that I could stay in the university if I wanted to, but I preferred to work at our business [...] (LF)
DAUGHTER 14. [...] Yes, I worked two years at my university as an assistant professor in America. However, I wanted to be in the business life more and luckily the most suitable place for me was our own business”. (LF)

DAUGHTER 15. [...] No, I didn’t have any chance of it because my brother didn’t want to work at our business and I had to start to work with my father […] (P)

DAUGHTER 16. [...] No, I didn’t work outside our family business. No one asked me about it, and also I didn’t want it […] (P)

DAUGHTER 17. [...] After graduating from university, I wanted to start to work with my father but he wanted me to have some other experience. I graduated from the faculty of international relations, and it has no relation to the olive business. Then I found a very good job in one of the very famous Turkish newspapers. I worked there for two years as a researcher […] (LF)

DAUGHTER 18. No, I don’t have. They let me work in our own business with a heavy heart. They wouldn’t let me work in any other place. (P)

DAUGHTER 19. [...] Yes, I worked two years as an English teacher in a high school. It was my mother’s dream to see me as a teacher. But my heart was in the jewellery business and luckily I got it. Of course, my family didn’t encourage me to work in another business to add something extra to our business […] (P)

DAUGHTER 20. [...] No, I didn’t have. Actually, my father insisted that I had some other experience but I didn’t want to […] (LF)

In a number of cases in this study, the daughters reported that they were encouraged by their family to gain education and experience. Some (D3, D19) reported that they have an outside experience even though they were not encouraged, while some (D17, D20) reported they don’t have, even though, they were encouraged. Such daughters, who represent 50% of the sample, as can be seen on the table, have very well-educated families. The important points from this table are that first-generation families, who were expected to carry paternalistic cultures, they were both carry
laissez-faire culture and supported their daughters gaining outside experience, also they both very well-educated.

Table 12. Family structure and family business culture of motivated successors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daughter</th>
<th>Run by generation</th>
<th>Family business culture</th>
<th>Father’s Education/age</th>
<th>Mother’s education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>University / 52</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>University / 52</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>Master degree / 54</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>University / 57</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>University / 53</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>University / 55</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>PhD / 58</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>2nd</td>
<td>Laissez-Faire</td>
<td>Master / 71</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>University / 51</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20</td>
<td>1st</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>PhD / 57</td>
<td>Master</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

On the other hand, ten participants reported that they were not encouraged by their families to gain outside experience. As can be mentioned in literature review section paternalism occurs in a hierarchical relationship between a “superior” and “subordinate” who occupy different roles and the role of the “superior” is provide care, protection and guidance to the “subordinate” in both work and non-work domains (Mussolino & Calabro, 2014). In a broad sense, in the FOB context, paternalist FOB owners seem to protect daughters not only from the outside experience but also working life. Additionally, as can be seen at Table, 70% of daughters’ who hasn’t got any outside experience works in paternalistic FOBs and the only one has a university graduated father, rest of those 70%’s father is graduated from high school and lower. When we look at those 70%’s mothers’ education, the highest degree is high school graduation. When we look at the previous chapter, the main differences were observed to be in the family’s education more than business culture. Even though FOB owners with a paternalistic culture seem not to encourage their daughters to gain outside experience, the educational background was the dominant factor.
Table 13. Family business culture and family education of daughters, who did not motivated by their families.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Daughter</th>
<th>Run by generation</th>
<th>Family business culture</th>
<th>Father’s education/age</th>
<th>Mother’s education</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd}</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>High School / 72</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>University / 59</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>University / 68</td>
<td>University</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>University</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>High School</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>High School / 65</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>3\textsuperscript{rd}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>High School / 66</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>High School / 64</td>
<td>High School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18</td>
<td>2\textsuperscript{nd}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Primary School / 62</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19</td>
<td>1\textsuperscript{st}</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Primary School / 71</td>
<td>Primary School</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Family characteristics influence the successor’s development because they affect the quality of the relationship between predecessor and successor, and the level of family commitment to the business. This section has shown that paternalistic and uneducated family business owners do not tend to send their daughters another company to gain outside experience whereas laissez-faire and educated families support and encourage their daughters to do this.

In 12 cases, either under their family’s influence or through their own decision, early commitment during childhood or as the basis of their educational choice was reported as a motivation factor by the daughters. During interviews conducted for this study, daughters who work at their family business made the following statements that demonstrate the research approach and provide an induction for the topic the study will investigate. Quotes demonstrating early commitment attributes in twelve interview partners can be found below.
**D1:** I graduated from the university’s jewellery department in order to be effective in our business. No one in our family has an experience like me about damaskeen or designing. Yes, I think the business needs me as much as I need the business. We started to deal with precious stones after I started to work in our business. I think I added some value to our business. *(Appendix 2: Question 3).*

He [he father] sacrificed lots of things; first of all, his youth and his dreams. He worked all his life in order to be able to give us a comfortable life. Yes, absolutely, it affected my decision to come and join the business. *(Appendix 2: Question 15).*(P)

**D3:** My father used to work on his own. He set up this business and he was struggling to deal with everything like production, transportation, export, purchasing, etc. He called me to work with him and as soon as I joined, he was so happy about it. Maybe our business doesn’t need my best skills but I have been trying to improve myself to improve our business. *(Appendix 2: Question 3).*(P)

**D5:** I studied marketing and PR and, at that time, we didn’t have a marketing and sales department. We had just an export department. But it was the time to develop customer relations and find new customers. My father thought that I am suitable for this position. *(Appendix 2: Question 3).*(LF)

**D6:** Our father has been in this sector like 40 years and our factory opened 34 years ago. All through these years, if you ask me what your father did, I can say he gave all his life to his work. His sacrifice is his life. I believe it is quite big enough as a sacrifice. However, if there is a victory at the end, it is always worth facing these sacrifices. And yes, his sacrifices influenced my decision to work in the business. *(Appendix 2: Question 15).*(LF)

**D7:** All my colleagues and my family find me very entrepreneurial and risk taker. I am not afraid of starting new businesses, new investments. My father always trusts my
sixth sense. Actually, it is not my sixth sense, I just believe in our reputation in the market and we have a fantastic human resources department. I don’t have any other experience, I learned everything in our business but we are a very corporate organisation and I am happy about it. (Appendix 2: Question 7). (LF)

D8. My father tells me that I am the fresh blood of the business. I am the newest employee and started to work as a manager. Some of my friends and my father’s friends criticise this decision but I think I am sufficient enough for this position and I am sure my family hired me because of my self-confidence. I can even manage difficult decisions easily. My father is more emotional than I am and as he has been working with them for a long time his decisions are more sentimental than mine (Appendix 2: Question 7).

D8. He sacrificed his life to the business. He spent his life at our factory. I remember that when I was a child he used to sleep at the factory some nights. To be honest, he loves being sociable and loves to eat and drink well, but we used to do it very rarely. Now he is better and I am happy to be the person who enabled him this little comfort (Appendix 2: Question 15).(LF)

D9: Nothing happens without sacrifice. Of course, he gave up doing many things. We did start to work to help him and luckily we were able to supply this freedom to him. (Appendix 2: Question 15).(P)

D11: I am the eldest daughter of my father and I studied food engineering. Actually, I chose that department to support my future because I already knew that I was going to work in our business. I think my father hired me because of all the effort I made to work here. (Appendix 2: Question 3).(P)

D12: He sacrificed his family life. I don’t remember any night we sat on the dinner table together. He studied too hard. I want to reduce his workload as far as he allows. (Appendix 2: Question 15).

D12: They hired me because I was qualified to work in our business and I was already better than many managers who had been working for us for many years ... I don’t care about being the next successor but I feel I am qualified enough... I am the only
one now who graduated from a foreign university and I am very good at communicating with foreigners, either when they visit us or when I join meetings in a foreign country. *Appendix 2: Question 3.*

**D13:** *My father always says he will leave this business to us.* He always wants us to work on ourselves. He says, the more we improve this business, the more we will be happy and comfortable. We do everything with my brother and I think we will run [the business] together without indicating that one is more responsible than the other. *Appendix 2: Question 5.***

**D14:** I am the *only one in our family who graduated as an electronic engineer* but it cannot be counted as a reason to work in our business because there are many electronic engineers working with us. I think they just hired me because they didn’t want me to work in any other place. *Appendix 2: Question 3.*

**D17:** We are a very small family business and I am working with my father. *I grew up in this business and it was always interesting for me.* *Appendix 2: Question 3*. 

Table 14 gives an overview of the early committed daughters’ motivation issues. In a number of cases, there was a clear interest in the activities of the family business (D1, D3, D5, D6, D7, D8, D13, D14, and D17). Additionally, D1, D3, D6, D8, D15, and D17 reported a general interest in the business, which influences their decisions.

Interview partners D1, D3, D8, D13, D14 and D17 also expressed the feeling a connection between employees. Interview partners D1, D3, D5, D7, and D13 reported feeling the father’s wish early for the child to join the family business. D5 reported having felt a sense of responsibility and obligation to the family. D4 made their decision rather early, as their decisions also depended on their older brother’s decision. D11 mentioned the need to combine work and child-care demands as reasons for considering joining the family business. D11 stressed the financial issue as a motivation factor and having more holiday was also stressed by D5 as a pushing factor to the business. The comments of D3, D6, and D9 demonstrated their great
respect for their fathers’ sacrifice for the business, highlighting the importance of their fathers’ efforts to enable them to run the businesses, and his necessity to push them to work there.

Table 14. Family business culture and early committed daughters’ motivation factors.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Company</th>
<th>Family business culture</th>
<th>Motivation issues</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>- Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Helping the father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>- Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Father’s entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Helping the father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Family’s encouragement</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Absence of another successor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Making money easily,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Make holiday more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Admiring father’s sacrifice to their business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Giving more confidence and trust by the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Role model family members</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Giving more confidence and trust by the family</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Growing up in the business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Helping to her father</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Making money easily</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Need to combine work and childcare</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Reducing father’s workload,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Admiring father’s sacrifice to their business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Father’s strong enthusiasm to their business and his entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>Laissez-faire</td>
<td>- Education</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Father’s great entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- General interest in the business</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17</td>
<td>Paternalistic</td>
<td>Encouraged by father,</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Feeling father’s high trust</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Father’s great entrepreneurial characteristics</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>- Growing up in the business</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When we look at the motivation issues and FOB culture, we can see that, daughters, who grown up in laissez-faire family culture were more motivated than those who grown up and study in paternalistic cultures.
To sum, interview results show and support research proposition 7; daughters in paternalistic family businesses are less likely show motivation to be a successor and less likely show early commitment. On the other hand, daughters in laissez-faire family business cultures are more encouraged by their families to gain outside experience due to their entrepreneurial and educational background and support research proposition 8.

6.3.5. The family business culture, employee perception and accepting daughter as a successor

As shown by previous research, a good relationship with the employees of the enterprise can facilitate the succession process (Schuman et al., 2010; Haberman and Danes, 2007; Otten-Pappas, 2015). Likewise, in this study, 15% of daughters indicated that the main advantage of working outside of their business was to learn how to understand employees better (Appendix 2, Question 2), believing that working as an employee rather than an owner’s daughter or as a leader enables them to learn the feeling of being an employee. Another 15% claimed that their relationship with the employees would make the transfer of leadership easy since they had already accepted her as their leader (Appendix 2, Question 7).

This study added a new dimension to this issue in asking for employees’ opinions about accepting a daughter as a successor. Employees were asked to their preferences between women from the family or not and after the examination of the answers, genders were identified. As can be seen on table 15.

Table 15. Preferred woman leader of employees.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Which one do you most prefer?</th>
<th>Percentage</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Male</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Being led by woman from the family</td>
<td>75%</td>
<td>61%</td>
<td>39%</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Being led by non-family professional woman</td>
<td>25%</td>
<td>37%</td>
<td>63%</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
As can be seen from Table 15, 75% of 252 surveyed employees prefer to be managed by a female family member rather than a professional non-family female. Interestingly, however, while 63% of female employees prefer to be managed by a woman from the family, 63% of males prefer to be managed by a professional female outsider.

These results show that employees prefer to work with a woman from the family rather than outside professional woman, although male employees seem to more willing to work with an outside professional woman rather than one from the family. Employees were also asked to order their preferences for different kinds of female leaders, as shown in Table 16.

Table 16. Most preferred female leadership characteristics.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Rank</th>
<th>Preference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Being led by a woman from the family who is a well-educated professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Being led by a woman outsider who is a well-educated professional</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Being led by a woman from the family who has good experience in the FOB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Being led by professional woman who has good experience in the FOB</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Being led by a woman from the family who has good outside experience</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Being led by a professional woman who has good outside experience</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In 14 of 19 companies surveyed, most employees (48%) preferred to be led by a female family member who is experienced in the FOB itself. There were only 3 companies where the employees’ first preference was for an experienced professional female outsider whereas this was the least preferred option (28%) in 11 companies. However, employees at 6 companies stated that a well-educated female family member was their least preferred option. Thus, the survey results indicate that employees are more likely to accept an experienced manager as a leader over a well-educated one.
As previously noted, a number of studies (e.g. Dumas, 1992; Curimbaba, 2002; Vera and Dean, 2005) have highlighted the importance of relevant business experience to enable a woman to develop her leadership abilities. Similarly, this study confirms that if the leader is going to be a woman then many employees want her to have relevant business experience.

Section 6.2.2. presented the employees’ perceptions on this issue, with a majority preferring to work with an experienced person, whether from the family or not. From their examination of the relationship of personal experience to the development of entrepreneurial intention, Schenkal et al. (2013) suggest that previous start-up experience predicts both immediate and long-term entrepreneurial intentions. Likewise, the current study found a relationship between the family’s and daughter’s entrepreneurial characteristics, particularly how the family’s entrepreneurial stories have a great effect on daughters, as shown in section 6.2.2, encouraging daughters to be more entrepreneurial.

As stated above, in 14 of the 19 companies, the employees’ first preference is being led by a woman from the family who has good FOB experience, with 48% of all employees rating this option as their most preferred description. Employees at only 3 of the companies most preferred being led by an outsider professional woman with good FOB experience. Additionally, 19% of employees’ first preference is “Being led by women from the family who has a good experience outside”. As with their first preference, employees’ second preferences were to be led by an outside professional woman with good FOB experience, with 18% preferring an outside professional woman with experience in their family business.

As discussed in the literature review, traditional societies, where power distance and in-group collectivism tend to be higher, also tend to assign more traditional roles to women. However, Gupta and Levenburg (2012) claim that in high power distance
cultures, a family business will have a less gender-centred leadership, finding that family businesses may differ, depending on their employees, ownership, and family structure. They may also differ depending on their proportionate support for the family, business, and owner system ideologies. The current analysis will consider each element of the business that has been reported to have an influence on successor selection.

As it was pointed out by Barry (2001) lower power distance cultures are more egalitarian and place less emphasis on status. In FOBs, gender role orientation and gender stereotypes are important factors, with succession being very much biased by gender. The current analysis produced several gendered assumptions stemming from Turkish culture. The succession process, especially the daughter’s succession, is deeply influenced by the owner’s and the company’s gendered assumptions. The relationship between gender egalitarianism and family business culture and its relevance to the succession process will be examined in detail in the following section. Given that lower power distance cultures are more egalitarian, the way these cultures’ gender egalitarian assumptions and relationships with the family business culture affect the succession process will be analysed in this chapter. According to the employee survey, 95% of organisations in this study showed very low power distance characteristics. That is, the employees did not report any strong authoritarianism from their managers, and felt they could share all their ideas with their managers.

In this study, propositions were developed how psychological and situational factors may lead principals to become a steward and derive from the cooperative action, leading them to prioritise collectivistic and pro-organisational behaviours. In a family business context, this collectivist tendency promotes trust, cooperation, and cohesion within their extended families. Alternatively, a culture with lower power distance minimises the physiological distance and promotes participative forms of decision-making through communication and empowerment; these relationships reflect a stewardship perspective (Hayek et al., 2015).
Consequently, in cultures high in power distance and in-group collectivism, family systems tend to follow traditional ideologies (Hofstede et al., 2010).

To evaluate their organisations’ gendered norms, employees in this study were asked if gender is an important factor in promotion and leadership ability. Results can be found below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>C</th>
<th>Gender is an important factor for promotion</th>
<th>Subordinates consider males and females as equally effective in terms of leadership ability</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1 (P)</td>
<td>20% never, 10% seldom, 35% sometimes, 35% usually</td>
<td>20% disagree, 15% undecided, 20% agree, 45% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2 (LF)</td>
<td>30% seldom, 15% usually, 55% always</td>
<td>25% strongly disagree, 35% disagree, 25% undecided, 15% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3 (P)</td>
<td>33% never, 56% seldom, 11% sometimes</td>
<td>44% undecided, 44% agree, 12% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4 (P)</td>
<td>33% never, 32% seldom, 26% sometimes, 9% always</td>
<td>11% strongly disagree, 16% disagree, 26% undecided, 37% agree, 10% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5 (LF)</td>
<td>67% never, 33% seldom</td>
<td>89% strongly disagree, 11% disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6 (LF)</td>
<td>26% never, 47% seldom, 11% sometimes, 11% usually, 5% always</td>
<td>21% disagree, 11% undecided, 21% agree, 47% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7 (LF)</td>
<td>72% never, 18% seldom, 10% sometimes</td>
<td>18% strongly disagree, 9% disagree, 64% agree, 9% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8 (LF)</td>
<td>35% never, 12% seldom, 24% sometimes, 5% usually, 24% always</td>
<td>12% strongly disagree, 41% disagree, 12% undecided, 18% agree, 17% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9 (P)</td>
<td>60% never, 5% seldom, 35% sometimes</td>
<td>10% disagree, 80% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10 (P)</td>
<td>86% never, 14% seldom</td>
<td>100% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11 (P)</td>
<td>56% never, 22% seldom, 22% sometimes</td>
<td>100% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12 (LF)</td>
<td>56% never, 19% seldom, 6% sometimes, 13% usually, 6% always</td>
<td>69% strongly disagree, 6% disagree, 13% agree, 12% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13 (LF)</td>
<td>100% never</td>
<td>7% strongly agree, 83% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14 (LF)</td>
<td>63% never, 6% seldom, 25% sometimes, 6% always</td>
<td>25% strongly disagree, 16% disagree, 6% undecided, 50% agree, 3% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15 (LF)</td>
<td>89% never, 11% seldom</td>
<td>100% strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16 (P)</td>
<td>100% never</td>
<td>33% strongly agree, 67% agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18 (P)</td>
<td>40% seldom, 60% always</td>
<td>100% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19 (P)</td>
<td>33% seldom, 11% usually, 56% always</td>
<td>100% strongly disagree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20 (LF)</td>
<td>79% never, 12% seldom, 9% sometimes</td>
<td>74% strongly agree, 16 agree, 10% disagree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
According to table 17, results show that, while 37% of employees from the paternalistic culture think, gender is never an important factor for promoting, 55% of employees from the laissez-faire culture think gender is never an important factor for promoting. Additionally, when they asked whether subordinates are considered males and females as equally effective in terms of leadership abilities; 53% of paternalistic employees strongly disagree on this issue, while only 18% of laissez-faire employees are indicated that they strongly disagree.

To sum, employee results support research proposition 9 and show that; in paternalistic cultures, employees feel less gender egalitarianism than laissez-faire culture employees.

6.4. Father-daughter relationship and location preferences

Even though father-daughter relationship is not considered in research propositions, after examining the interview results, it was observed that, that two issue influences FOB succession process in Turkey. Therefore, these two issue is analysed additionally to help to understand succession dynamics in Turkey FOBs.

As the leaders of the family business and the person to choose their successors, fathers’ assessments of their daughters’ capabilities may influence their decision to appoint a daughter as a successor (Overbeke et al., 2015). In many cases, the daughters in this study mentioned that their father’s decision was important, and was aware of the importance of their relationship with their father to be selected, as the following comments demonstrate.

