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THE RELATIONSHIP BETWEEN LEADERSHIP STYLES AND JOB SATISFACTION

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Leadership has become an important subject with the developments and changes in the new business environment. To adopt to these developments and changes, managers also have to have good leadership traits. Choosing the appropriate leadership style, effects the organizations performance. Meanwhile, the success of the organizations will be possible with happy and satisfied employees, therefore importance of job satisfaction is vital. With this study, the relationship between the new leadership styles namely; transformational and transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction is tried to explain.

I would like to give my special thanks to my thesis supervisor Yrd. Doç Dr. Deniz Börü, for her contributions and mentoring; and also to my husband Cem Ertekin, to my family and to my friends for their support and patience throughout this entire process.

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CONTENTS

Page No

LIST OF TABLES ..... **III**
LIST OF FIGURES ..... **IV**
ABBREVIATIONS ..... **V**

INTRODUCTION **1**

1. LEADERSHIP **2**

1.1. Definitions 2
1.2. Leadership and Management 3
1.3. Leadership Theories 4
1.3.1. Trait Theory 4
1.3.2. Behavioral Theory 6
1.3.2.1. Ohio State Leadership Theory 9
1.3.2.2. Michigan Leadership Theory 11
1.3.2.3. Managerial Grid 13
1.3.3. Contingency Theory 16
1.3.3.1. Fiedler's Contingency Theory 17
1.3.3.2. House's Path-Goal Theory 20
1.3.3.3. Vroom-Yetton's Decision- Making Model 22
1.3.3.4. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Model 24
1.3.3.5. Substitutes for Leadership 26
1.3.4. Other Theoretical Approach 28
1.3.4.1. Attribution Theory 28
1.3.4.2. Leader- Member Exchange Theory 30
1.3.5. New Leadership Theories - Transactional and Transformational Leadership 31
1.3.5.1. Transformational Leadership 33
1.3.5.1.1. Strengths of and Criticisms on Transformational Approach 39
1.3.5.1.2. Transformational Leadership Factors 40
1.3.5.1.3. Transformational and Charismatic Leadership 42
1.3.5.2. Transactional Leadership 45
1.3.5.2.1. Transactional Leadership Factors 45
1.3.5.3. Absence of Leadership – Laissez- Faire 46
1.3.5.4. Leadership Instrument 48
1.4. Leadership and Follower Effects 49

2. JOB SATISFACTION **55**

2.1. Definitions 55
2.2. Sources of Job Satisfaction 56
2.2.1. Personal Factors 56
2.2.2. Factors Related to Work 58
2.3. Consequences of Job Satisfaction 60
2.3.1. Life Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction 60
2.3.2. Performance and Job Satisfaction 61
2.3.3. Withdrawal Behaviors and Job Satisfaction 62
2.3.4. Mental and Physical Health and Job Satisfaction 63
2.4. Promoting Job Satisfaction 64
2.5. Job Satisfaction and Motivation Theories 65
2.5.1. Need Theories 66
2.5.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs 66
2.5.1.2. Alderfer's ERG Theory 69
2.5.1.3. Mc Clelland's Needs Theory 70
2.5.1.4. Herzberg's Motivator- Hygiene Theory 72

2.5.2. Process Theories 74
2.5.2.1. Equity Theory 74
2.5.2.2. Expectancy Theory 75
2.5.2.3. Reinforcement Theory 79
2.5.2.4. Goal Setting Theory 80
2.6. Measuring Job Satisfaction 81
2.6.1. Questionnaires 81
2.6.2. Critical Incidents Technique 82
2.6.3. Interviews 83

3. METHOD 84

3.1. Introduction To Research 84
3.1.1. Content and Purpose of the Research 84
3.1.2. Research Question and Hypothesis 85
3.1.3. Limitations 86
3.2. Method Of The Research 86
3.2.1. Measuring Instrument 86
3.2.1.1. Demographic Questions 86
3.2.1.2. Leadership Style Questionnaire 86
3.2.1.2.1. Transformational Leadership Scale 87
3.2.1.2.2. Transactional Leadership Scale 87
3.2.1.2.3. Laissez Faire Leadership Scale 88
3.2.1.3. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire 88
3.2.2. Measuring 90
3.2.3. Procedure 91
3.2.4. Data Analysis 91
3.3. Research Findings 91
3.3.1. Frequency Analysis 91
3.3.1.1. Frequency According To Gender 91
3.3.1.2. Frequency According To Age 92
3.3.1.3. Frequency According To Marital Status 92
3.3.1.4. Frequency According To Education 93
3.3.1.5. Frequency According To Working Experience 93
3.3.1.6. Frequency According To Experience In The Current Firm 94
3.4. Statistical Analysis 94
3.4.1. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of Leadership Style Questions 95
3.4.1.1. Transformational Leadership Scale 95
3.4.1.2. Transactional Leadership Scale 96
3.4.1.3. Laissez Faire Leadership Scale 98
3.4.2. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Job Satisfaction Questions 98
3.4.3. Regression Analysis 100

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION 106

APPENDIX 110

REFERENCES 114

LIST OF TABLES

		Page No
Table 1	The Three Classical Styles of Leader Behavior.....	8
Table 2	Potential Strategies for Making Decisions.....	23
Table 3	Substitutes for Leadership.....	27
Table 4	Leadership.....	32
Table 5	Leadership Factors.....	47
Table 6	Effects Of Various Work Factors on Job Satisfaction.....	57
Table 7	Frequency According to Gender.....	92
Table 8	Frequency According to Age.....	92
Table 9	Frequency According to Marital Status.....	93
Table 10	Frequency According to Education.....	93
Table 11	Frequency According to Working Experience.....	94
Table 12	Frequency According to Working Experience in the Current Firm.....	94
Table 13	