“We have a very close relationship with him. He always respects my work and appreciates my effort. I am happy about the relationship between us.” (D1)
“He is the Chairman of the Board and the main decision maker. I am dealing with Human Resources and Brand Management. We have generational gaps as do all daughters and fathers but we are working in harmony. He is quite a paternalistic father in the business. He wants to control everything that has been done.” (D2)

“He is respectful and encouraging but it was also hard to earn it. He wants me to decide on lots of things but sometimes I need support.” (D5)

“I am happy that I have worked together with my father because I am a real daddy’s little girl and to me, my father was always my security blanket. I am happy about it.” (D7)

“I am always my father’s little girl and I gave up insisting on changing it. Because of his attitude, employees never see me as an ordinary employee. I am everybody’s little sappy staff. I don’t care at the moment but I don’t know what I will feel when I am getting older.” (D14)

“I am very happy about our relationship. He is always the same, whether at home or at the factory.” (D17)

A cooperative relationship between father and daughter is seen as beneficial for the succession process. However, this relationship can be harmed by conflict or leave the successor unspecified. As well as the relationship with the incumbent, a positive relationship between daughter and brother can help the daughter take over. For example, even though D13 has not yet been named as the successor, she implies that her good relationship with her twin brother also strengthens her relationship with her father:

“We don’t talk of those kinds of things in our business and my father always says he will leave this business to us. He always wants us to work on ourselves. He says, the more we improve this business, the more we will be happy and comfortable. We do everything with my brother and I think we will run it together without indicating
that one is more responsible than the other.” In a couple of cases, however, conflict reported between cousins was found to harm the daughter’s succession chances.

Additionally, this study shows that traditional patriarchal family leaders cannot establish a close relationship with their daughters and fail to consider their daughters as a successor. This was found to be relevant in four succession cases.

The following accounts illustrate these daughters’ descriptions of their relationship with their father.

“He is the Chairman of the Board and the main decision maker. I am dealing with Human resources and Brand Management. We have generational gaps as do all daughters and fathers but we are working in harmony. He is quite a paternalistic father in the business. He wants to control everything that has been done. I want him to be more relaxed, more objective and to give us more freedom when demonstrating ourselves.” (D2)

“He is two completely different guys at home and at the factory. To be honest, I do not want to meet him with someone else.” (D16)

“We are a very strong patriarchal family. Our father didn’t carry us on his shoulders when we were kids. He didn’t use to kiss us when family members were around. We have to show respect to our family elders. I cannot blame my father because he grew up in a more paternalistic family. He is better now, but I really used to be scared of him when I first started to work.” (D18)

“He didn’t support me when I wanted to work in our business. As I said before, I had very different and bad experiences. My father knew that I was really interested in continuing to lead the company and I was also interested in a complete takeover of the business; that’s why we couldn’t establish an ordinary relationship. But now he really appreciates me a lot.” (D19)
The owner of Company 2 had not specified his successor when the interview took place, and there was serious conflict between the cousins. Similarly, at Company 16, even though D16 is the eldest child, she was not considered a viable successor by her father because the business is in farming. Company 19’s owner also tried to direct his daughter away from their family business as he wanted to hand over the business to his son. However, the latter’s lack of interest gave the daughter an opportunity, who seems to work with great enthusiasm despite knowing that she has no chance of taking over the business. Results also show that family members’ relationships and the relationship with the father motivate daughters to work in their father’s FOB.

Unlike the psychological factors, which are closely linked to the conception of the model of man, situational factors focus more on aspects characterising the environment of the organisation in which the steward relationship occurs. The most important factors of this type are management philosophy and organisational culture (Vallejo-Martos and Puentes-Poyatos, 2014). The underlying assumptions about the model of man espoused by the founder undergird managerial philosophies that influence organisational structures and policies (Hayek et al., 2015, p.97). For instance, the founder who adopts an agency philosophy assumes that individuals within the organisation are self-interested whereas the founder who embraces the stewardship perspective maintains that individuals are trustworthy, intrinsically motivated, and stewards.

Stewardship relationships can only arise when the necessary situational factors and structures related to the organisation are in place, and when the individuals involved have appropriate psychological profiles (Toivonen & Toivonen, 2014, p.1361).

Companies try to create what they regard as the optimal conditions to produce goods or deliver services. However, local conditions, particularly industrial relations and legal arrangements, may prevent companies freely determining their companies’ working and employment conditions (Schief, 2010, p.2). Although a wide variety of barriers has
been examined in the literature on daughters’ succession, the importance of a FOB’s location has been ignored.

For example, Kimelberg and Williams (2013) studied the importance of business location factors but not the family business or daughters’ exclusion. In many cases in the current study, the daughters considered the location of the family business unsuitable in terms of quality of life. Kimelberg and Williams (2013) define the quality of life factors as including the cost of housing, desirable natural resources, convenient transport options, and amenities, ranging from restaurants and nightlife to cultural and sporting events. Because of their quality of life expectations, in some cases, daughters viewed the family business’s location as a major barrier to their succession.

D3, for example, stated (Appendix 2: Question 2), “I wanted to stay in Istanbul, but our factory was bigger than the one I worked for and I thought I could improve myself and our business by working for us. Additionally, my salary wasn’t enough for life in Istanbul. I am back to xx (The city where their factory is located in central Anatolia).” Like other successors, the new generation of Turkish entrepreneurs prefer a large metropolis, like Istanbul, over smaller cities. However, even though D3 had tried to live in Istanbul, she had finally decided to return to her family’s business area although she intended to leave the small city because she did not want to spend her life there. In another case, D10 stressed that location was a main concern for her succession (Appendix 2: Question 7): “I am working in our family business but we are in different cities. I manage our headquarters and I am responsible for customer relations and HR staff with other responsibilities. The sustainability of our business depends on finding a very successful manager in place of my father because I can’t live in that city. This is my biggest concern and I am sure it will be the problem when the succession occurs.” Similarly, D19 stated (Appendix 2: Question 7), “The shop I own is in Istanbul. Our first shop and workshop is in another city. Luckily my father hasn’t been thinking to leave yet, but if he resigns, I think the employees who work there will be upset by his absence.” When asked for her advice to other daughters engaged in succession, D10 again stressed location (Appendix 2: Question 8): “If they
are not living in the same city of their factory, they should know that it will be very difficult.” One father wanting to hand over the business to his son also mentioned this factor (Appendix 1 Question 11).

When asked whether gender makes any difference when evaluating the successor, he responded, “It is very important for our culture, especially in the Black Sea region. Every father wants to leave his business to his sons. But, unfortunately, my son did not do it, did not work in this sector. He graduated in the US, and it affected his lifestyle very much; and when he came back, he couldn’t cope with Turkish business life, especially in our sector. But, as I said, gender is very important for even choosing the manager.” As shown in this case, sometimes location may help rather than hinder the daughters.

When asked to evaluate Turkey as a favourable country for women managers, one father, O4, stressed location (Appendix 1 Question 15): “Especially here (The city where they operate is in northeast Turkey); that’s why my daughter prefers to stay in Istanbul. Istanbul is a more European city; people are used to seeing women in business life. My daughter spent 7 years in Europe and she is very familiar with its culture. Therefore, she doesn’t care what people think about her. But here it is very important and she won’t be able to live that life here.” O10 and O16 also mentioned location: “I cannot generalise it. When my daughter comes here (the northern Turkish city where O10’s business is situated), she says she is not as comfortable as she is in Istanbul. People concentrate on their family life more here, rather than their business life, especially women. They don’t prefer to work even though they have a university degree. Istanbul is different, but in this region, it is not easy for a woman.”

“Our factory is very close to Istanbul and my daughter lives in Istanbul and goes to our office every day regularly and sometimes comes here to our (O16’s) factory (based very close to Istanbul in a small city on the European side). She says she is more
comfortable in Istanbul. I mean, I cannot say the whole of Turkey is favourable to women leaders, but I can say Istanbul is suitable for them.”

In this study, 4 of 20 (D4, D10, D16 and D19) successor daughters live in a different city to that of their family business. In two cases (D4, D10), having an education abroad is a key reason for their preferences. Both of these interview partners indicated the importance of “quality of life” that they cannot find where the family business is. Similarly, D16 finds her hometown and the location of their factory area very conservative compared to Istanbul. In short, the location of the business should be considered as an important factor in daughters’ succession process since expectations about the quality of life for the new generation of Turkish women may facilitate or hinder FOB succession.

6.5. Conclusion
Family business succession is a process of transferring the leadership position from one family member, the incumbent, to another, the successor. This intergenerational transfer is a vital process for FOB continuity. Ensuring that the business will be sustainable requires preparing an effective succession selection process. The majority of family business succession studies analyse father-son leadership transfer, with daughters’ candidature being ignored. Fathers’ close relationships with their sons, the general acceptance in some cultures that the business world is ‘a man’s world’, and daughters’ invisibility in some regions all contribute to excluding father-daughter succession. Family relationships vary across cultures, leading to variations in father-daughter succession processes (Halkias et al., 2011b). Therefore, different cultural characteristics were examined in this chapter. As stated by Halkias et al (2011b), father-daughter succession process, similar to family relationship vary across cultures and this study aims to show that even in the same country, culture may vary across regions and may affect succession process differently. As shown with the results, culture not only affects the succession process but also affect the attitudes and
assumptions of the FOB owner, who is accepted as the most important factor in the success of succession, thereafter the whole organisation’s assumption.

Literature shows that family business owners’ succession intention will not only be solely affected by their wills but also by the institutional environment like culture. Moreover, through the founder’s values and actions, the firm’s culture evolves, encouraging family members to be responsive to new opportunities and support entrepreneurial endeavours. This study also shows that there is a direct relationship between the FOB owners’ cultural values with the organisation culture also how owners’ cultural norms effect the FOB culture.

Additionally, FOB owner and family’s educational background play a significant role in assuming daughter as a successor and supporting their entrepreneurial attitudes. Literature shows that entrepreneur families have a great impact on entrepreneurship and as stated by Gallo and Point (1994) study, the most successful international family firms are those whose successors have educational and work experience outside their home country as well as outside their company. Similarly, interview analysis support Gallo and Point view as shown in this chapter.

The FOB literature generally focuses on obstacles facing women in FOBs, particularly primogeniture and unfortunately, women are rarely considered as a successor because of primogeniture. According to primogeniture; daughters are only considered for family business succession when all descendants are female or the daughter is the first born. Results showed that daughters were generally preferred as a successor when all descendants are female or firstborn son do not consider to take over the business.

This exclusion, as mentioned, stems from a combination of macro (societal/cultural attitudes toward women) and micro (individual and family) factors, which combine to keep daughters and their capabilities comparatively invisible (Wang, 2010). In this study, both macro and micro factors were evaluated in relation to Turkish family business culture by using stewardship theory’s physiological and situational factors. This study asserts that the owning family has a strong influence on all psychological
and situational antecedents of organisational behaviour. Hence, almost all factors that affect daughters’ participation stem from the owning family, especially owners’ behaviours.

The major contribution of this study is that whereas previous studies asserted that Turkey is a highly collectivist and high power distance culture, this study shows that, even though it is still collectivist, low power distance was observed in this study.

The other important contribution is that this study is the first to consider FOB owner, daughter, and employee perceptions together to assess the daughter succession process. It found that cultural patterns across different generations are associated with FOB owners’ entrepreneurship behaviours, education, and succession stories.

Additionally, even though 80% of first generation family business cultures were expected to be paternalistic, this study found that first-generation, well-educated, entrepreneurial fathers are most likely to adopt a laissez-faire culture, within which employees, owner families and owners themselves are more likely accept daughters as successors. Another practical contribution of the current study is to demonstrate that laissez-faire first generation family businesses are more likely to encourage their daughters to become an entrepreneur than paternalistic cultures. These motivation issues concern the daughters’ educational path, outside experience, and involvement in the family’s business during childhood. More specifically, this study has shown that the effect of family business culture varies across each family business depending on the family and owner’s education, lifestyle, business location and sector, and family history. In short, each succession story and each succession decision are unique. Ultimately, therefore, they should each be evaluated within their own individual contexts.

CHAPTER 7; DISCUSSION OF RESEARCH FINDINGS

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7.1. Introduction

This study investigated the process of family business succession in Turkey. This is important because a majority of families fail to transfer the business successfully to the next generation. Additionally, due to cultural influences, primogeniture still dominates in many family businesses. As can be seen from the results reported in the previous chapter about Turkish FOBs. In this chapter, the results presented in the previous chapter will be analysed in order to uncover the key themes in the data.

This study showed that Turkish FOB owners are the main actors in the successor selection process. Even when a family has an educated and experienced elder daughter, FOBs, especially in paternalistic family business cultures tend to pass on the business to the son. That is, primogeniture still dominates the FOB succession process in Turkey. As the previous chapter demonstrated, the incumbent’s profile influences all other FOB members’ attitudes. In particular, the succession process and the family business culture are both determined by the owner’s perspective rather than national cultural influences.

The current chapter first discusses Turkish family business dynamics in terms of the results to analyse the daughters’ succession journeys. It then evaluates the daughters’ decisions in relation to the main motivation factors, such as early commitment, education, work experience, and location preferences.

7.2. FOB culture and family business owners; leadership characteristics
The study provides a number of interesting insights concerning the family business culture of Turkey and the leadership style of Turkish FOB owners. Even though Turkey is generally described as a high power distance, collectivist, and paternalistic country, this study shows that FOBs may differ from this in terms of the characteristics of the owner, family, and successor.

Using concepts from stewardship theory and applying the multidimensional model of the succession process, this study aimed to identify the relationship between family business culture and the succession process. Both stewardship theory and the research model assert that the family business owner is a dominant actor in the succession process. Hence, in order to understand the influence of family business culture through the owner, the company culture and owners’ leadership characteristics were examined first.

As a reminder, the first research question of this study was: What is the temporal sequence of patterns through the succession process in Turkey and to what extent does this affect the daughter succession process? This is because the cultural patterns examined in this study were previously studied (Dyer, 1986; Stavrou et al., 2005; Vallejo, 2008). According to these researchers, Dyer’s family business cultural patterns make the most important contribution to family business studies. Additionally, Dyer (1986) suggested that there are four basic cultural patterns in family businesses: a paternalistic culture, a laissez-faire culture, a participative culture, and a professional culture; each associated with different generations managing the family business. According to Dyer (1986), there is a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process: a path starting out with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or possibly a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations. However, Casimiro and Chambel (2014) and Yang (2015) point out that Dyer’s cultural patterns do not generalise to every family business, although the family business literature repeatedly stresses that the paternalistic culture is mostly seen in first-generation family
businesses.

The current study examined the family business culture and owners’ leadership characteristics, through interviews with FOB owners and daughters to provide deep insights about their assumptions and related succession stories, and through an employee survey to confirm the interview results.

According to the results, in contrast to current assumptions, Turkish family businesses, especially new generations tend to adopt a laissez-faire culture rather than paternalistic. Whereas previous researchers suggested that some cultural patterns are related to specific generations, this study finds that FOB cultural patterns and leadership characteristics are more related to the owners’ educational level, age, and the environment where they grew up and set up their business than to which FOB generation they are.

More specifically, only 33% of first-generation FOBs had paternalistic cultures while 67% showed laissez-faire/participative cultural characteristics. Similarly, while second-generation FOBs are supposed to have laissez-faire or participative cultures, 60% of the second-generation FOB owners in this study revealed a laissez-faire culture while 40% had paternalistic cultures. Interestingly, 100% of third-generation FOB owners showed paternalistic cultural characteristics. Regarding the FOB owner’s educational level, 67% of first-generation laissez-faire leaders, who were expected to show paternalistic characteristics, 100% had a university or higher degree qualifications. Therefore, we can conclude that family business culture mostly depends on family business owners’ culture, which stems from their educational level and entrepreneurship characteristics. Theodosiou and Katsikea (2007) suggest that a laissez-faire leadership style may encourage independence and entrepreneurial spirit, as laissez-faire leadership sends confidence to subordinates. In support of this, this study also shows that, even though Dyer (1986) identified the temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process, the path may not necessarily start with a paternalistic culture. This study found that the likelihood of a cultural pattern depends
more on the incumbents’ educational level and his/her succession stories. The second and third generations, who are expected to have laissez-faire/participative and professional cultures, had a paternalistic culture if they were not highly educated or their succession stories depended on strong primogeniture attitudes (Figure 4). Research question 1 also asks, how these patterns affect the succession process; again, as stated by research proposition 2 and 3 results; this research’s interview results show that first generation laissez-faire family business culture leaders more easily accept a daughter as a successor without considering gender as a critical factor. This is because the founder of the family business often displays characteristics of an entrepreneurial personality.

Figure 3 FOBs and gendered norms. (LF: Laissez-faire, Pat: Paternalistic)

![Gender egalitarian FOB owners](image)

- 1st gen LF: 67%
- 1st gen Pat: 11%
- 2nd gen Pat: 11%
- 3rd gen Pat: 11%
Another interesting point from this study is that family business culture also depends on the location, as shown figure 5 below

Figure 4 Family owned business culture in Turkey. (P: Paternalistic, LF: Laissez-faire)

The current study shows that, while paternalistic cultures are mostly found in Central Anatolia, laissez-faire cultures are spread across the Aegean region and Istanbul. As expected, FOBs in large, modern cities tended to show laissez-faire culture rather than paternalistic. In contrast, businesses in central and eastern Anatolia had paternalistic cultures more dominantly.

7.3. Family business owner and family effect on successor selection process

Stewardship theory specifically acknowledges the importance of achieving goals as well as the development of sustainable relationships, making this normative and instrumental approach to leadership especially compatible with the goals of most entrepreneurial efforts (Humphreys et al., 2013, p.23). In the light of stewardship theory, this study also examined the family effect on the daughter succession process in FOBs through the FOB owner and his/her family’s culture.

One important aspect of the family business is how the incumbent family business
leader, the successor, the business, and the family culture are interwoven. Thus, the family is considered to have an effect on the FOB owner.

However, it is not always relevant in paternalistic cultures. As can be seen from the employee survey results, a majority of the employees think their FOB owners are seldom or sometimes affected by their families; in other words, the family does not have a great effect on the FOB owner. Furthermore, in 60% of cases, the family business members were reported to be highly effective in the decision-making process, with the majority of employees thinking that FOB members make all decisions in their organisation, which is the most common characteristics of paternalistic cultures. However, when the overall survey data was analysed, the most interesting point is that when the FOB owner is believed to make all decisions on his/her own and majority of the employees think that family members make all decisions in their organisation, the organisation’s size becomes relevant. If the number of employees is less than 200 (Companies 1, 5, and 19), the employees report that family members make all the decisions, the family does not have a great effect on the owners’ decisions, and the FOB owner tends to make all decisions on his own. If the number of employees is between 200 and 500 (Companies 3, 6, 10, 15, and 18), employees report that the FOB owner tends to make all decisions on his own, family members’ is rare but family members are assumed to make all the decisions in their organisation, but not as much as in businesses with fewer employees. However, if the number of employees is between 1,000 and 5,000 (Companies 4, 14, and 16), even though the owner is perceived to make decisions on his own, the family’s effect is lower, family members cannot make all decisions on their own, and FOB owners start to be influenced by the board of directors.

One of the main claims of stewardship theory is that the owning family has a strong influence on virtually all psychological and situational antecedents of organisational behaviour. Hence, the owning family has a crucial impact in shaping the model of man, suggested by stewardship theory. This study’s results also support Kelly et al. (2000). They found that, in paternalistic family businesses, decision-making is centralised,
which can leave many family and non-family members with a minimum or no role in the process.

To sum up, (Chapter 6.3.1.) this study also shows that, even though the family has an important effect on the business owner, this influence depends on the company size. While in small paternalistic family businesses, the family influence is perceived by the employees, in larger companies, due to a board of directors and outside managers, the family do not tend to be involved too much the business.

Research question 2 asks how do daughters gain the successor position in their family businesses and what are the characteristic features of this process? One of the family-specific factors affecting daughters’ succession is motivation from the family. The literature emphasises the importance of education and experience for daughters to gain leadership positions (Kaslow, 2006; Dumas, 1992; Vera & Dean, 2005; Wang, 2010). Similarly, Gallo and Point (1994) find that the most successful international family firms are those whose successors have educational and work experience outside their home country as well as outside their company. The current analysis produced several gendered assumptions stemming from Turkish culture. The succession process, especially the daughter’s succession, is deeply influenced by the owner’s and the company’s gendered assumptions. Family characteristics influence the daughter’s development because they affect the quality of the relationship between predecessor and successor, and the level of family commitment to the business. In chapter 6.3.2., it was reported that paternalistic and uneducated family business owners in this study tended not to send their daughters to another company for outside experience in contrast to laissez-faire and educated families. Thus, the survey and interview questions show how the age and educational level of the FOB owner may be relevant characteristics determining his/her vision and the family business culture.
7.4. Family business owners and their influence on employee perceptions

Stewardship theory, which is derived from social psychology, examines relations in organisations where members tend to be collectivist (Davis et al., 1997). Employees who are stewards maintain the common goals of the firm and work as part of a team. According to the stewardship approach, family members may hold family firm objectives higher than their individual objectives.

Therefore, the difference in attitudes of family and non-family member employees was as expected. The survey results showed that, while family member employees were more satisfied with their business, they also considered that their managers had a great impact on the employees. In contrast, if they reported their organisation to be collectivist, as a paternalistic family business, family member employees’ degree of acceptance was greater than that of the non-family member employees.

Kellermanns and Eddleston (2004) argue that because controlling individuals have a strong desire for authority, the trust may decrease, which can harm the stewardship tendencies in family firms. Paternalistic family business employees, especially family member employees, due to the impact of managers might show less stewardship than laissez-faire culture employees. Hence, kinship ties to the founder or the owner may empower family member employees’ stewardship tendencies in family firms.

7.5. FOB owners and accepting a daughter as a successor

The current analysis revealed several gendered assumptions stemming from the business culture. The succession process, especially a daughter’s succession, was deeply influenced by the owner’s and company members’ gendered attitudes. It comes as no surprise that several incumbent FOB owners declared that gender is an important factor in selecting a successor. Eleven FOB owners, who were all male, acknowledged the importance of gender while evaluating the successor selection process. They stressed the difficulties of being a woman in business life, seeing
marriage and motherhood as barriers to women’s employment, and assuming that business life in Turkey is a man’s world. Additionally, six owners considered the business sector of their company as a barrier for women, claiming that, as well as gender being an important factor for evaluating the successor, the company’s business sector also plays an important role. The most important and interesting result is that nine owners did not agree with evaluating gender while considering their successor, claiming that they just look at talent.

This appears to be related to their educational backgrounds rather than cultural norms because two of them had PhDs, two had master degrees while the other four had all graduated from universities.

Third research question ask to explicit and implicit factor that affecting daughters succession process. This study show that gendered norms are still considered when choosing the successor, in other word, primogeniture still dominates the family business succession process. Daughters, if they have an elder brother who does not choose another career, are not considered for leadership roles in a family business. However, in some cases, it was observed that when first-born sons reject the family business as a career option, daughters are considered as a successor. Additionally, sometimes, the sector that the family operates in is considered unsuitable for a man by the son so it opens up daughter’s succession path. However, a majority of owners tend to make their sons their next leader. In terms of entrepreneurship characteristics, research indicates that some cultures are more supportive of entrepreneurship activities. For instance, entrepreneurship tends to be lower in collectivist cultures, in which group thinking may outweigh individual initiative so few individuals would put their entrepreneurial ambitions into action. This research’s interview results show that first generation laissez-faire family business culture leaders more easily accept a daughter as a successor without considering gender as a critical factor. This is because the founder of the family business often displays characteristics of an entrepreneurial personality.
7.6 Conclusion

Like Davis et al. (2010), this study examined the role of family business culture in explaining stewardship in family businesses. As suggested by Hayek et al. (2015), social entrepreneurs who espouse an involvement-oriented managerial philosophy, promote collectivism and reduce power distance nourish a stewardship culture (Hayek et al., 2015). Indeed, this study’s findings indicate that a majority of Turkish FOB owner participants tend to adopt an involvement-oriented managerial philosophy and tend to reduce power distance and promote collectivism.

This study investigated daughters’ succession in FOBs in Turkey, a developing country where women are less likely than men to engage in entrepreneurial activities. The interviews conducted for this study with twenty successful daughters working in FOBs indicate that they have similar characteristics and experience similar problems within their businesses and families.

The interviews with the fathers also demonstrated that their first concern about their daughter’s succession stems from their guardian instinct, thinking that business life is unsuitable for their daughters. While a majority of fathers think that Turkey is an unfavourable country for working women, a majority also emphasise that the region within Turkey also matters. While major cities like Istanbul, Ankara, and Izmir, or western Turkey more generally, are suitable for women in business life, Anatolia and northern Turkey are considered unfavourable to women by both daughters and fathers.

Regarding FOB employees’ views, this study demonstrates that there is no general trend across FOBs in Turkey. Even within the same city or region, the employees from separate FOBs had different attitudes regarding the daughter’s succession. Employees and daughters also stressed the importance of family business culture for assessing the daughter as a successor, which itself stems from the business owners’ own
attitudes about gender. In those FOBs where the owner does not consider gender as a barrier to women’s advancement, the FOB members, including employees and the owner’s family, were more likely to easily accept the daughter as the new leader. This gender egalitarianism appears to stem from the owner’s educational level and family background.
CHAPTER 8. CONCLUSIONS, IMPLICATIONS, AND RECOMMENDATIONS

The aim of the current study was to better understand daughter succession and the succession decision process in Turkish FOBs from the perspectives of the incumbent, the successor, and the FOB employees using the principles of stewardship theory. One objective was to develop a model that Turkish FOBs can follow to increase the effectiveness of leadership transitions. Another objective was to help the selected successor and the incumbent prepare for these succession processes effectively. This study examined the nature of such family businesses in an attempt to explain why some family businesses in Turkey accept daughters as a successor easily and others do so with difficulty.

The conceptual framework of the study presented key drivers and challenges identified in the extant literature and introduced issues of succession, drivers, contributions, and challenges in selecting daughters’ as a successor. Drawing on empirical material collected through semi-structured interviews with participant Turkish women and FOB owners, and a survey with employees of these FOBs, the study highlighted the importance of cultural dynamics in analysing the key drivers, contributions, and challenges in the daughter succession process in Turkish FOBs.

One important scholarly contribution from this study was its use of a multidimensional model of succession in family businesses. This approach enabled this study to demonstrate the importance of cultural dimensions in the process of handing over family businesses from father to daughter. The current study is important for several reasons. First, it described the cultural characteristics of current FOBs in Turkey. Second, it simultaneously revealed the attitudes and cultural assumptions of FOB incumbents, successors, and employees, regarding daughter succession, which has not been researched in previous studies.
Third, this study has verified, besides generational differences, that other factors may be more important in influencing cultural patterns within family businesses, primarily the family business owner’s educational level, entrepreneurship characteristics, and the way he/she would hand over the business to the successor. By identifying different cultural patterns, this study verified that culture is an important variable for explaining the relationships between members of the family businesses and the way they are managed. Furthermore, this study suggests that, even though business owners are considered the main actor in the succession process, family constitutions and families’ entrepreneurial attitudes also determined the succession process in this study.

8.1. Summary of conclusions

This study contributed to the family business literature by addressing the effects of family business culture associated with stewardship theory. The current study provided novel insights regarding women entrepreneurs in Turkish FOBs, particularly how they gain business leadership positions, and the explicit and implicit factors determining the succession process. The study achieved this through reviewing current theory and practice before conducting interviews with twelve male leaders and daughters of Turkish FOBs and surveying the employees.

In this study, the succession process was examined using the two dimensions of stewardship theory: psychological and situational factors. The psychological factors considered here were motivation, early commitment, the relevance of work experience, relationship with employees, and relevance of father-daughter relationship, while the situational factors were the FOB owners’ gendered norms and FOB location.
Psychological factors

The current study showed that there are many reasons why daughters are willing to work in their family businesses: flexible working hours, being able to spend time with their children, long holiday opportunities, helping their fathers, or being able to show their entrepreneurial activities more easily.

According to Otten-Pappas (2015, p.88), the pull of the family business can be experienced by children early in their development, which they term early commitment. This study also found evidence of this early commitment in family decisions concerning the daughter’s education or work experience, and her own desire to choose her life path. This indicates that educational preferences play a significant role for commitment. Additionally, daughters’ commitment was increased by their great respect for their fathers’ sacrifice for the business, which highlights the importance of their fathers’ effort to enable them to run the business and his need to encourage them to work there. Some also stressed how their commitment was closely linked to their brother’s lack of interest, making them feel duty bound to work with their fathers, while some reported that the father’s emotional pressure rather than any persistence or ambition made them decide to work in the family business.

Fleming (2000, p.101) observes that successful family businesses are the result of the incumbent’s lifetime entrepreneurship so it is unrealistic to expect them to surrender control of their business readily. Like education, work experience is considered an important factor for deciding on successors, with both family owners and employees paying a lot of attention to their future leader’s work experience.

Growing up with entrepreneurial fathers seems to have affected the daughters’ commitment, which later developed through their educational choices and work experience. In this study, 60% of owners had set up their own family business and were preparing to hand it over to their successors.
Of this 60%, all were university graduates, while 3 graduated abroad, and 2 had a foreign master degree. A total of 67% of the daughters with entrepreneurial fathers stated that their family encouraged them to gain ‘outside’ experience before joining the family business. They reported that it was important for them to have the support of their families to contribute to the business. That is, entrepreneurial and educated families were more likely to encourage the daughter to become a successor.

In terms of the relationship with cultural patterns and psychological factors, daughters in paternalistic family businesses were less likely to show motivation to be a successor and less likely show an early commitment to their businesses. Moreover, daughters in laissez-faire family business cultures were more likely to be encouraged by their family and family business owner; especially first-generation laissez-faire cultures were most likely to encourage daughters to gain ‘outside’ experience.

With respect to employee perceptions concerning the successor’s work experience, the survey revealed that experience is a far more important factor than education for the majority of employees. In fact, for the employees, it was relatively unimportant whether the woman leader’s experience was gained inside or outside their particular business. Rather, they did not want to be led by someone, especially from the family, who took over without any work experience, immediately after graduating from university. These FOB employees also did not want to be led by someone simply because they were from the family. A majority preferred being led by a woman from the family rather than a non-family professional woman. However, when we analyse these responses according to the gender of the employees, while the majority of women preferred to be managed by a woman from the family, a majority of men preferred someone professional. Additionally, their most preferred woman manager, in terms of education and experience was for a woman from the family with experience of their FOB while the least preferred was a well-educated outside
A cooperative relationship between father and daughter was also beneficial for the succession process. If there was conflict or the successor was left unspecified by the incumbent, the relationship could be harmed. As well as the daughter’s relationship with the incumbent, a positive relationship between daughter and brother could also help her take over. Moreover, this study found that traditional patriarchal family leaders cannot establish a close relationship with their daughters and fail to consider their daughters as a successor. Finally, family members’ relationships and the relationship with the father motivated the daughters to work in the FOBs.

**Situational factors**

The purpose of this study was to investigate how culture affects daughter succession processes in Turkey and the culture that challenges traditional gender role assumptions. It found a direct correlation between cultural norms and the gendered assumptions of business owners. In terms of FOB owners’ cultural assumptions, the interviews revealed that laissez-faire leaders more easily accepted a daughter as a successor than paternalistic leaders since the laissez-faire culture is more amenable to entrepreneurship than the paternalistic pattern. In contrast, paternalistic leaders considered gender in succession decisions more than laissez-faire leaders.

According to the employee survey, 95% of the organisations had very low power distance characteristics. That is, the employees did not report any strong authoritarianism by their managers, and felt they could share all their ideas with their managers. Additionally, in the companies where the FOB owners’ had a strong primogeniture tendency, the employees had more negative attitudes about gender egalitarianism. In these organisations, subordinates did not consider males and females to be equally effective in terms of leadership ability.
Regarding this study’s first research question, second or third-generation FOB owners highlighted the importance of the hometowns where their fathers had set up the business or where they had been born or grown up in the second or third generation, however, the location of the business could create certain conflicts between the successor and the family.

Some daughters indicated the importance of quality of life, which they could not find where the family business was located. In particular, daughters educated abroad did not want to live in small Turkish cities, complaining about the wide cultural gap between foreign countries and Turkey, and their hometown and major Turkish cities. Having been educated abroad, they wanted to feel free and had serious concerns about the succession because of the business’s location. In some cases, daughters found their hometown and the location of their factory area very conservative compared to Istanbul. In short, the location of the business in Turkey should be considered as an important factor since expectations about the quality of life for the new generation of Turkish women may facilitate or hinder FOB succession.

To sum up, whereas Dyer (1986) identified a temporal sequence of patterns throughout the succession process in different FOB generations, the first and main contribution of this study is that this sequence may not necessarily start with a paternalistic culture. Instead, this study found that a cultural pattern is more likely to depend on the incumbent FOB owner’s education and his/her succession stories. The second and third generations, which Dyer expects to adopt a laissez-faire/participative or professional culture, showed a paternalistic culture if they had a low educational level or their succession stories strongly depended on primogeniture. Second, the study shows that a laissez-faire family business culture encouraged and accepted daughters as a successor more easily than a paternalistic culture. Even though primogeniture still dominates Turkish FOB value systems, in laissez-faire cultures, especially first generational, employees, family members, and FOB owners all accepted daughters as a successor more easily than in paternalistic cultures. Third, the current study shows that family business culture was also associated with the
location. In this Turkish context, FOBs in major cities were more likely to adopt a laissez-faire culture, while businesses in central or eastern Anatolia showed more paternalistic characteristics.

8.2. Implications for theory and research

The findings of this study have several implications for daughter succession processes in Turkish FOBs. The significant findings of this study, from the literature, interviews, and surveys support its major predictions. Previous studies have tended to focus on mostly agency or stewardship theories of family business while examining the successor and incumbent related factors, while unfortunately ignoring employee considerations. However, the literature shows that both incumbent and the successors’ good relationship with the employees of the enterprise can facilitate the succession process (Schuman et al., 2010; Haberman & Danes, 2007; Otten-Pappas, 2015).

This study shows that FOB owners’ cultural values primarily determine both the succession process and their employees’ cultural attitudes. Although national culture still affects how people act and think, one of the main implications of this study is that national culture does not affect everybody similarly in the same culture or business. More specifically, a FOB owner’s characteristics are more likely than national culture to determine whether employees can accept his daughter as a successor. However, according to researcher’s observation; interview results and survey research participants show that national culture has an impact on the FOB owner and he/she effects employee perceptions more than national culture. Another finding is that, from the FOB owners’ comments, primogeniture still, unfortunately, dominates succession in Turkish FOBs. In fact, education is considered the most important factor for succession by families and daughters while work experience is considered more valuable than education by FOB employees. Entrepreneurial, laissez-faire families
consider outside work experience more important for their daughters than other families do.

In preparing for fieldwork, an interesting finding was that whereas all the women contacted for an interview agreed to participate, it was difficult to persuade fathers to do so, which highlights a generational difference regarding FOB privacy. Similarly, most FOB owners did not give information about their FOB’s rules. Even though they were assured of keeping the information safe, they feel their FOB like their own family and privacy is considered as their safety. This study confirms that a majority of Turkish families are still paternalistic, especially regarding their daughters, both within the family and in their family business. While education, work experience, interpersonal relations, foreign language skills, and family ties are push factors for the fathers, work experience, recognition by employees, and interpersonal relations are push factors for the daughters. On the other hand, sector and location maybe both pull and push factor for daughters, depending on the circumstances.

Regarding entrepreneurship for the new generation of Turkish women, a majority of the fathers believe there are no limits to what their daughters can achieve in business life. Due to being well-prepared, educated, and experienced, Turkish women entrepreneurs no longer feel any differences from their male counterparts in business life. However, even though FOB owner and family accept their daughters’ capacities and capabilities for managing the organisation, the majority of them agree with Turkey’s paternalistic environment, as well as cultural factors for accepting daughters as an entrepreneur.
8.3. Limitations of the study

The results of this study provide a useful starting point for future research regarding daughters’ succession journeys in FOBs. However, a number of issues could be addressed.

As mentioned before, the cases were selected with the help of an official from the Turkish Young Businessmen Association (GYIAD). In order to develop a broad understanding of the relationship between cultural values and the entrepreneurial approach to woman entrepreneurs in FOBs, cases were selected in different 11 cities in different regions, which meant they were not fully representative of Turkish FOBs’ main characteristics. For example, the sample does not include FOBs from eastern Anatolia, or south-east or northeast Turkey, which have their own particular strong cultural characteristics. Future research should attempt to cover these regions as well.

Although the influence of boards of directors was mentioned by some interviewees, this was not examined directly but could be in future studies. Since the current study focuses on Turkish family firms, the role of Islam needed to be examined in more depth. Under the extremely conservative current government of the Justice and Development Party, the number of pious family firms has dramatically increased. Additionally, as religious conservatism grows, women’s status in business life has also changed in Turkey. Islamic precepts with regard to innovation and entrepreneurship are complicated (Sabah et al., 2014), but this was not examined in this study. Therefore, for a deeper understanding of the current situation in Turkish FOBs, future studies should examine the influence of an Islamic approach, taking into consideration the effect of religious belief on entrepreneurship and selection of FOB successors through the national culture influenced by the government.
Another important issue that arose during data collection was that both the interview and survey questions needed to be more appropriately prepared for particular types of employees. That is, some survey participants could not understand all the questions, especially those related to entrepreneurship. Future FOB research needs to take this issue into consideration during question design.

Another limitation of this study is that internationalised FOBs were more gender egalitarian than the others. Since this was not explicitly examined in this study, future research should consider this as an important facilitator of daughter succession. Despite these potential limitations, this study makes an important contribution to helping Turkish FOBs plan successful successions, both for the successor and the employees.

8.4. Concluding remarks

Research into women in family businesses, gender, cultural norms, and entrepreneurship have become increasingly prominent, and are beginning to address the gap in the knowledge of different entrepreneurial approaches in different cultures. An awareness of the importance of recognising different approaches to women in different cultures is beginning to help improve women entrepreneurs’ success in business life. Previous studies have offered different views regarding succession problems, but only from the incumbent or successor’s point of view. While some have examined both sides’ perceptions, none have studied all members of the FOB, including the family, owner, daughter, and employees.

Regarding the study’s first research goal, paternalistic and laissez-faire family business cultural patterns were identified in the context of Turkish FOBs. However, the professional and participative patterns were not observed in any of the cases. In
accordance with the second goal, this study identified that the sequence of cultural patterns across different generation may not be as linear as Dyer (1986) predicted.

According to Dyer (1986), the FOB succession process starts with a paternalistic culture during the founder’s reign, becoming a laissez-faire culture or possibly a participative culture when the second generation takes over the firm’s management, ending with a professional culture in the third and subsequent generations. However, like Casimior and Chambel (2014), this study found that family business culture may not directly be associated with the generation. Besides the generation, the family business owner was found to be the dominant factor in determining the business culture. Moreover, rather than the second generation, first generation family businesses run by an entrepreneur business owner and family were more likely to show laissez-faire cultural characteristics.

Another important contribution of this study is that paternalistic family business owners do not tend to have their daughter’s outside experience while, in laissez-faire cultures, daughters are encouraged to gain outside experience before starting to work in their family business. In both cultures, employees tend to prefer to work with someone from the family or with good experience rather than educational qualifications. This study also shows that, even though the family has an important effect on the business owner, this influence depends on the company size. While in small paternalistic family businesses, the family influence is perceived by the employees, in larger companies, due to a board of directors and outside managers, the family do not tend to be involved too much the business. This study has some practical implications regarding Turkish national culture. Whereas previous research assessed Turkey as a high collectivist and high power distance country, this study found that none of the companies’ employees reported high power distance with their business owners while still showing strong collectivist cultural characteristics.

To sum up, the current study concludes that FOB owners’ cultural values primarily determine both the succession process and their employees’ cultural attitudes.
Although national culture still affects how people act and think, one of the main implications of this study is that national culture does not affect everybody similarly in the same culture or business. More specifically, a FOB owner’s characteristics are more likely to determine whether employees can accept his daughter as a successor.

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Appendices

APPENDIX 1. INTERVIEW RESULTS OF FOB OWNERS’

The purpose of the present study was to explore the succession process of family businesses in Turkey. In this chapter, the responses of the owners/leaders (fathers) and daughters of 20 Turkish Family Owned Businesses are presented individually. The beginning of this chapter is succession stories of the founders and successors and each participant’s comments are presented for each question below. It is important for the reader to note that the interview questions were open ended so leaders and the leadership characteristics of successor daughters are evaluated from a variety of perspectives.

For the FOB owners; (a) Values and Assumptions, (b) Decision Making, (c) Succession Process, (d) Daughter as a Successor

For successors: (a) Demographics, (b) Succession Process, (c) Gendered Norms, (d) Relationship with the father, (e)

Each interview question is provided along with separate responses from each participant.
INTERVIEW RESULTS OF FOB OWNERS’

COMPANY 1.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : JEWELLERY
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 100 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL – GIRL – BOY
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 5
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3 +
FATHER’S EDUCATION; UNIVERSITY
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE; 69
FIRM’S AGE: 52

COMPANY 2.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : SUPERMARKET
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 500 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-BOY
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 7
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 10 +
FATHER’S EDUCATION; HIGH SCHOOL
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE; 72
FIRM’S AGE: 55
COMPANY 3.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : TEXTILE

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 500 +

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 2

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3+

FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL

FOB OWNER’S AGE: 59

FIRM’S AGE: 30

COMPANY 4.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : KITCHENWARE

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 1000 +

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL-BOY

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 10 +

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 10 +

FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL

FOB OWNER’S AGE: 52

FIRM’S AGE: 70
COMPANY 5.

**TYPES OF BUSINESS**: PRODUCT MADE OF METAL

**NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES**: 130

**GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE**: GIRL-GIRL

**NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS**: 3

**NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES**: 2

**NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES**: 15

**FATHER’S EDUCATION**: UNIVERSITY

**MOTHER’S EDUCATION**: UNIVERSITY

**FOB OWNER’S AGE**: 68

**FIRM’S AGE**: 35


COMPANY 6.

**TYPES OF BUSINESS**: TRANSFORMER

**NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES**: 263

**GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE**: GIRL-GIRL-GIRL

**NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS**: 7

**NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES**: 5

**NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES**: 10

**FATHER’S EDUCATION**: UNIVERSITY

**MOTHER’S EDUCATION**: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 63

FIRM’S AGE: 34

COMPANY 7.

TYPES OF BUSINESS: ESTATE AGENCY and CONSTRUCTION

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 100+

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3

FATHER’S EDUCATION: MASTERS DEGREE

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY

FOB OWNER’S AGE: 54

FIRM’S AGE: 36

COMPANY 8.

TYPES OF BUSINESS: CHEMICALS

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 500 +

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5+

FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 57
FIRM’S AGE: 30

COMPANY 9.

TYPES OF BUSINESS: LOCAL NEWSPAPER-TV
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 100+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-GIRL
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 6+
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 6
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 10+
FATHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 73
FIRM’S AGE: 36

COMPANY 10.

TYPES OF BUSINESS: FURNITURE
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 500+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL-GIRL
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 5+
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5+
FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 53
FIRM’S AGE: 66

COMPANY 11.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: CATERING
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 400 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-GIRL-BOY
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 1
FATHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 65
FIRM’S AGE: 47

COMPANY 12.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: CONSTRUCTION
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 300 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-BOY-BOY
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5+
FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 55
FIRM’S AGE: 23

COMPANY 13.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: CHEMICAL PURIFICATION
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 400+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL (TWINS)
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3
FATHER’S EDUCATION: PHD
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 58
FIRM’S AGE: 33

COMPANY 14.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: TRANSFORMER
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 3000+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-BOY-GIRL
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 4
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5+
FATHER’S EDUCATION; MASTER
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
FOB OWNER’S AGE; 71
FIRM’S AGE: 45

COMPANY 15.
TYPES OF BUSINESS : BAKERY
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 200+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 5+
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 3
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: -
FATHER’S EDUCATION; HIGH SCHOOL
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE; 66
FIRM’S AGE: 70

COMPANY 16.
TYPES OF BUSINESS : SUNFLOWER OIL
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 1000+
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL-BOY

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NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2
FATHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 64
FIRM’S AGE: 43

COMPANY 17.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: OLIVE&OLIVE OIL
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 500 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: GIRL
NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 2
NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 1
NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 1
FATHER’S EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY
MOTHER’S EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL
FOB OWNER’S AGE: 51
FIRM’S AGE: 26

COMPANY 18.
TYPES OF BUSINESS: CARPET
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 300 +
GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL-GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: -

FATHER’S EDUCATION; PRIMARY SCHOOL

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL

FOB OWNER’S AGE; 62

FIRM’S AGE: 62

COMPANY 19.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : JEWELLERY

NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES : 40+

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 2

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 1

FATHER’S EDUCATION; PRIMARY SCHOOL

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: PRIMARY SCHOOL

FOB OWNER’S AGE; 71

FIRM’S AGE: 46

COMPANY 20.

TYPES OF BUSINESS : SMARTCARD
NUMBER OF EMPLOYEES: 300+

GENDER OF THE KIDS IN THE ORDER OF AGE: BOY-GIRL

NUMBER OF FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN THE BUSINESS: 3

NUMBER OF THESE FAMILY MEMBERS WORKING IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 2

NUMBER OF NON-FAMILY MEMBERS IN MANAGEMENT ROLES: 5+

FATHER’S EDUCATION: PHD

MOTHER’S EDUCATION: MASTER DEGREE

FOB OWNER’S AGE: 57

FIRM’S AGE: 37

SECTION 1. VALUES AND ASSUMPTIONS

Question 1. How many generations have been involved in your business?

Response 1. 2nd
Response 2. 2nd
Response 3. First
Response 4. 3rd
Response 5. First
Response 6. First
Response 7. First
Response 8. First
Response 9. First
Response 10. 3rd
Question 2. Please tell me the story of how you came to take over the leadership of your family business.

Response 1. I started to work at my family business when I was 15. I used to come to work as a service staff and was serving the tea and coffee to people at the shop. Our shop was the biggest jewellery shop in the city and we had quite a lot of customers. Even though my dad was a good designer I wasn’t talented at all but I was a good seller. I studied statistics at the university and as soon as I graduated I started to work at the accounting department. When my father decided to resign, as the eldest son I got in charge of the business.

Response 2. My father had a small shop in the city and I used to work at the shop after the school. When I graduated from the high school I started to work as a whole time worker. I used to help my father. When my father died I carried out that shop three more years then opened another branch in the city. The following year I opened two more branches with the same name. After five years me and my younger brother decided to open a supermarket so we sold all other shops and opened a big supermarket.
Response 3. I am the first generation of this business.

Response 4. My grand father used to work as a tin man. My dad learned that business from his father but he improved that business and started to sell aluminium saucepans. Later on he set up a factory to produce aluminium cookers. It was the biggest aluminium casserole producer of Turkey. I went to Germany for the university and started to work as a General Manager at the factory. My dad retired when he was 74 and I got in charge of the business.

Response 5. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 6. I am the first generation of the business

Response 7. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 8. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 9. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 10. We are the furniture manufacturer family for 3 generations. My granddad had a small furniture atelier and my dad learned this artisanship from his dad. He was a famous furniture manufacturer in his region. Actually I wasn’t interested in working in this sector, I wanted to be an officer. I went to university to study economics but couldn’t find a proper job that I wanted to work at. I started to work at our atelier as an accountant and had to learn the processes at the factory. I was the only boy in the family and when my dad passed away I had to get in charge with the business. It was a compulsory process; I didn’t want to run this business but I am happy with it now.

Response 11. My dad was a cook. It wasn’t his own business but he was called for weddings, funerals and other mass ceremonies. I was always interested in cooking and learned it from my dad. I used to go with my dad in order to help him. When my dad was at his fifties he decided to start his own job and we opened a small catering company. Initially we were cooking just for mass celebrations but we were also receiving orders from business offices for their lunches. I didn’t go to university, as soon as I graduated from high school I started to work with my dad and I was following
the orders and the accounts. Until my dad decided to retire we worked together. When he decided not to work anymore I started to run the business on my own.

Response 12. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 13. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 14. My dad used to run another business but I also used to work with him. Even though our business is in the second generation, I set up this transformation business. But I still supervised my father’s business more than ten years when my father was alive. So we can’t call ours as an actual succession process, but, when his health problems started he left the job and I started to run the business on my own.

Response 15. My dad had a flourmill and I grew up at that mill and learnt everything from my dad. My dad worked at the mill until he died but I had already added some extra productions to flour before my dad passed away. We started to produce some bakery products at the small workshop next to our mill. But later on we focused more on those bakery products rather than flour production. I was 29 years old when I started to run this business own my own.

Response 16. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 17. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 18. My mum used to sell the carpets. She had her own workshop with workers and they were weaving rug for my mum. My mum used to arrange the carpet weaving and selling. I didn’t go to school after primary school and started to work with my mum. I opened my own a shop when my mum was alive. She was setting up weaving and I was selling them. When she passed away I started to organise everything on my own, I was 32 years old.

Response 19.I am the first generation of the business.

Response 20. I am the first generation of the business.
Question 3. What was the most difficult part of the succession process for you?

Response 1. I wasn’t good at business management and didn’t have any other experience rather than our business. It was the difficult part for me.

Response 2. My dad passed away suddenly and I didn’t have enough experience to run the business. Even though I had been working with my father I wasn’t ready for being in charge. Being in charge compulsorily was the difficult part for me. I wasn’t ready to run the business on my own.

Response 3. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 4. Actually I was ready for it and I didn’t have any difficulty in moving into the business, but I didn’t have any other experience rather than our business and didn’t know the market for example our competitors well. I wish I knew our competitors and business life more.

Response 5. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 6. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 7. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 8. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 9. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 10. I didn’t want to work at furniture business. When my dad was alive I wanted to be an officer and I used to think to leave the business one day. Actually I wasn’t ready to run the business on my own. I didn’t know the whole process and wasn’t familiar with the sector. My dad didn’t prepare me as a successor and I didn’t have enough experience. I didn’t know how to manage everything. I wish he would have trained me as the only successor.
Response 11. I didn’t live any difficulties during the succession process because I had been working with my dad and I had already known everything as much as my dad.

Response 12. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 13. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 14. Even though my father didn’t run the business I had no one to ask, no one to give me an idea or to show the right way. I didn’t realise how the succession occurred, when he was alive. He just pushed me into the business and left all the work over me. But, when he passed away, doing and deciding everything was quite annoying. I wish I had someone from the family who could help me.

Response 15. My dad was running his own business, which he inherited as a flour mill from his dad. When my dad passed away my aunt and her family wanted to sell the factory and share everything. She and her family didn’t work at the mill and the factory even a day but they wanted to share everything. We lived many difficulties, I wish my dad had arranged everything before he died.

Response 16. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 17. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 18. When my mum was alive I was just selling the carpets but didn’t know anything about production. I wasn’t ready to be on my own. Hand made carpets started to get less popular and machine made carpets were getting more popular. I am uneducated and didn’t have a chance to find another job. I wish I was educated.

Response 19. I am the first generation of the business.

Response 20. I am the first generation of the business.

Question 4. Do you think family business is successful now? In what aspects?

Response 1. Yes, Designing.

Response 2. Not too much.
Response 3. Yes, export.

Response 4. Yes, all kind of aspects.

Response 5. Yes, we can say it is successful in its sector. What we are not successful of its sustainability, because only one person from the second generation is in the business and no one will be taken over.

Response 6. Yes, I think so. In production development, human resources and the practical thinking management.

Response 7. Yes.

Response 8. Yes, new product lines, entrepreneurship, innovation.

Response 9. Yes, we are one of the biggest conglomerates in Turkey and successful in all kind of areas.


Response 12. Successful

Response 13. Very successful, improving the products and export.


Response 15. Not bad. There is a big competition in the market

Response 16. Yes, successful.

Response 17. Yes, we are good at improving our products. Producing new items and opening the new lines.

Response 18. Not really.

Response 19. Good, very good especially marketing and franchising.

Response 20. Yes. We are not the company that we set up 15 years ago. We have many products and services now.
Question 5. Are you happy about your leadership style? Can you describe your leadership style?

Response 1. Kind of. I try to set up a close relationship with my staff, deal with their problems. I want to inspire my employees with my attitudes and try to be a manager that employees want to follow my rules and decisions.

Response 2. Yes. I am a better leader than my father. I try to be a good and effective leader. I learnt from my father that employees should respect you and the only way for this is; you should inspire them with your decisions. What I have been doing for many years is; I just want to show my employees and family members that I am reliable and do what I have promised. I am always behind my decisions.

Response 3. Yes. I am like their father. I always take care of them, all of my employees. I treat them exactly the way I treat my daughters.

Response 4. Sort of. Sometimes I find myself very naive. I want to be quite more instructive but its too late now. All of my employees are my friends and I can’t treat them like my slaves.

Response 5. Not really, unfortunately the naïve leader can not be the successful

Response 6. Except some small defects, I am happy about my leadership style.

Response 7. I am, but, this should be asked to my staff. However, I try to set up a good relation with them. They can speak everything with me.

Response 8. Yes, I wasn’t happy about my leadership style, but I learned how to be a good leader. I learned from my faults, I am more serious and I usually keep a distance between me and my employees. I think, being a friend or setting up a close relationship with your staff is not always good.

Response 9. Yes, I have enough experience for testing it, now I know how I should be, which kind of leader is preferred. As a 70 plus year old man, I know that employees want to see their leader powerful and quite mystical. Employees should not know everything about their leader and can not reach him easily.
Response 10. I am not sure, sometimes I am quite stubborn and do not let my subordinates activate their decisions. I can be quite open to their ideas.

Response 11. Yes, I am. I am not a snob leader. I try to encourage and motivate my team.

Response 12. Yes, but I am sure my staff is not. I am a very straight person and do not set up a close relationship with my staff. Maybe it is not good for my employees but I prefer this. We are working with my brother and he is very friendly with out staff maybe I want to balance it.

Response 13. Yes, but my daughter and son do not like it. They find me too friendly.

Response 14. Yes, I can arrange the distance between me and my staff. We have a conglomerate and I can not know the whole staff of mine but they are usually very friendly when I come across with them. But I prefer to remain at bay.

Response 15. Not really, I am not a leader of my staff, I am in all stages of production and always with them. But they respect me, they know that I solve their problems and think of them and their carrier.

Response 16. Yes, I am an easy going person and can set up a good relationship with them.

Response 17. I do not know what they think. Employees should evaluate my leadership style. But, as far as I can see they are happy about my leadership style. I just want to be a bit more relaxed, to have more free time. I work too much, involve too many things.

Response 18. Yes, I do not know. Working with my daughter and son, but they criticize me too much about my management style. They want me to be stricter.

Response 19. Yes, I try to solve their problems and try to be like their father.

Response 20. Yes, my brother finds me too friendly and says that I am not like their manager. But, he is so strict and our employees can not reach him easily, that’s why I try to be friendly with them. I know all their private lives and problems.
SECTION 2. DECISION MAKING

Question 6. Is there a certain successor for the leadership of the company? If succession is expected, has a date been set or announced?

Response 1. Now, we are working with my two brothers, one of my nephews and my daughter. Even though I have two brothers, one is responsible for production and one is from our shops. Normally, after me, my biggest brother is supposed to be the new leader, however, my eldest daughter has a university degree on jewellery designing from Italy and later on she has an MBA degree in US. Therefore, all our family agree on her being the next manager of our company. She also has enough experience on jewellery. Everybody knows her at our business and she has a good relation with them. Therefore, my eldest daughter will be our organisation’s next leader. It is not expected now.

Response 2. We are a supermarket chain and now we are working with my two younger brothers, two nephews and my son and daughter. I am the CEO of the whole organisation and two of my brothers are the members of the board. My eldest brother’s eldest son graduated from computer science and he is the head of our IT department. My son is younger than him but has an experience in all departments like shops, export-import, marketing, accounting. At the same time, I am the biggest share holder, so, I am planning to make my son the next CEO of the organisation. I am planning to resign in a year but the date has not been set and announced yet.

Response 3. Yes, my daughter will be. The date is not clear yet.

Response 4. Actually, we are quite a big family and we have been working for a long time together. Everybody expected my son to be the next leader of our companies but, surprisingly, unfortunately, he decided to be an academician and stayed at the
US. On the other hand, my daughter started to work with me after graduating from university. She has a degree on marketing and also has an experience on PR (Public Relations). I do not feel confident enough about her yet because she hasn’t got experience in another sector or company, therefore I want my daughter to have some experience apart from our business. The date hasn’t been announced yet.

Response 5. Yes, my youngest daughter. We haven’t announced yet.

Response 6. Yes, we haven’t indicated the date and announced yet.

Response 7. We run this business with my wife and daughter. We set up this business with my wife and now working together with my wife, daughter and more than a hundred employees. My daughter developed herself in order to be the next manager of our business. She is an architect and has been working together with us for five years. I do not wish to leave the business yet but I think I will announce in advance when I decide to resign.

Response 8. Yes, my daughter will run the business. She has been working with us since she graduated from the university and she has already been working at managerial position. I want to pass the leadership position when I am working at the company actively. Some people is criticising me for this decision but I want to see how she will be when I am here. I want to assess her when I am together with her. I would like to announce it in 3-4 years’ time.

Response 9. All my daughters are in managerial position now. However, in terms of the next CEO, my eldest daughter will run the business instead of me. Actually, to be honest, if I have a chance, I would like to leave my chair to my eldest son in law. He has extremely good experience and good leadership qualifications, but I think my daughter wants to be the next CEO. I think it will be happening this year and I will announce it to everyone.

Response 10. I have only one son and he is supposed to be the next CEO. However, he is a doctor and he is not interested in at all. My daughter will be the next CEO of our family business. She is educated in management and business and has been working with us and already is responsible for HR and foreign trade. I am planning to announce
it to the whole company, hence everybody has been looking forward to it. But, the date is not clear yet.

Response 11. Yes, my eldest daughter is willing to carry the leader position too much. Her abilities are suitable for it. Actually, she is already running our business but I would like to transfer all my responsibilities in a very short time. We haven’t announced a date yet.

Response 12. Even though I am working with my daughter now, construction business is not suitable for girls. She graduated from a very well known British University and my son is still studying engineering. I want to leave my business to my son, of course in terms of management. I want my daughter to set up her own life, if she wants she can work in our business but managing the constructing company as a girl is quite difficult. But, of course we will see.

Response 13. I am working with my daughter and son. I think my son will run the business after me. Even though they both work with me I think my son will be the next CEO but I am sure my daughter will be responsible for some departments and will be a member of the board. The date is not clear yet.

Response 14. My eldest son will be the next CEO of our conglomerate. I am sure my youngest son and my daughter will keep working at our business. My two boys graduated from business management and my daughter is an electronic engineer, therefore she is very interested in our sector and very successful at production. I think it will be happening in a couple of years.

Response 15. Now, we are producing ready made, pre packed cookies with longer shelf lives. I wanted my son to work with us and to be the boss. But, he doesn’t want to work in this sector and we opened him a car gallery and he sells cars now. I have my daughter with me and she will run the business when I decide to retire. It will happen soon.

Response 16. We are working together with my boy and girl. There is only 2 and a half years between them. Actually, I want my son to run the business after me but it might
create a conflict between them, because my daughter is also willing to manage the company. I haven’t decided yet who and when it will happen.

Response 17. Luckily I have a daughter and she is happy working with us in that business. She will run the business but I am still young enough to work so we will work together some more time.

Response 18. My son and eldest daughter are working with me. He is responsible for export-import and our shops, my daughter is responsible for accounting. I think my son will take after me. I am planning to resign next year.

Response 19. We have a very strange story. I really worked hard to make my son manage the business. On the contrary I tried to keep my daughter away from working. Especially in this sector, I wanted her to be a teacher. She went to university and graduated as an English teacher. But the more I tried to keep her away, the more she got involved. On the other hand, the more I pushed my son, the more he hated this sector. I sent him to America, he studied business management. He started to work when he came back but neither him, nor the employees didn’t like to work with him. We opened an exchange office to him, now he is running his own business. I tried to keep her away but she never gave up. I didn’t let her work with me so she opened a small boutique for herself. She designed and produced fantastic jewelleries. I saw and admired her effort and now we are working together and I am sure she will run the business better than me. She is already running her shop in Istanbul but when I decide to leave the work, she will also run this shop, because we are in different cities. I am planning to leave everything to her in two-three years.

Response 20. There are two possibilities, either my son or my brother’s son. But, my son has more chance and also he is the oldest. If it will be agreed I am planning to hand over to my son. We are not planning to leave the work yet.

Question 7. Does the world economic environment affect the succession process? How?
Response 1. Economy affects everything. I do not know how it affects but, it affects our business and also succession process. If everything does not go well maybe we might think to stay more or I might think to hand over to my brother, rather than my daughter.

Interrupted Question: Why do you think your brother can do better than your daughter? He has more experience than my daughter. We have some bad experiences as well and he can handle it better, I think.

Response 2. I hope everything goes well and economy does not affect our business. It affects our business and also affects the succession. Even though I want to resign, I might postpone the succession, if economy goes bad.

Response 3. I don’t think so. With or without me my daughter can handle everything.

Response 4. Yes, it does. I can postpone my retirement, if something extra happens.

Response 5. Due to fluctuation, our profitability decreased. We are struggling to make profit and in this tough period its hard to concentrate on the succession process.

Response 6. It doesn’t affect.

Response 7. It does. It affects all the sectors. But, everything should be in perfect condition for me to resign.

Response 8. Obviously. It will affect my situation; I can’t leave my job if economy doesn’t go well.

Response 9. I don’t think so. I have to leave in a couple of years. They can handle it on their own.

Response 10. Maybe. I want to hand the business over when everything is still going well.

Response 11. To be honest world economic environment does not affect our business. It affects everything but does not effect food industry.

Response 12. It does. I will assess my son and daughter’s capabilities then and will decide to resign according to the economic conditions.
Response 13. It can be, I do not know how but it effects everything.

Response 14. Yes, I might be able to postpone my retirement according to economic conditions.

Response 15. I don’t think so.

Response 16. I might not resign if everything does not go well. It depends on my daughter and son’s leadership capabilities.

Response 17. I can’t resign if economy is not good.

Response 18. I do not know. I don’t think so.

Response 19. My daughter can manage and deal with everything, it doesn’t affect our succession.

Response 20. If economic conditions are not good maybe my brother can run for a while, until my son or daughter will become more experienced.

Question 8. When one of the managers of your company resign, how do you recruit the new leader? What kind of qualifications do you look for? Is it important to be from the family?

Response 1. According to our company’s experience the candidate of the manager should have sufficient experience in our sector. As a family business I would give the priority to my family members.

Response 2. The manager should be trained and he/she should have the desire to manage his/her department. Experience and performance are the most important qualifications for us.

Response 3. We are working with an HR company but we have the final word. We emphasise on experience, education and performance, they are our priorities. I tend to give priority to my family members, if there is an available candidate within the family.
Response 4. We give priorities within the business. The manager candidate must be someone in an important position. Basically, we promote someone from the company to the manager position after the internal training for the managerial position. If there is someone suitable from the family, we want to give them a chance first.

Response 5. I would consider people’s capabilities and what they can bring to the company. Experienced managers will be considered first and I prefer from my relatives first.

Response 6. I think the contribution to the company is the most important thing.

Response 7. To be honest I don’t want to hire anyone from my relatives. The manager should carry some specific leadership characteristics, like good communication skills, creativity, crisis management and vision which are very important for me. If I would have a son who didn’t have managerial skills, I wouldn’t hire him.

Response 8. He/She must be the one who can add something extra to our company, someone who has good ability of communication with us, he/she is able to encourage employees and employees should respect him/her. I do not want to hire someone from my relatives, it all depends on the leadership ability of the person. The best manager should be the best leader for me.

Response 9. Actually, we prefer to hire someone internally, but at some positions we have some help from a consultancy company. The manager must get respect from all the directors of the departments and our family. Despite we are a listed company, traditional family business rules are valid in our company. I appointed all the key positions someone from my family; my daughters, son in law or someone who has good educated from my family. Response 10. We prefer an experienced leader to hire, either within the company or not. But they should carry leadership characteristics; Managers must be successful in order to hold onto their authority and serve as role models for other employees.

Response 11. I would choose the best candidate from my family, but they must show themselves in the company first. Of course some characteristics are important. They should show respect to us, they should know that we are a family business. We
struggled too much to bring our company in this position. They should understand our company and family culture. We train our family members to be in the management positions because we don’t think people from outside will have enough loyalty to the company.

Response 12. I consider people’s performance and the way they deal with problems. Communication and coordination abilities are too important. Education and experience is also very important. In my point of view, experienced candidates can be our managers.

Response 13. On the contrary of traditional family business mentality, I don’t want to work with someone from my relatives or my wife’s relatives. I consider my work as a family, it should have some regulations, it should have its own culture. I look at people’s abilities. Whether she/he can manage the best way and they have to be a responsible person. He/She has to be open minded and should encourage his/her followers in a good way. They have to comply with us as one of our family member.

Response 14. I have a couple of people from my relatives, but I consider their abilities rather than who they are. They should be educated, experienced or open to be trained. I prefer to assign my position to one of my sons and prefer to see my daughter in one of the key positions. But, they are all qualified and able to sustain our company culture. We are active in seven different sectors and none of them are managed by a person who comes from my family. Managing the organisation is the most important issue for me and I just looked at their back ground and qualifications. Leadership abilities, communication skills, languages, their entrepreneurship style, etc. is important. Also, due to globalisation, managers must have global vision. I never hired someone for just being an acquaintant.

Response 15. Our company is a traditional family owned business. I tend to put my family members to the key point but they respect and listen to me all the time. Even though I still do many things on my own, I do trust my relatives more than the other people. May be it is just me.
Response 16. If someone from the family has the qualifications, I prefer them. As a traditional family business we want to supply the job to our family member’s first. Even if they are not familiar to our company culture or our job, I can train them.

Response 17. We don’t have too many leader positions, I have just someone outside my family who is a farmer and who is extremely professional in olive harvesting. To be honest I don’t prefer to work with someone from relatives.

Response 18. Maybe it is not good but, I would like to deal with everything on my own. I have been working with many of my relatives for a long time. My nephews have been working with me but they are not in managing positions. Although they can’t decide on their own, I prefer to work with them rather than the people who I don’t know. At least they are from my family and I trust them.

Response 19. You know it is family business and we deal with jewellery, precious stones and gold. You can’t trust everybody. Therefore, I would like to choose the people from my family, especially at the production departments. Almost all the shop managers are from my family. I don’t think people from outside will have enough loyalty to the company and I have no confidence in this idea of hiring professional managers from outside.

Response 20. We are working with a very professional HR company, they make the interviews but we just have the last word. In our company having a graduate degree, having studied abroad and knowing one or two foreign languages are all required, as key points. To be honest, I am not a person who wants to supply a business to relatives only for their family tie. In international business you need a global viewpoint. Knowing English and studying in another country are very important to us. This affects their chances of promotion.

SECTION 3. SUCCESSION PROCESS

Question 9. When do you wish to resign from your leadership position?
Response 1. I have no idea.
Response 2. I think in one year, because I have some health problems.
Response 3. I don’t know.
Response 4. When I am confident that my daughters can run the business on their own, I want to leave it to them.
Response 5. I don’t have any plan for it but I will leave when I have to.
Response 6. Because of our new investments, I am planning to resign at the end of the 2016.
Response 7. I am planning to retire at my late sixties.
Response 8. I don’t want to stay at home, I can’t. I do not want to leave the job but I am planning to retire when I am still healthy enough to work with them. I intend to retire when my daughter has enough experience and I am confident that she or they (with my youngest daughter) can run the business on their own. But I think in ten years’ time.
Response 9. Actually, I have already done it. Even though I am still at work, I am not involved in the processes too much. But I would like to leave in one or two years.
Response 10. I would like to resign before getting too old, but I can’t. I think I will leave in 3-5 years’ time.
Response 11. I am planning to retire when working together with my daughters. Before getting too old, I will resign. I mean in a couple of years.
Response 12. I decided to leave at the age of 65 and everybody knows at the business, it makes their life and carrier plan easier.
Response 13. I haven’t decided yet.
Response 14. I am planning to resign in 5 years’ time.
Response 15. When my daughter has enough experience, I will resign.
Response 16. I think I will resign before getting too old, but there is no exact date.
Response 17. I haven’t decided yet.
Response 18. I am planning to resign at the end of this year.
Response 19. My daughter is ready to manage the company and I think I can resign in a year.
Response 20. I don’t have any plans about it, I am planning to run the business as far as I think I can.

Question 10. Is there any possible conflict at any particular point?

Response 1. We don’t have.
Response 2. There are many points that we can not agree on, even with my family or with my board of members. We have many candidates for the next successor and it makes conflict.
Response 3. We don’t have.
Response 4. We have some problems with our board of members in terms of succession selection.
Response 5. My daughter is very sensitive for this job and she doesn’t have anybody to help her.
Response 6. There are very many points that we can not agree on.
Response 7. It is very early to thinking about succession process for us.
Response 8. No
Response 9. I don’t think so

Response 10. We might live within the family and the board members. Because she is not living here and it might be create some conflict.

Response 11. We don’t have
Response 12. I am sure we will live some conflicts, because me and my wife do not want our daughter work at our business.

Response 13. I don’t think so.

Response 14. No, I don’t think so.

Response 15. No, all our workers already ready to work with her but maybe my wife creates some problem for the timing.

Response 16. We have already dealing with many conflict with my daughter and family in order to selection of the successor.

Response 17. We never live any problems about the succession.

Response 18. I have a son and he will be the successor, we wont live any conflict.

Response 19. Even though my son is running another business he might want to have his share when I decided to resign.

Response 20. I can’t guess it by now but we might live between our brother and there might be some conflict between cousins.

Question 11. Do you think gender makes a difference when evaluating the successor? How?

Response 1. It does. It also depends on the sector. In our sector, I am sure if I would have a son, it couldn’t be as easy as it is now. But, in another sector gender might be more important. This is jewellery business and women are more interested in it. Therefore, I am lucky and I can hand over the business to my daughter easily.

Response 2. According to our company’s experience, the candidate of the leader position must serve in an important position for a period of time. Experience and qualifications is really important. The future leader must start to work from the introduction and has to gain experience in our business. Girl or boy does not matter
for me. However, I do not know what I would think, if I had an elder son. Gender is actually important for managing, especially for a business like ours.

Response 3. In my point of view, I would consider the capability rather than gender. It is not important for me.

Response 4. It is. I would prefer to hand over my position to my son, but, unfortunately he can’t. I think in Turkey being a female leader and running the business is more difficult than being a male leader.

Response 5. I think girls have disadvantages for having a baby, spending time with their family and husband. Despite all those disadvantages I have been seen my youngest daughter improved herself and can do everything more that a man does. My only concern is she can’t carry all those stress and it makes her unhappy.

Response 6. I don’t need to think about it, because I have three daughters.

Response 7. It does not make any difference for me. I am happy to have a daughter but even I have a son. I would consider the talent and ability rather than the gender.

Response 8. In my point of view, it does not play an important role. I am so happy for having two girls and my eldest daughter is more talented than many of my male staff.

Response 9. I don’t know, I think it does. I would prefer to hand over my business to someone who can handle everything. You know, this is a men’s world and business life is gathered with them. Even though my daughters and, many other entrepreneur women do not accept it, it is really difficult for a woman. According to me women should focus on their marriage and kids. I am actually lucky because my daughters have had a good education and they have a chance to work at their family business but for others it might be more difficult.

Response 10. No, it is not. My eldest child is a boy but he won’t run our business and my daughter can do what he is supposed do. The importance is their talents; gender is not important.

Response 11. I think it depends on the sector. Our business is more women oriented and women can run this business, thus I am quite lucky. My daughter can run this
business. However, if I need to talk about Turkey and running a business as a woman; gender is important.

**Response 12.** It does, especially at construction industry. Because it is a men business, you have to check the area, deal with workers, need to buy and check the products etc. It is important to evaluate the successor.

**Response 13.** It never makes any difference for my family and our business. We evaluate their talents and their contribution to the company. That is important for us. Gender never makes any difference.

**Response 14.** It does not but I don’t know, my son is the eldest and he will take over. I don’t know what I would do if I had a daughter older than my son. I think she would be the next leader.

**Response 15.** It does but I am lucky that our family business is suitable for women more than men. I have been in this business for many years and I have been working with women more than men. Thus, I think my daughter will run the business as a woman. But, to be honest, I would prefer my son to take over the business. Actually he also thinks that this business is not suitable for a man.

**Response 16.** It is important to evaluate our business. It is difficult for a woman. I have been running this business for more than 40 years and it is already difficult even for me as a man who grew up in this environment. You have to deal with the farmers, producers, workers, distributors and many more. It is not easy for a woman. I think it is important for evaluating the gender and the sector.

**Response 17.** It does not. It just depends on the leadership characteristics.

**Response 18.** I can evaluate it now because I have a son older than my daughter. However, it is important. All family owned business owners want to leave their businesses to their sons as a legacy.

**Response 19.** It is very important for our culture, especially at the Black Sea region. Every father wants to leave their business to their sons. But, unfortunately, my son did not do it, did not work at this sector. He graduated in the US and it affected his life
style too much and when he came back he couldn’t keep up with Turkish business life, especially in our sector. But, as I said, gender is very important for even choosing the manager.

**Response 20.** Never. My oldest kid is a boy, but even he doesn’t want to do my job. And if my daughter wants to run the business instead of her brother, I can transfer it to her.

SECTION 4. DAUGHTER AS A SUCCESSOR

**Question 12.** How many children do you have in order of gender?

It was written on company profile section.

**Question 13.** If you had an older son, would you have chosen your daughter as the successor? Why?

**Response 1.** I don’t know, I am not sure about it but as I said, this is jewellery business and not too far to women. But, it also depends on their desire on leadership. If I had an older son, I think I would choose him and also I have to choose my son.

**Response 2.** No, I don’t think so, but in succession rules, I have to choose my son instead of my daughter. Like my father did.

**Response 3.** Not because of their gender, but as a family owned business leader I have to choose the oldest one. As long as my son wants to be the next leader I think I wouldn’t consider my daughter.

**Response 4.** I have a son older than my daughter but unfortunately I will hand my business over to my daughter because my son works as an academician. So, I am the best suitable example for this question I think. I have to transfer the leadership to my daughter because I don’t have any other chance.
Response 5. It depends on my older son’s capability, character and education. I will choose the one who will be more helpful to our business. I don’t determine in order to their age.

Response 6. It doesn’t make any difference. Either boy or girl is not important. The most important thing is, who is going to be able to value and continue the long lasting effort.

Response 7. As I said earlier, gender is not important for me and my family. The important thing is their talent, experience and performance. Even now, if my daughter does not want to run our business, I can’t say anything to her. Luckily she is working with us and eager to run the business.

Response 8. I can’t imagine it now but it all depends on them. If my daughter would be more suitable for this position, why not? They can arrange an agreement between them.

Response 9. To be honest, I don’t think so. I think no one skips over their son and make their daughter the next leader.

Response 10. As I said, my daughter supposed to be our businesses’ next leader. To be honest, if my son hadn’t been a doctor I wanted to leave my position to him. But I am happy for him being a doctor. Under normal circumstances, no one would choose their second child, especially a daughter as a leader, instead of their son.

Response 11. No, I don’t and no one does under normal circumstances.

Response 12. I am planning to choose my son although my eldest child is my daughter. Because this is a construction business and I think men are more suitable for it.

Response 13. Neither gender, nor age is important for me. It is up to them; they will agree about it. I won’t make a choice. However, in this condition that you asked, I might not choose my daughter instead of my son.

Response 14. I don’t think so. But it is difficult to answer it, you can not imagine it without knowing her talent and experience. If I would have a daughter, her
performance would play an important role and my son’s performance also. Then I could make a choice.

Response 15. I have already done this. Even though I wanted to see my son to run our business he didn’t want and I will have to leave our business to my daughter. But it isn’t my choice.

Response 16. No, I think I wouldn’t. Because it is his right, as long as he wants, he would be the next leader.

Response 17. If I would have a younger son like my daughter now, I would absolutely do it. According to me it depends on their performance.

Response 18. I don’t think so, because it won’t be fair.

Response 19. No, I wont do it. No one would do it.

Response 20. I do not care about the age. Someone will run our business who has more talent and desire.

Question 14. How can you describe your daughter’s leadership style?

Response 1. She is a very easy going girl. She can communicate with everybody easily, employees can talk to her, they aren’t afraid of her. She is very enthusiastic and eager to carry our business to the top.

Response 2. In my point of view, a leader should keep the distance between employees and we have a conflict on this issue with my daughter. She went to university in Europe and I think that changed her. She wants to set up a close relationship with the employees. I don’t like her in that way. But, she will be a good leader, I believe it. She is very good at encouraging people as a team leader.

Response 3. My eldest daughter carries all the effective leadership characteristics. She is very good at encouraging the workers. If she asks them they will work till the morning. They all respect and love her. She is very creative, has entrepreneurship attributes. She opened us many new lines and new opportunities. My youngest daughter is different from her sister. She graduated from a US university and didn’t
want to stay in XX (A city in Anatolia). Unfortunately, she underestimated our business and wanted to stay in Istanbul. She works in one of the well known banks in Istanbul.

Response 4. I am working with my daughter. Even though we don’t live in the same city, we have to get in touch everyday many times. She is working at our head quarter’s instead of our factory. She graduated from a university in Europe and had a working experience there. She is not like me, she even doesn’t want her employees to call her with a title, she wants them to call her with her first name. I think it is weird, but it is her style. Indeed, I like her leadership style. She even inspires me in some conditions. She is very positive and takes risk easily. She is very enthusiastic to be the next leader.

Response 5. Very good at human relations, hard-headed, asks what she doesn’t know and apply them in her life, she has a big contribution to our family business and all our employees respects her.

Response 6. Strong characteristics, innovative and perfectionist.

Response 7. My daughter graduated from one of the best universities in Turkey as an architect. She made her master’s degree in Italy. We are proud of her, even though she doesn't have any other experience she carries many leadership qualifications. That’s why I believe it is not learned, it comes from your genes. She has always new ideas and she is a risk taker. She is very enthusiastic and has entrepreneurial qualifications.

Response 8. In my point of view, she needs to spend 3-4 more years to feel more like a leader. However, I gave her some responsibilities and do respect her decisions. We dealt with few people but second generation includes a lot more people. Thus, they have to improve their leadership abilities more. My daughter is very good at problem solving and she is a critical thinker. She isn’t emotional like me. I feel like their fathers when taking decisions about my staff’s future. I use an open leadership style, giving them freedom but my daughter is quite an autocratic leader. The authority is important for her. She wants to see respect from the employees, even though they may be older than her.
Response 9. All my daughters are in managerial position and each of them have different leadership style. The eldest one is a very democratic leader. She leads them by talking and rewards them. She is an open minded democratic leader. I like all each ones’ leadership style, they are better than me as a leader. Because they have a father behind them, they take risks easier than I do.

Response 10. My daughter went to the university in America and she also worked there for two years. When I needed help we called her and she started to work with me. Now she is at managerial position in our head quarter in Istanbul, but she comes to our factory very often. I am observing her leadership style, especially during the meetings. She is very friendly and open to people’s new ideas, very goal-oriented. Since she started to work with us, we expanded our export web and started to produce more modern designs. She is a really hard working and enthusiastic manager.

Response 11. She is a very hardworking girl. She works with employees as much as they work. She manages to make people work hard and they don’t object. I like her style and I am confident to inherit the business to her.

Response 12. She is not like me; she is like her uncle. Under the influence of traditional culture, we raised our daughters quite conservatively, still she can set up good relationships with everybody easily. I believe to keep a distance between employees and managerial staff but she does not. Also she is a real entrepreneur, open to new ideas and can take risk for new projects.

Response 13. First of all, she doesn’t act as the owner’s daughter. Sometimes my managers tell me that, she doesn’t tell her surname when they are in meetings. She doesn’t want people to treat her as the owner’s daughter. She graduated from the university with the highest degree and got very good offers from the university, but she preferred to work with me. I felted more comfortable and relax when they both started to work with me.

Response 14. She is not as strong as her brothers. She has been working with us for only 7 years but managed to set up a very good relation with the employees. She is very curious about learning new things, wants to be involved in all stages of the
processes in the factory. All my kids graduated from Universities in America and I think the influence of the western culture, they don’t want to be strict to their staff, they are friendlier than I am, but I was friendlier than my father.

**Response 15.** I like her style. She does manage the people well. She is willing to manage all processes, especially new ones. She likes to create new lines, finding new recipes. She likes to go to international food and bakery expositions in order to be able to explore new products.

**Response 16.** I believe in her ideas. She brings new ideas, especially on marketing. She is a very open minded person.

**Response 17.** I believe that I wouldn’t have expanded this business without my daughter. She has a different style of creative. Initially, we just produce olive oil and after she joined us we started to produce different kind of olives and olive soaps. Now, we started to export all kind of olives to Middle East countries. To be honest, she encourages me. She is a very entrepreneurial girl.

**Response 18.** Everybody likes my daughter but I don’t want to see her as a leader. I want to see her as a mother of my grandchildren. Although she is good at accounting, dealing with everything as a manager requires more talent.

**Response 19.** She is an extremely stubborn girl. She does what she wants to do. She is extremely enthusiastic for this business, she loves, adores this business. She managed to handle it even though I have been against it for many years. She might be selected as the best entrepreneur of the country.

**Response 20.** She grew up in this business environment, so everybody loves her and I don’t think she can set up a distant relationship with the staff. Everybody used to call her with her first name, I wonder how they are going to call her Miss or Mrs.? I am just worried about it, maybe it is just me. But, she has a different sense of humour and encourages people to do their job. She is quite new to our business and now working from the very entry level of our business. But she will learn and I am sure she will add her vision to our business.
Question 15. Do you think Turkey is a favourable country for woman managers? Why?

Response 1. Maybe not for all aspects but it is in family business. We are a family and she is comfortable to work with us. But, in general I can’t say it. Turkish people are not familiar to see women in managerial position. Moreover, businessmen are not familiar to negotiate some issues with women. I am sure my granddaughters will be more confident, if we can manage to carry our business to the third generation.

Response 2. It is. Or I can say it is more favourable if you are in a family business. Employees show more respect to your daughter due to your position. I am sure if she was not my daughter it should have been more difficult. Our business needs to communicate with people, it is retail industry and sometimes we need to solve problems related with transportation. People do not pay women as much as they pay men. Business life is male-dominant and it is quite difficult for women.

Response 3. Maybe not in Istanbul but here (The city where they operate is in the centre Anatolia of Turkey) it is quite tough. People are not familiar to see women at leadership positions in here. Sometimes we need to work till midnight, it is not easy for the women.

Response 4. It is not. Especially here (The city where they operate is on the north east of Turkey), that’s why my daughter prefers to stay in Istanbul. Istanbul is a more European city; people are used to seeing women in business life. My daughter spent 7 years in Europe and she very familiar to its culture, therefore, she doesn’t care what people think about her. But in here it is very important and she won’t be able to live that life here.

Response 5. There are some good examples on this issue but not in all part of Turkey. It should absolutely improved.

Response 6. Turkey is a country that, there is a big difference between the east and west. Here, in west side, a girl can not live any difficulties in terms of being a woman.
Response 7. Of course, it is. We have many women leaders who hold very important positions. For example, the President of the Board of Directors of the Turkish Industry and Business Association (TÜSİAD) Cansen Başaran-Symes or the president of KAGİDER Women Entrepreneurs Association of Turkey. They are in very important positions and represent Turkey in all around the world. It is a favourable country for me. There are also many women foreigners who are working here and they are all happy in their business and private lives.

Response 8. Yes, it is. I have been working with my wife since I set up this business, she never lived any difficulties. Now, I have been working with my daughter and I haven’t heard any difficulties that she lived. Maybe it is because we are together with her and that’s why she doesn’t live that kind of difficulties or maybe we live in Istanbul and she doesn’t need to deal with people from other cities, it is very important.

Response 9. It is. I have two daughters and both of them are working actively in business life, not only internally, but also internationally. As far as I know, they don’t live any difficulties. But I cannot generalise it. I grew up in a small city and people are still very conservative there. They don’t like to see women in managerial position. It is all about the culture and education.

Response 10. I cannot generalise it. When my daughter comes here (The city where they operate is on the Northern side of Turkey), she says she is not as comfortable as she is in Istanbul. People concentrate on their family life more here, rather than their business life, especially women. They don’t prefer to work even though they have a university degree. Istanbul is different but in this region it is not easy for a woman.

Response 11. In our business it is very suitable for woman. My daughters do not live any problems. Maybe because it is catering industry and it is woman dominated.

Response 12. I don’t think so. We come across some women in our business as an architect or an engineer but they can’t involve all aspect of the business. I can’t talk about cosmetic or other sectors but in our sector working as a woman is not easy in Turkey.
Response 13. Yes, it is. If you are good at your business and do your business well, being woman or man don’t make any difference. Women do not live any difficulties only for their gender. They can do whatever men do in Turkey.

Response 14. It is. I have woman managers in all factories and in Istanbul and, as far as I know, they don’t live any difficulties.

Response 15. My daughter doesn’t live any difficulties in our business because she works with our women employees. She doesn’t spend much time out of business. Even though this city is not as big as Istanbul (The city where they operate is on the west of Turkey) the western side of Turkey is more open minded than other parts of Turkey. Women are out till midnight and no one disturbs them. Similarly, as a manager, she is very happy to be here and works freely.

Response 16. Our factory is very close to Istanbul and my daughter lives in Istanbul and goes to our office everyday regularly and sometimes comes here to our factory (The factory that they are operate is very close to Istanbul and in a small city on the European side of Turkey). She says she is more comfortable in Istanbul. I mean, I cannot say the whole Turkey is favourable for women leaders, but I can say Istanbul is suitable for them.

Response 17. Yes, it is. My daughter does everything a man can do. She is more sociable than I am. Our factory is in x (The city where their factory is situated is on the Western side of Turkey) and as you know people in this area are very modern. At the same time, my daughter travels very often and she never lives any difficulties neither in Turkey nor in any other part of the world.

Response 18. I don’t think so. The business life is already difficult for men. Especially in our sector, you need to visit retailers and they are all men. How can you talk with them easily as a woman? You need to invite them for lunch, sometimes you have to drink alcohol with them, how can you do these as a woman?

Response 19. I used to believe it was not, but my daughter showed me that it is. She is more sociable and aggressive than I am and does everything a man does. This shows that it is favourable for women entrepreneurs.
Response 20. Why not? I have women managers in all levels of our business. They feel free in our offices, factories and outside Turkey. We don’t pay attention to their gender. It used to be difficult but now Turkey is a very favourable country for Turkish or foreign women managers.

APPENDIX 2. INTERVIEW RESULTS OF FOB DAUGHTERS’

COMPANY 1.
AGE: 39
POSITION: DEPUTY MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 7
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in ITALY (Jewellery Designing)

MBA in AMERICA

COMPANY 2.
AGE: 27
POSITION: HR MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 6
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in the UK (BUSINESS MANAGEMENT)

COMPANY 3.
AGE: 34
POSITION: PRODUCTION MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 12
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (TEXTILE ENGINEERING)

COMPANY 4.
AGE: 33
POSITION: GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 9
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in the UK (MARKETING)

COMPANY 5.
AGE: 30
POSITION: MARKETING SALES DIRECTOR
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 8
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in US, (MARKETING AND PR)

COMPANY 6.
AGE: 39
POSITION: EXECUTIVE DIRECTOR
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 1
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY IN TURKEY (ELECTRONIK ENGINEER)

COMPANY 7.
AGE: 27
POSITION: DEPUTY GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 5
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (ARCHITECT)
          MASTER in ITALY

COMPANY 8.
AGE: 23
POSITION: GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 4
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (ECONOMICS)

COMPANY 9.
AGE: 52
POSITION: BOARD OF MEMBER, GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 25
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in AMERICA (Economics)
          MASTER in AMERICA

COMPANY 10.
AGE: 32
POSITION: DIRECTOR, BUSINESS DEVELOPMENT
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 6
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in AMERICA (Business Management)

COMPANY 11.
AGE: 38
POSITION: DEPUTY GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 17
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (Food Engineering)

COMPANY 12.
AGE: 26
POSITION: HR MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 3
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in the UK (English Literature)

COMPANY 13.
AGE: 31
POSITION: PRODUCTION MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 8
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (Chemical Engineer)

COMPANY 14.
AGE: 28
POSITION: FOREIGN TRADE EXPERT
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 7
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in AMERICA (Electronic Engineer)

COMPANY 15.
AGE: 39
POSITION: GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 18
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (Food Engineer)

COMPANY 16.
AGE: 27
POSITION: GENERAL MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 5
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (Chemistry)

COMPANY 17.
AGE: 34
POSITION: MARKETING MANAGER
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 11
EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (International Relations)

COMPANY 18.
AGE: 39
POSITION: ACCOUNTANT
YEARS AT BUSINESS: 21
EDUCATION: HIGH SCHOOL

COMPANY 19.
AGE: 37

POSITION: SHOP MANAGER (OWNER)

YEARS AT BUSINESS: 13

EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (English Teacher)

COMPANY 20.

AGE: 23

POSITION: PERSONAL ASSISTANT

YEARS AT BUSINESS: 2

EDUCATION: UNIVERSITY in TURKEY (Business Management)

SECTION 1 DEMOGRAPHICS

Question 1. Do you have brothers or sisters? What place do you hold in the birth order?

Responds; Written at company profile.

Question 2. What kind of work experience do you have? Did you work outside the family business? If yes, why did you leave? What do you bring to the family business as a result of this work? Did the family business encourage you for outside work experience? Why or why not?
Respond 1. I have been working at our jewellery business for 7 years but I worked at another jewellery business before I started to work in our business. My father sent me to Istanbul Grand Bazaar to one of his friend’s atelier to get experience on designing. I worked for 4 years in this diamond atelier in Istanbul. It was a fantastic and useful experience for me. I learned diamond damaskeen there. I studied jewellery designing but diamond damaskeen is a complete different profession, you can’t learn this at university. I worked with the best craftsman of Turkey, he is originally Armenian and he is the best on it. I learned this art from a to z and I believe that I added more value to our business. Yes, my family, especially my father, encouraged me too much to get experience outside our business in terms of management and culture. Because he didn’t have any other experience rather than his business my dad was not happy about it, so I am really happy that I had this valuable experience.

Respond 2. I worked in some charity jobs when I was studying in London, but it wasn’t a professional job. As soon as I came back to Turkey, I started to work in our business in the HR department. We are quite a big family business and my uncles and cousins are still working in our management team so there was no vacancy for me. My family didn’t want me to work outside our business so I don’t have any other experience. If I had a chance, I would like to have it.

Respond 3. Yes, I have one year of experience outside our business. I worked in a textile factory that was producing bed linen. Even though I graduated as a textile engineer, I didn’t have any experience. To be honest, it wasn’t my family’s idea; I wanted to stay in Istanbul, but our factory was bigger than the one I worked for and I thought I could improve myself and our business by working for us. Also my salary wasn’t enough for a life in Istanbul. I am back to xx (The city where their factory is located, in central Anatolia). Now, I have been working for 12 years at our business and responsible for the production and designing. They did not encourage me, I don’t know why but maybe my father wanted me to work with him, because he was on his own. I am really happy about working for myself and my family.

Respond 4. I have been working as a general manager in our business for 9 years and I have also one and a half year working experience in the UK. Not my mother but my
father encouraged me to have experience, especially in a foreign country. I worked in one PR agency’s marketing department and it was an enormous experience for me. Not my mother, but my father encouraged me to get experience, especially in a foreign country. I worked in one PR agency’s marketing department and it was an enormous experience for me. I met many people and I learned many different things. It taught me how to be an employee, and now I can understand the people who are working with me. I can understand what they expect, what they think, what makes them happy or unhappy. I recommend everyone who will run their own businesses to have an outside experience before running their own business.

*Response 5.* I haven’t worked outside the family business. My family did not support us to work outside the family business but also it did not force us. They just encouraged us to work in the family business.

*Response 6.* No, just start at family business.

*Response 7.* To be honest, in order to get extra experience and see another family culture, working as an employee instead of the manager’s daughter, my family wanted me to work as an employee in another job. I did not want to and the absence of it didn’t make any difference for me.

*Response 8.* I haven’t worked in any other work place, even though my family wanted me to have extra work experience outside our family business. I don’t know how it would have affected my managerial performance if I had some experience.

*Response 9.* No I don’t have any other experience.

*Response 10.* Yes, I have two years working experience in America as a consultant just after graduation. Two years is not a long time but I can say this experience gave me some clues of work life. After one year, I didn’t see a future as all the positions were fixed and there was no way to improve your position, so I decided to leave the company. I can say Mr. X, who is the owner of our business and father of 2 daughters, encouraged us to get work experience outside. However, on the other hand, when you have working experience out of Turkey, you start to compare the two countries’ business life and sometimes it makes you unhappy. I am still struggling to apply
something that I learned there to our business even though it is extremely easy. People are not ready for something very democratic; there is a huge power distance here between managers and employees. People are scared of talking to their managers and too much talking happens between workers. No one is interested in other people’s private lives in America but here it is everybody’s main concern.

**Response 11.** I didn’t have a chance actually. I started to work in our business while I was a student at the university. My father was looking forward to my graduation to pass some responsibilities on to me. Luckily, I didn’t experience any difficulties because of not having any different experience.

**Response 12.** Yes, I have. I worked two years in one architectural office as an architect. I worked at the very entry level but it taught me many things. It was quite a very good experience for me. Even though that was a family business, they were more corporate. For example, in our business, internal communication isn’t being recorded, everybody is used to talking to each other and none of these communications were recorded, even the ones related to business. I learned this in the architecture office and as soon as I started to work in our business, I applied it to our business. It was also a good experience to understand the feelings of employees. Now, I am working as a manager and I can understand their feelings. But, I never behave like traditional bosses. I am the only one in the family who has the strongest education and English practice. So up today I searched the new things and apply to the company to create a company which has standards and preferable on customer and employer side. And those steps brought our company to key account supplier status in our customer level.

**Response 13.** I got an offer from my university in order to be an academician but I didn’t accept it. My father said that I could stay in the university if I wanted to, but I preferred to work at our business.

**Response 14.** Yes, I worked two years at my university as an assistant professor in America. However, I wanted to be in the business life more and luckily the most suitable place for me was our own business. My family didn’t tell me anything about the outside experience but I am happy about it. If you ask me what I learnt from the
university to help me in my business, unfortunately I can’t say anything. Maybe just the experience, I can say.

**Response 15.** No, I didn’t have any chance of it because my brother didn’t want to work at our business and I had to start to work with my father. But I can’t blame him; it was also my choice.

**Response 16.** No, I didn’t work outside our family business. No one asked me about it, and also I didn’t want it.

**Response 17.** After graduating from university, I wanted to start to work with my father but he wanted me to have some other experience. I graduated from the faculty of international relations, and it has no relation to the olive business. Then I found a very good job in one of the very famous Turkish newspapers. I worked there for two years as a researcher. I was researching the historical and political news for the journalists. It was an amazing experience for me and I can say, I learned everything about business life there. But in here, because it is our business and we are creating our business life here, there is no dress code, no working hours, no meetings, no supervisors etc. Of course we have but not as regular as the newspaper. But I am happy that I worked before because it helped me improve our own business.

**Response 18.** No, I don’t have. They let me work in our own business with a heavy heart. They wouldn’t let me work in any other place.

**Response 19.** Yes, I worked two years as an English teacher in a high school. It was my mother’s dream to see me as a teacher. But my heart was in the jewellery business and luckily I got it. Of course, my family didn’t encourage me to work in another business to add something extra to our business. They just encouraged me to stay away from our business. However, I saw the real business life there, and I saw how impossible it is to survive with a teacher’s salary.

**Response 20.** No, I didn’t have. Actually my father insisted that I had some other experience but I didn’t want to.
SECTION 2. SUCCESSION PROCESS

Question 3. Why should the family business hire you? What do you offer to the business that is different from what anyone else in the family has to offer? Does the business need your best skills? How could your skills help improve it?

Response 1. I graduated from the university’s jewellery department in order to be effective in our business. No one in our family has experience like me about damaskeen or designing. Yes, I think the business needs me as much as I need the business. We started to deal with precious stones after I started to work in our business. I think I added some value to our business.

Response 2. One of my cousins graduated from a university in America but he studied computer programming, so he didn’t have any experience in managing people. I studied business management and I think I know better how to manage the organisation. Even though I have been working as an HR manager, I am planning to manage the whole organisation after my father. I think the business needs my talents. Strategically thinking, risk taker, negotiator, analytical and multi-task thinking, love to work and I have some ideas for improving our business like selling some part of it to a foreign supermarket chain.

Response 3. My father used to work on his own. He set up this business and he was struggling to deal with everything like production, transportation, export, purchasing, etc. He called me to work with him and as soon as I joined, he was so happy about it. Maybe our business doesn’t need my best skills but I have been trying to improve myself to improve our business.

Response 4. I can’t say that my family wanted to hire me because, if my brother hadn’t stayed in America, I am sure he would be in my position now. I think I am qualified enough to manage our business with the help of my family. I am planning to improve the way some jobs are run at our factory. Even though it is difficult to change the way people are used to do things, I would like to do it in the future.
Response 5. I studied marketing and PR and, at that time, we didn’t have a marketing and sales department. We had just an export department. But it was the time to develop customer relations and find new customers. My father thought that I am suitable for this position. The most important difference that I can offer for the business is the loyalty, ambition and commitment. Yes, the business need my best skills and more than this. For 8 years I’ve improved the customer relations, sales activities, quality management systems and coordinated other departments if needed. My skills can also help to improve the managing quality, hiring more professional employees, giving the right investment estimates and creating loyal internal clients.

Response 6. I have two sisters and I am the first one. I am strategically thinking, negotiator and multi-task thinking and love to work at transformer business. I act like a professional and mostly objective approach I have.

Response 7. All my colleagues and my family find me very entrepreneurial and risk taker. I am not afraid of starting new businesses, new investments. My father always trusts my sixth sense. Actually it is not my sixth sense, I just believe in our reputation in the market and we have a fantastic human resources department. I don’t have any other experience, I learned everything in our business but we are a very corporate organisation and I am happy about it.

Response 8. My father tells me that I am the fresh blood of the business. I am the newest employee and started to work as a manager. Some of my friends and my father’s friends criticize this decision but I think I am sufficient enough for this position and I am sure my family hired me because of my self confidence. I can even manage difficult decisions easily. My father is more emotional than I am and as he has been working with them for a long time his decisions are more sentimental than mine.

Response 9. Because my father doesn’t have a son. It was a joke of course but I am the eldest sister and all of us are responsible for very important parts of our business. We are all the members of the board but, due to my age I will be the successor. I am sure I add my experiences and some feminine attitudes to our business. As you know,
this is a male-dominant world and women are not accepted easily in business life. Maybe we, as 2 sisters made our business quite feminine, which is a very important step for me. We also opened the doors to new women entrepreneurs, running some charity jobs for the girls who could not go to school due to financial difficulties. I think they all happened because of being managed by women.

**Response 10.** Actually, they were not willing to hire me; they had to. If my brother hadn’t been a doctor, maybe I would be working in another company or sitting at home. I couldn’t sit at home but to be honest, it was a compulsory process. I gained all my positions in our business. But I am a hundred percent sure they are all happy now that they hired me. I add this business something modern, something different, something maybe surreal. I added something that I learned from America’s business life. Although they were not necessary requirements, I think I was hired for my education, background and being the most appropriate successor. Because they do not have any other chance. Of course, it was a joke but I can surely say that I can see in every problem an opportunity and can transform problems to opportunities.

**Response 11.** I am the eldest daughter of my father and I studied food engineering. Actually, I chose that department to support my future because I already knew that I was going to work in our business. I think my father hired me because of all the effort I made to work here. I cannot give anything different than my sister but I am the eldest one and according to family business rules I am more experienced and will be managing the company in the future. I think since I’ve started to work in here, our business has been more modern.

**Response 12.** They hired me because I was qualified to work in our business and I was already better than many managers who had been working for us for many years. To be honest, every family who has their own business expect their children to work in their own business. If I was a boy I am sure I would be expected to be the next CEO. I don’t care about being the next successor but I feel I am qualified enough. My uncle’s daughter is married and doesn’t want to work with us but my brother is going to work. I am the only one now who graduated from a foreign university and I am very good at communicating with foreigners, either when they visit us or when I join meetings in a
foreign country. I think they might choose me for all my business management qualifications. I am also very good at communicating with our staff. They all are my colleagues, not my staff.

Response 13. We are working together with my twin brother and actually no one asked us to work at our business. It was our decision. I cannot offer anything different than anyone in our family. I think we both (with her brother) put my father at ease. We are both responsible for even production or management, so we are in all areas. In terms of my best skills and how they improve the business, I can’t say anything, it would be boasting.

Response 14. I am the only one in our family who graduated as an electronic engineer but it cannot be counted as a reason to work in our business because there are many electronic engineers working with us. I think they just hired me because they didn’t want me to work in any other place. Because I am the youngest one and they wanted me to work here not because they needed my experiences and qualifications. Maybe I am too straightforward but it is true.

Interrupting Question: Don’t you think you can give something extra to your business?

Of course I can, I am more research oriented and we are one of the top companies in this area and if it was me, I would open an atelier or school in our factories to teach our business as a profession. Also I want our business to involve more charity jobs and want to organise more charity events. It might be different than what we have been doing now.

Response 15. Because they don’t have any other chance... Of course, it was a joke but when my brother didn’t want to run our business and I was already willing to work, they hired me. I was younger than the other family members who were working in the business and maybe I just brought fresh blood to the business. I changed both the working style and production variety of our business. We used to work as a flour mill and we were just producing some kind of bakery products. Now, we are producing 26
different kinds of bakery products and delivering them to many supermarkets. We are planning to start to export some of our cookies next year. So, I can say that I add something extra to our business.

**Response 16.** Because I am qualified to work here and as far as I can see, everybody is happy about working with me in our office and the factory. My father tends to keep me out of sunflower fields and farmers but I want to deal with them too. He thinks this business is not suitable for a woman but I don’t agree with him and I have been working as a general manager for five years. I believe I will carry our business further and I am planning to be one of the top sunflower oil producers.

**Response 17.** We are a very small family business and I am working with my father. I grew up in this business and it was always interesting for me. I think because of the confidence that comes from my youthfulness I am more of a risk taker than him, but he is also very open to new ideas. With the help of my entrepreneurial character, I added some extra production lines to our business. For example, my father used to produce just olive oil and sold just a few varieties of olives. But you can also produce soap and some beauty products as a subsidiary product from olive oil processing. It was very trendy in Italy and Spain. I improved these ideas and now we have variety of products which we have been selling and exporting to 3 countries.

**Response 18.** Because I wanted to work too much and they didn’t want me to work somewhere else. I insisted to work too much and started to work in our accounting department. I learned everything by managing this department. My work includes financial issues and in our traditional family life, financial issues are very important, and especially my father doesn’t trust anybody other than his family in finance. I think that’s why I am here.

**Response 19.** As I told earlier, my story is very interesting. My father and my family tried to keep me away too much, so I can’t say that they hired me, I got it. I changed our business style. We were just goldsmith, not jeweller. These are different work areas. I added the diamond job into our business. Because of me we opened a store in Istanbul. I think, no one can underestimate my contribution to the business.
Response 20. Because it is our business and we have to learn it. I am quite new and am working as my father’s personal assistant to learn the job. I attend all the meetings with him. I learned the processes and the business writing from him. I already knew everybody at the company but it is quite weird being together with them as a worker, but I will handle it. I haven’t added anything to the business yet but maybe after starting to work properly I will.

Question 4. What do you think about women in business life in Turkey?

Response 1. Although there are many successful business women in Turkey, I can’t say it is easy for a woman.

Response 2. Maybe not as easy as in Europe but I didn’t experience too many difficulties.

Response 3. It is easy in the factory but not outside. In general, Turkey is not suitable for Turkish women entrepreneurs.

Response 4. It is normal. I have been reading the success stories of women entrepreneurs and they all lived some difficulties, it is not special to Turkey.

Response 5. We have lots of successful women in business life in Turkey. But it is not always easy to make people respect you. You should try harder than men. You should be more careful what you say or what you do, especially if you are the youngest daughter of the boss.

Response 6. Quite good. Especially at the west-side of the country numbers of women in business is not low.

Response 7. It is easy in Istanbul but I don’t know in other parts of Turkey. In 2015, women cannot still go to primary school. What do you expect from people with this kind of mentality?

Response 8. It is easy for me. I don’t live any difficulties. But sometimes, people treat me as the owner’s little daughter, just that irritates me. Sometimes people insult me
only for my surname, they think I don’t have any other qualifications rather than carrying this surname.

**Response 9.** It will be easier in the future. We will overcome difficulties and I am sure next generation will not live as much difficulties as we lived.

**Response 10.** If people don’t treat you as the daughter of the boss, it would be much easier. However, you have to prove yourself for by showing that you haven’t been hired only for being the little girl of the boss.

**Response 11.** I haven’t lived any difficulties but I can’t say the working life is easy in Turkey as a woman.

**Response 12.** It depends on the sector and the city. You can set up any kind of business and run any kind of business in 4-5 cities in Turkey, but we cannot generalise it to Turkey.

**Response 13.** I have been working in all areas of our business. Sometimes I put my boots on and worked in factory wastes, sometimes joined tenders on behalf of my family but surprisingly people do not respect you as much as they do men. No matter how much you fight people cannot see you at the same level with men.

**Response 14.** Maybe it is not the same as America but I don’t have any complaints.

**Response 15.** I believe that if a woman wants to do something she can do everything. I am running a business sometimes on my own and I am responsible for more than 200 employees. I haven’t lived any difficulties.

**Response 16.** Being a woman is difficult in Turkey. Not only in business life, but also in daily life.

**Response 17.** To be honest, I haven’t seen any diversity. There are many successful entrepreneurial women in Turkey and they have very extra ordinary success stories. If someone is determined to do something, they can do. This is my life motto.

**Response 18.** I believe 10 years ago it was more difficult to make yourself accepted. However, gradually in business world women are becoming stronger. However, in this men business world to show how strong you are, first you have to make a war.
Response 19. You have to put too much effort to be an entrepreneur in Turkey. First, you have to prove yourself to your family. Turkey is a very family oriented country, and especially girls cannot do anything without their approval.

Response 20. I don’t have an idea. It might be easy.

Question 5. Do you think you will be the successor of your business despite your brother? Why?

Response 1. Yes, because my brother is quite young now and he hasn’t got any experience in this sector. Additionally, he is not interested in our business and he doesn’t find it suitable for a man.

Response 2. It is quite complicated in our business. I have cousins and, as a traditional family business; my father doesn’t want me to run the whole business. The whole family wants to see me as a good mother and wife rather than a good leader.

Response 4. Yes, under the normal conditions I will be the next successor, because my brother does not live in Turkey.

Response 10. Yes, I will run our business after my father, because my brother is a doctor.

Response 11. It looks like I will be, because our brother is very young and still going to high school.

Response 12. I should be, but it all depends on my father’s decision.

Response 13. We don’t talk that kind of things in our business and my father always says he will leave this business to us. He always wants us to work on ourselves. He says, the more we improve this business, the more we will be happy and comfortable. We do everything with my brother and I think we will run [the business] together without indicating that one is more responsible than the other.
Response 14. Never. They are more experienced than I am. I don’t have anything now and I am the youngest one.

Response 15. Yes, I will be, because my father gave a chance to my brother but he didn’t want to run this business.

Response 16. I have to be, but I am not sure about it. Because it is a traditional family and they want to hand the business over to a man.

Response 18. Never. Neither I, nor they want me to be the successor. As I said, they didn’t even want me to work.

Response 19. If you asked me this question 10 years ago, I would have said NEVER easily. But now, I think I will run.

Response 20. I don’t know. It is very easy to think like this at the moment.

Question 6. What do you think are the main advantages and disadvantages of working for a family business?

Response 1. First of all, you have job security, especially if you are doing your job well. I can carry on my social life without sticking to working hours. I can deal with my kids the way I want. Advantages might be, people consider you as the owner’s daughter. No matter how hard you try, people don’t consider you as a hard worker. You are always the boss’s girl.

Response 2. I don’t think it has an advantage to work with family. I think there are some disadvantages, like; People do not appreciate what you have done. They think, you obtain some success only for being the daughter of the owner.

Response 3. Actually, as I worked as an ordinary manager at our business I don’t feel any advantages, but, of course they have some. I am able to look after my kids whenever I need. I don’t need to ask anybody to stay at home when my kids need me. Disadvantages might be your responsibility. It is our business and more than 500
people take home bread because of us. So, we have to work too much. We have to take care of them.

**Response 4.** I think I can’t work in Turkey in another business under the command of someone. I have a daughter and I want to attend all her activities. I didn’t have to ask anyone whether I could take her to the hospital or not. The disadvantage is: you just talk about work when you are even at a family gathering. All our traditional family meals end up talking about work. You can’t set up another relationship with your father after you start to work together.

**Response 5.** You can make money, you can holiday more, you are more powerful and free, but you should work much harder than your employees. You are always under too much risk and you should live with this stress.

**Response 6.** Advantages; You have flexibility while deciding, fast reaction, your philosophy is reflecting your business. Disadvantages; You have to manage family and work together.

**Response 7.** First of all, working in our family business is fun for me. I have a chance to make all my ideas real. But this is also because of my family. They are very far-sighted and always pushed me forward. The disadvantages are we talk about business all the time, even at home or on holiday. I can’t treat people as my employees because they all used to be my friends; this is also a disadvantage for me.

**Response 8.** Advantage is; you have more chance to persuade your boss. Disadvantages are; Always talking about our job, even at home and at the dinner table. Most of the problems are solved at home.

**Response 9.** You can advance in your career more easily. Disadvantage is; people always look at you as the daughter of someone, creating your own identity takes time.

**Response 10.** As you grew up with your sisters or brothers, up to a point you can have similar perspective of life, work life and business which helps you work in a harmony. This also helps to know and understand each other better and take actions rapidly. Most common disadvantage of working for a family can be the conflicts between them. It can be emotional or ideological.
Response 11. All your effort returns to you as money. ‘You work for yourself’. This is the major motivator and advantage for me. Of course, you don’t need to ask someone to stay with your kids when they are sick. I haven’t lived any disadvantages.

Response 12. You are freer at your own business. However, everybody looks at you as a daddy’s little daughter.

Response 13. This is an emotional environment; you feel the unity of family at your business. You make effort for yourself. Disadvantages; there is a combination which has been set up before you and people don’t want to change it. People have too much egos and are not open to new ideas. My father left me on my own and I learned everything on my own. It was quite difficult.

Response 14. My family is always together with me. I don’t need to ask someone rather than my father or my brothers for coming late or for joining some kind of activities. But, people do not trust the owner’s daughter and you cannot make friends easily, or you don’t know whether it is because of your personality or only because you are the daughter of the owner.

Response 15. You can manage your family and your work together while working at your business. I brought up my kids easier than a woman who works as an officer in an office. Disadvantage is, you feel more responsibility on your shoulders. You have to be successful.

Response 16. You earn money easily and you know that no one can fire you. But, it is a men’s world and you have to demonstrate yourself, more than any other employee, because people do not believe that you are here for your qualifications. People look at you as the owner’s little daughter.

Response 17. You can talk easily with your boss whenever you want to and you can accomplish your ideas easily. I got used to working with my father and if I need to run one day on my own it would be more difficult and would be the disadvantage for me.

Response 18. It is a very friendly environment here and I grew up here with our employees. Working in this family atmosphere is an advantage for me. I was together with my kids when they were growing up. Therefore, I have more sympathy to my
women workers. But, in any case, this is a men’s world and working in this world is a disadvantage.

**Response 19.** You are the boss of yourselves. I can open and close my shop whenever I want. Even though I come earlier than everybody and leave the office the last. Disadvantage is, if you are working with your father, he might shout at you in front of everybody. Keeps treating you like his little daughter. He talks about job, everywhere whenever he finds me.

**Response 20.** I am working with my family; it is like spending your time with your family at home. It is freer, more relaxed and more comfortable. However, I grew up here and I know everybody, I can’t act them as an employee, they don’t treat me like a worker too. I am like all the other daughters of bosses’.

**Question 7. In your opinion what are the main problems during the succession process?**

**Response 1.** I am not sure but maybe there would be a conflict between my uncles and cousins. That’s why I want my father to arrange everything before resigning.

**Response 2.** We are 7 people from the family. 3 fathers(brothers), 3children of them and one cousin. So everyone talking behind the doors and people are not that open to each other. And at the end of the day when families start to group; problems also start to grow up

**Response 3.** The workers have already accepted me as a leader, that’s why I don’t think we will have any problems.

**Response 4.** Luckily, I set up a good communication with all my employees here, but, our factory is in another city so I have to be in touch with my father all the time. The worst part of succession might be this communication. I may not be able to find someone like my father after he gets retired. Not in this office but in the city where
the factory is I am not familiar with the staff. Because I know my father is there I am relieved. It might be difficult for our staff to work with me instead of my father.

Response 5. Weakness of the board is one of the problems. There shouldn’t be just one person who has to decide for everything, to take risks and to work for the whole family. And timing is another problem.

Response 6. Father does not want to let his baby (work) to you. This is the only type of leader I have experienced. Children are getting tired to convince them during the succession process because there is always disagreement between generations.

Response 7. He doesn’t want to leave his daughter that’s why I don’t believe he left the business to me. If he has to, the most difficult part for me will be to be on my own. Employees might not accept me as the new boss.

Response 8. Chemistry is a male-dominant business. Maybe running this business on my own will be difficult for me. I grew up in this company and everybody knows me here. They used to call me with my first name and I was their boss’s little girl. They don’t want to see me at the managerial position, especially the older ones. I am sure when my father decides to leave, some of them will want to leave too. Additionally, I am a woman and some paternalistic staff may not want to receive orders from a woman.

Response 9. Luckily we are two sisters who get along well. I don’t think we will live any difficulties. However, we have some old employees who are very loyal to my family and they might not want to stay with us.

Response 10. I am working in our family business but we are in different cities. I manage our headquarters and I am responsible for customer relations and HR staff with other responsibilities. The sustainability of our business depends on finding a very successful manager in place of my father, because I can’t live in that city. This is my biggest concern and I am sure it will be the problem when the succession occurs.

Response 11. Our workers are already used to working with me. I have been working with them for 17 years and I even know most of the staffs’ private life. I don’t think we will live any difficulties at the succession period.
Response 12. My brother hasn’t finished university yet but I know my father intends to hand over the business to him. At the moment I might not be able to think about any but at that time we might possibly live some conflicts. The main problem can be the communication problem between sisters or brothers. They have to make it clear as if this is not a competition.

Response 13. We don’t have any conflicts with my brother but we might live some difficulties in terms of workflow. People are used to work with my family so maybe they will struggle to accept us as a manager. Because our managerial styles are completely different I hope we won’t live any problems.

Response 14. I don’t think so. My father is 75 years old and everybody is ready to work with my eldest brother. They have been managing the company for many years and I think we have already lived that succession process.

Response 15. I have been working in this business for 18 years and my father started to work as a part-time staff for the last 3-4 years. I mean, we already passed that stage. We didn’t live any difficulties but I am sure if my father had 1-2 brothers and we had some cousins as a candidate of the successor, we would live some.

Response 16. I think we will live some conflict with my brother, because, even though I am the oldest one, my father wants me to stay in the background. He wants me to get married and grow up my kids. I want to run our business but nothing is clear yet.

Response 17. I don’t think we will live any difficulties. I am familiar to all processes and now working together with my father in all parts of our business. It won’t be difficult in terms of work flow but it would be difficult emotionally for me. I would love to have a sister or brother in order to help to me.

Response 18. We have only one brother and he will be next manager after my father. My sister hasn’t worked even a day. We won’t live any problems when our father decides to resign because he has no rivals and we won’t create any problems.

Response 19. The shop I own is in Istanbul. Our first shop and workshop is in another city. Luckily my father hasn’t been thinking to leave yet, but if he resigns, I think the employees who work there will be upset by his absence.
Response 20. My father is working with my uncle and he has a son at the same age with my brother. I am sure they will both want to be the next successor, because my father has equal responsibilities with my uncle. Fathers are not at the equal distance to the second generation. They all are close to their own child. And this also creates bigger problems within the children (strongest father child is more close to be stronger). On the other hand, neither my father, nor my uncle are planning to leave their business at the moment. I am sure this will be a problem.

Question 8. What recommendations would you give to other daughters engaged in the succession of their family businesses?

Response 1. Having another experience than their family business, setting up a good relationship with the employees, learning every aspects of the business before their fathers leave.

Response 2. According to my experience, all family businesses have a business constitution. All the rules have to be recorded, in order to be able to arrange everything without conflict.

Response 3. I recommend them to spend more time with their families. Even though it was my business I was quite workaholic and neglected my children.

Response 4. They should work at some other businesses and should have some experience. They should have good education; they mustn’t neglect their education. They should speak more than one foreign language fluently.

Response 5. I have an older sister and she has 3 little boys. She is not sure if she should come back to the family business.

Response 6. Be objective, work hard, join the business top management and take a role as a decision maker.
Response 7. They should have good communication skills, they should set up a good relationship with staff and should earn their trust. Otherwise it would be difficult to work with them after their father.

Response 8. I recommend them not to be very close with the staff before starting to work at the business. I grew up in our company and everybody was my uncles and aunties. When I started to work here, everybody struggled how to address me, neither did I. They should have good education to manage to compete with the current employees.

Response 9. Good education, experience, knowing the world, following the recent events, especially related with their business.

Response 10. If they are not living in the same city of their factory, they should know that it will be very difficult.

Response 11. Has to learn every little aspect of their business and they have to know all their competitors. They should know everybody that their father knows on the market.

Response 12. I strongly recommend them to keep their mothers and their uncle’ wives away from the business. Actually even from each other. (The rest of this conversion is out of record but will be evaluated while writing the summary section)

Response 13. Self-confidence, no egos, close relationship with the employees, never hesitate to ask anything to learn and working too much.

Response 14. Good education, speaking more than one language, earning employees’ trust, never conveying what you talked with your colleagues to your family.

Response 15. Learn every aspect of your business, even you don’t think you will use it. Learn your competitors on the market. Keep your husband away from your business.

Response 16. Self confidence, work hard and communicate with the employees.

Response 17. They should know the business well, be familiar with the processes and eager to sustain their business to their children.
Response 18. Don’t get involved in the succession process.

Response 19. They should never give up fighting if they want to gain.

Response 20. I am not interested in this process.

SECTION 3. GENDERED NORMS

Question 9. Do you think gender is still a barrier for women in Turkish business life?

Response 1. Yes

Response 2. Sometimes

Response 3. Yes

Response 4. Generally, yes

Response 5. Sometimes

Response 6. Yes

Response 7. Yes

Response 8. I don’t think so

Response 9. No

Response 10. Sometimes

Response 11. Yes

Response 12. In general, yes

Response 13. Yes

Response 14. No

Response 15. No

Response 16. Yes

Response 17. Sometimes
**Response 18.** Yes

**Response 19.** Mostly

**Response 20.** No

**Question 10. Have you ever felt discriminated or ever experienced harassment?**

**Response 1.** Yes, while working at grand bazaar in Istanbul. People were not familiar to work with a woman.

**Response 2.** No

**Response 3.** Yes, I have.

**Response 4.** Yes.

**Response 5.** Not in Turkey or from Turkish people but I had some bad experiences in Middle East or from people who came from the Middle East.

**Response 6.** Yes, at the beginning. If you are young and also a woman and family member, they usually have a doubt.

**Response 7.** Yes, especially at the beginning of the work.

**Response 8.** Not in Turkey but in some other Middle Eastern countries.

**Response 9.** Yes, when I was young I have.

**Response 10.** Yes, especially when I was back to America.

**Response 11.** Yes, but not many.

**Response 12.** Sometimes

**Response 13.** If you don’t allow them, they can’t.

**Response 14.** No

**Response 15.** At the beginning I have.

**Response 16.** Yes, I have.

**Response 17.** Not really.
Response 18. Too much.

Response 19. Yes

Response 20. No

Question 11. Have you ever faced any difficulties in terms of relationship with firm stakeholders because of your gender?

Response 1. Yes

Response 2. Yes

Response 3. Yes, at the beginning. If you are young and also a woman and family member, they have a doubt first of all

Response 4. Generally, yes

Response 5. No

Response 6. No

Response 7. Yes

Response 8. Yes

Response 9. No

Response 10. Yes

Response 11. Yes

Response 12. In general, yes

Response 13. Yes

Response 14. No

Response 15. Yes

Response 16. Yes

Response 17. Sometimes
Response 18. Yes
Response 19. Yes
Response 20. No

Question 12. Do you think gender makes a difference when evaluating the successor?

Response 1. Yes
Response 2. Yes
Response 3. Yes
Response 4. Yes

Response 5. In my family, gender does not make a difference.

Response 6. Yes
Response 7. Yes
Response 8. Yes
Response 9. No
Response 10. Yes
Response 11. Yes
Response 12. Yes

Response 13. Not in our business but it might be in other family businesses

Response 14. Yes
Response 15. Yes
Response 16. Yes
Response 17. I don’t think so.
Response 18. Yes
Response 19. Absolutely yes.

Response 20. No

Question 13. How can you describe your leadership style?

Response 1. I am very enthusiastic and open-minded person as a leader.

Response 2. Team leader, friendly, hard worker and setting up a good relationship with people.

Response 3. I have a coaching style. I am an international life coach; most probably this point encourages me. I prefer to give self-awareness, motivation. Empathy is the key point in my communication. I prefer to develop others and would like them to see their success by encourage them to try more.

Response 4. Friendly,

Response 5. I am a good listener and negotiator. I pay attention to suggestions and criticism. I can follow up each of our department and make meaningful meetings. I care about the motivation. I don’t like risks and always try to give the right decisions. I am too emotional to be a leader.

Response 6. Tough, determined, stable, hard worker, listening

Response 7. Risk taker, hard worker

Response 8. I motivate people easily and I am very transparent

Response 9. I do encourage people to work hard and support their ideas.

Response 10. I am a person who works very fast and have capability of working in different topics. So I expect the same thing from the employees; not working day and time but working efficiently but in the other hand doing the business in time and as fast as possible.

Response 11. I communicate easily with the people and motivate them.
Response 12. I respect everybody’s idea and appreciate them

Response 13. Very friendly, emotional and mediator with the management

Response 14. I can not find me as a leader. I just communicate with the people easily and friendly.

Response 15. I encourage and facilitating our employees, identifying and solving problems are important tasks for me. I want to follow my employees to complete their work tasks

Response 16. I trust people and want them to trust me. I want people trust me in order to able to share everything with me. I am very friendly and it improves them performance, I believe it.

Response 17. We are working with my father and if I need to communicate others I am very friendly person.

Response 18. I am very hard worker and passive, naïve person which is not good characteristics of a leader.

Response 19. Ambitious, competitive

Response 20. Friendly, I can not find me as a leader

SECTION 4. RELATIONSHIP WITH THE FATHER

Question 14. What kind of a working relationship do you have with your father and what kind of working relationship would you prefer?

Response 1. We have a very close relationship with him. He always respects my work and appreciates my effort. I am happy about the relationship between us.

Response 2. He is the Chairman of the Board and the main decision maker. I am dealing with Human resources and Brand Management. We have generational gaps as do all daughters and fathers but we are working in harmony. He is quite a
paternalistic father in the business. He wants to control everything that has been
done. I want him to be more relaxed, more objective and to give us more freedom
when demonstrating ourselves.

Response 3. Actually he used to have more control and I like the changes he has made.
He gave me freedom now and I can decide on my own. I wish he was more relaxed
and didn’t make too much stress.

Response 4. We are like two very close friends and I am happy about it.

Response 5. He is respectful and encouraging but it was also hard to earn them. He
wants me to decide for lots of things but sometimes I need support.

Response 6. Mostly at the top philosophy we agree with each other but our methods
are different. I want him to keep calm and wait for the results.

Response 7. I am happy that I have worked together with my father, because I am a
real daddy’s little girl. And to me my father was always my security blanket. I am happy
about it.

Response 8. Sometimes he doesn’t trust me enough and he feels he has to control
everything after me.

Response 9. He doesn’t interfere to the business any more. I am happy about our
relationship.

Response 10. We do not work directly together. Most of the time, we don’t even see
each other. And when we need to work together he is nice to work together with.

Response 11. It was different when I was young. He used to follow everything I did,
but now, he does not. I used to work as his employee, now he is working like my
follower, asks everything to me. I am happy about our relationship.

Response 12. It depends on his mode. I learned it now and can arrange the timing.
You should know his character in order to able to get along with him.

Response 13. He used to address me with my nick name that we used at home. At
the beginning I wasn’t complaining but it started to look weird. Then I told him kindly
but he surprisingly got upset. Fortunately, he is able to arrange where he can address me with my nickname or as Miss. Xx now.

**Response 14.** I am always my father’s little girl and I gave up to insist to change it. Because of his attitudes, employees never see me as an ordinary employee. I am everybody’s little sappy staff. I don’t care at the moment but I don’t know what I will feel when I am getting older.

**Response 15.** He used to be a very strong man and no one could speak with him easily. When I started to work together it was also tough for me. I used to be afraid of asking something in front of employees, but now, we have a very good relationship and sometimes he never comes to the factory for weeks.

**Response 16.** He is two completely different guys at home and at the factory. To be honest, I do not want to meet him with someone else.

**Response 17.** I am very happy about our relationship. He is always same, even at home or at the factory.

**Response 18.** We are a very strong patriarchal family. Our father didn’t carry us on his shoulders when we were kids. He didn’t use to kiss us when family members were around. We have to show respect to our family elders. I cannot blame my father because he grew up in a more paternalistic family. He is better now, but I really used to be scared of him when I first started to work.

**Response 19.** He didn’t support me when I wanted to work in our business. As I said before, I had very different and bad experiences. My father knew that I was really interested in continuing to lead the company and I was also interested in a complete takeover of the business; that’s why we couldn’t establish an ordinary relationship. But now he really appreciates me a lot.

**Response 20.** I am the youngest of the whole family and he cannot accept me as a young girl. I am still his little daughter. I want more respect.
Question 15. What personal sacrifices has your father made for the success of the business? Have his sacrifices influenced your decisions to work in the business?

Response 1. He [he father] sacrificed lots of things; first of all, his youth and his dreams. He worked all his life in order to be able to give us a comfortable life. Yes, absolutely, it affected my decision to come and join the business.

Response 2. He didn’t live his youth, he started to work at a very young age and is still working. He hasn’t got any other social life, he always worked too much. I didn’t make sacrifice when joining because we are quite a big family. Actually they didn’t even need me. I have always appreciated my father’s effort. Now he has some health problems and we want him to resign and get a little rest.

Response 3. He sacrificed many things. For my opinion, he didn’t live his life. He spent his time in the factory more than he spent with us. He struggled to supply a job to people in this area. Of course I appreciate his effort and want to help him and I am proud of being a daughter of that kind of father.

Response 4. He sacrificed his life. He has a university degree from Germany and he had a very good offer from there but he couldn’t stay there because of this business. I really appreciate his effort and am happy to be able to help him.

Response 5. He sacrificed lots of things… Personal life, time, health and money. I am working in this business for the sake of my family but now I become a workaholic and actually I do not know if I am working for the family or for myself.

Response 6. Our father has been in this sector like 40 years and our factory opened 34 years ago. All through these years, if you ask me what your father did, I can say he gave all his life to his work. His sacrifice is his life. I believe it is quite big enough as a sacrifice. However, if there is a victory at the end, it is always worth facing these sacrifices. And yes, his sacrifices influenced my decision to work in the business.

Response 7. He loves his business and I don’t think he sacrificed anything.

Response 8. He sacrificed his life to the business. He spent his life at our factory. I remember that when I was a child he used to sleep at the factory some nights. To be
honest, he loves being sociable and loves to eat and drink well, but we used to do it very rarely. Now he is better and I am happy to be the person who enabled him this little comfort.

Response 9. Nothing happens without sacrifice. Of course he gave up doing many things. We did start to work to help him and luckily we were able to supply this freedom to him.

Response 10. His network is really wide and he is really active outside the company. Actually this creates a really strong relationship between our company and banks, offices and so on. So up until today we always did profitable investments and we were always pre-informed about important changes in advance. Always good and valuable businesses were brought by him.

Response 11. He sacrificed his life. He didn’t even go to university, just worked all his life. He did it for his father’s sake like me, but I was luckier than him because it was my own choice. He didn’t force me.

Response 12. First of all, he sacrificed his family life. I don’t remember any night we sat on the dinner table together. He studied too hard. I want to reduce his workload, as far as he allows.

Response 13. I cannot say he sacrificed because it was his own decision. He used to be a good academician at the university but he wanted to set up this business. Of course he spent most of his time at the business and had to sacrifice many more things. But it also gave him a freedom, he set up his own business and now he works for himself. We are happy for helping him.

Response 14. My father has a very strange character. He works too hard but never gives up his own life. He loves to travel, good wine, posh meals outside and he is able to spare time for them. I want to live like him.

Response 15. He sacrificed his life for this business and his father. Therefore, he didn’t want me to sacrifice my life for the business. I joined the business on my own free will.
Response 16. His personal life, family life, social life. I am willing to reduce his workload but he doesn’t appreciate my work.

Response 17. No he can arrange everything very well, we both work hard at the harvest time or when it is necessary, but we are able to spend very good qualified time.

Response 18. He gave up to live his private life but it was his choice. I did not join the business in order to be able to help him.

Response 19. He sacrificed many of his desires. When I was working as a teacher, he was on his own and had to travel too much. Actually not only him, my mother sacrificed her marriage, her youth for the business. He spent most of his time at the business.

Response 20. He loves his life as well. Even though he spent most of his time at work, he never fell behind anything.

Question 16. Do you think your father-daughter closeness and collaboration makes non-family managers uncomfortable?

Response 1. I don’t think so.

Response 2. Not only non-family managers, but also all family members.

Response 3. It might be

Response 4. Yes, it makes them uncomfortable, especially the oldest ones.

Response 5. Sometimes yes. They think that I share the problems with him a lot.

Response 6. I don’t think. At least I can say this from my point of view. At work, he is our boss not our father and I believe I know my borderline.

Response 7. We don’t have too many non-family managers

Response 8. Definitely. Especially the experienced ones think that we share things that they don’t know.

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Response 9. I don’t think so

Response 10. Definitely. I feel their inconvenience after I started to work with my father.

Response 11. We don’t have many.

Response 12. We have only one non-family member manager and he is a part of our family.

Response 13. Yes, they see me as a threat.

Response 14. My father doesn’t share anything with me. I don’t have a very active role. If I was the oldest may be they would be.

Response 15. We don’t have any.

Response 16. It makes, especially our board of members.

Response 17. We don’t have any managers.

Response 18. No

Response 19. All our employees are happy about our relationship.

Response 20. Sometimes I feel they are. Especially when I am the only one who joins the meetings with my father, they want to know what we have done there.

Question 17. Do you think your father has chosen you as a successor just for your talents? Or for your experience or your education?

Response 1. Talent and education.

Response 2. If he selects me, it would be only for my education.

Response 3. Talent and experience.

Response 4. Both.

Response 5. Maybe yes, but unfortunately I am the only choice he has.

Response 6. All of them is effective.
Response 7. If he selects me, it would be only for my talent.

Response 8. For my talent, but it comes from my educational background.


Response 11. Both

Response 12. If he does, only for my effort and talent.

Response 13. First for talent, last for education.

Response 14. He won’t choose me.

Response 15. My experience.

Response 16. If he does, only for my experience and talent.

Response 17. Both

Response 18. He wouldn’t select me.

Response 19. He does not care about education. He just saw my passion.

Response 20. Education and talent.
## APPENDIX 3. FOB EMPLOYEE SURVEY

SAMPLE OF DATA SET, SECTION 1 QUESTIONS 1-10

|   | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | -20 | 20-39 | 40-49 | 50-59 | 60 OR OVER | NON-MANAGEMENT | MIDDLE MANAGEMENT | TOP MANAGEMENT | BOARD OF DIRECTOR | LESS THAN 1 YEAR | 1 TO 5 YEARS | 5 TO 10 YEARS | 10 TO 15 YEARS | MORE THAN 15 YEARS | HIGH SCHOOL | UNIVERSITY IN TURKEY | UNIVERSITY ABROAD | MASTER DEGREE IN TURKEY | MASTER DEGREE ABROAD | PHD IN TURKEY | PHD ABROAD |
|---|---|---|---|---|---|-----|-------|-------|-------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|
| S1.1 | 2* | 4 | 8 | 6 | 5 | 5 | 3 | 1 | 9 | 5 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 5 | 7 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| S1.2 | 3* | 5 | 4 | 6 | 2 | 4 | 2 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 2 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| S1.3 | 7 | 10 | 1* | 2 | 3 | 8 | 3 | 1 | 14 | 2 | 1 | 1 | 7 | 3 | 3 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| S1.4 | 4F | 2F | 5F | 2M | 2F | 5M* | 3 | 4 | 2 | 9 | 1 | 6 | 2 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 4 | 4 | 1 | 2 | 3 |
| S1.5 | 6 | 6 | 7* | 1* | 4 | 5 | 3 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 4 | 3 | 2 | 3 | 1 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 | 3 | 5 | 2 |
| S1.6 | 9 | 3* | 6 | 2 | 2 | 6 | 1 | 3 | 5 | 1 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 |
| S1.7 | 2 | 6 | 12* | 5 | 6 | 1 | 6 | 5 | 1 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 |
| S1.8 | 1 | 3 | 16* | 5 | 6 | 4 | 1 | 10 | 5 | 1* | 3 | 7 | 3 | 3* | 2 | 10 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 |
| S1.9 | 1* | 2* | 6 | 11 | 5 | 5 | 1 | 6 | 5 | 2 | 5 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 2 | 7 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 | 1 | 6 | 3 | 2 |

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<table>
<thead>
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<th>Questionnaire Survey Questions</th>
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<tr>
<td><strong>SECTION 1. ORGANISATION</strong></td>
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</table>
| This section asks questions about your experience at work. Please respond to the statements below by fitting in the appropriate bubble using the scale below.  
1 = never  
2 = seldom  
3 = sometimes  
4 = usually  
5 = always |

| **SECTION 2. ORGANISATIONAL CULTURE** |
| This section asks several questions about your organization culture.  
When answering these questions think of your company as a whole and the way that things are usually done. Please respond to the statements below by filling in the appropriate bubble using the following scale.  
1 = strongly disagree  
2 = disagree  
3 = undecided  
4 = agree  
5 = strongly agree |

| **SECTION 3. SUCCESSOR SELECTION PROCESS** |
| This section asks questions about your beliefs regarding successor selection process. Please respond to the statements below by filling in the appropriate bubble using the scale below.  
1 = strongly disagree  
2 = disagree  
3 = undecided  
4 = agree  
5 = strongly agree |

| **SECTION 4. DAUGHTER AS A SUCCESSOR** |
| Which one do you most prefer? |

| **SECTION 5. PREFERRED LEADERSHIP CHARACTERISTICS** |
| This section asks questions about your feelings regarding your preferred leadership. Please rate your most preferred leadership characteristics, select 5 leadership characteristics from 1 (most important) to 5 (less important). |

<p>| 1. FOB owner makes all decisions on his own | 1. People work like they are a part of a team | 1. Successor selection should be done by the owner of the company | 1. Being lead by woman from the family | For me, most preferred leader; |
| 2. Family affects FOB owner’s decisions | 2. The capabilities of employees are viewed as an important source of competitive advantage | 2. Successor should be from the family | 2. Being led by a woman who is professional. | 1. Makes good decisions |
| 3. Board of director affects owner’s decisions | 1 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER | 3. Successor should be select from the professionals | Please rate the following statements from the most preferred (1) to less (5) | 2. Is a creative thinker |
| 4. Gender is an important factor for promoting | 3. Everyone believes that our managers have a great impact on us | 4. Daughters can be candidate for successor selection | 1. Being lead by woman from the family who has good educated | 3. Sticks to a decisions |
| 5. The leadership in the organization in generally considered exemplifying entrepreneurship, innovation or risk-taking. | 4. Everyone can share their ideas with our managers | 5. Daughters only have a chance for being a successor if the family do not have any sons | 2. Being lead by woman who has good educated professional | 4. Is a problem solver |
| 4 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER | 5. There is continues investment in the skills of employees | 6. Having an idea about the successor of FOB is important for the work performance | 3. Being lead by women from the family who has a good experience at FOB | 5. Makes decisions once made |</p>
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<tr>
<td>6. The leadership in the organization is generally considered to exemplify a no-nonsense, aggressive and result-oriented focus.</td>
<td>2 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER</td>
<td>7. Having an idea about when will succession process happened is important for the work performance</td>
<td>4. Being lead by professional woman who has a good experience at FOB</td>
<td>6. Creates a vision of the future</td>
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<td>5 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER</td>
<td>6. Family business members make all decisions in this organisation</td>
<td>5. Being lead by women from the family who has a good experience outside</td>
<td>7. Is enthusiastic</td>
<td></td>
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<td>7. New ideas and opportunities are explored</td>
<td>7. Company is too large and/or complex for the entrepreneur to run alone</td>
<td>6. Being lead by professional woman who has a good experience outside</td>
<td>8. Makes sure all employees have enough resources</td>
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<td>8. Everybody can talk with our business owner when they want.</td>
<td>1 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER</td>
<td>* Numbers show how many people rated this item as most preferred</td>
<td>9. Makes sure all employees feel included</td>
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<td>9. FOB owner has to be good relationship with the government for our business' future</td>
<td>8. Conflicts occur between older and younger generations over who is charge</td>
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<td>10. I am satisfied with my business</td>
<td>9. Men are more suited to business leadership than women (It is not your opinion, in this company....)</td>
<td>11. Cares about me</td>
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<td></td>
<td>10. Men are more valued in business than women (Not according to your opinion, in this company....)</td>
<td>12. Has a sense of humour</td>
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<td>11. Business run by women tend to be less successful and more prone to fail (It is not your opinion, according to your business culture....)</td>
<td>13. Cooperates and communicates with other functions</td>
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<td></td>
<td>12. Subordinates considered males and females equally effective in terms of leadership ability</td>
<td>14. Recognizes those who produce outstanding results</td>
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<td></td>
<td>13. Female managers are more relationship oriented</td>
<td>15. Takes risks in trying out new ideas</td>
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<td></td>
<td>14. Male managers are more task-oriented</td>
<td>16. Encourages us to work as a team</td>
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<td></td>
<td>15. Globalisation affects our company culture</td>
<td>17. Gives me the freedom to do my job</td>
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<td>1 OF 19 RESPONDENTS CHOOSE NOT TO ANSWER</td>
<td>18. Inspires me to do my best</td>
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<td></td>
<td>19. Handles change effectively</td>
<td>20. Asks me for my ideas and opinions</td>
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APPENDIX 4. INTERVIEW REQUEST FORMS

INTERVIEW REQUEST FOR FOB OWNERS’

DATE
NAME TITLE
COMPANY

Dear

I am a doctoral student at Chester University working on a dissertation about “Daughter successors in Turkish Family Owned Business; Gendered norms, cultural influence and leadership challenge”

The purpose of this doctoral research study is to ascertain the impact of FOB members and cultural factors on the succession processes, and investigates the influence of national culture and FOB members toward FOB owner as a father on selecting daughters as a successor. A further purpose is to identify the characteristics of new generation Turkish women managers.

Might you be available for a personal interview during the last two weeks of June or early July? The focus of the interview would be your insights and perspectives on succession process in family business and selecting daughter as a successor. Enclosed is an outline of the research questions. The interview will take 45 to 60 minutes. With your permission, I would prefer to audiotape our conversation so as to assist in accuracy of data analysis in dissertation. If you prefer, all responses can remain confidential with your name and organization not being identified in the study.

In addition to the in-person interviews with FOB leaders and daughters, there is an in-process qualitative survey of family business employees. I would be happy to share the research findings with you. Although you undoubtedly have a demanding schedule, I would appreciate the opportunity to meet with at your convenience to discuss leadership issues in family business.

I look forward to hearing from you. Please contact me at 0044-7788-611361, o.ozdemir@chester.ac.uk

Sincerely,

Ozlem Ozdemir
INTERVIEW REQUEST

DATE
NAME TITLE
COMPANY

Dear

I am a doctoral student at Chester University working on a dissertation about “Daughter successors in Turkish Family Owned Business; Gendered norms, cultural influence and leadership challenge”

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Might you be available for a personal interview between .......... 2015? The focus of the interview would be your insights and perspectives on succession process in family business and selecting daughter as a successor as your successor. Enclosed is an outline of the research questions. The interview will take 45 to 60 minutes. With your permission, I would prefer to audiotape our conversation so as to assist in accuracy of data analysis in dissertation. If you prefer, all responses can remain confidential with your name and organization not being identified in the study.

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I look forward to hearing from you. Please contact me at 0044-7788-611361, o.ozdemir@chester.ac.uk

Sincerely,

Ozlem Ozdemir
APPENDIX 5. LETTER OF CONSENT

Consent for Participation in Interview Research

I volunteer to participate in a research project conducted by Ozlem Ozdemir from Chester University. I understand that the project is designed to gather information about academic work of family owned businesses in Turkey. I will be one of approximately 40 people being interviewed for this research.

1. My participation in this project is voluntary. I understand that I will not be paid for my participation.

2. I understand that most interviewees in will find the discussion interesting and thought-provoking. If, however, I feel uncomfortable in any way during the interview session, I have the right to decline to answer any question or to end the interview.

3. Participation involves being interviewed by researcher from Chester University. The interview will last approximately 30-45 minutes. Notes will be written during the interview. An audio tape of the interview and subsequent dialogue will be made. If I don't want to be taped, I will not be able to participate in the study.

4. I understand that the researcher will not identify me by name in any reports using information obtained from this interview, and that my confidentiality as a participant in this study will remain secure. Subsequent uses of records and data will be subject to standard data use policies which protect the anonymity of individuals and institutions.

7. I have read and understand the explanation provided to me. I have had all my questions answered to my satisfaction, and I voluntarily agree to participate in this study.

8. I have been given a copy of this consent form.

____________________________ My Signature

____________________________ My Printed Name

For further information, please contact:

Ozlem Ozdemir

____________________________ Date

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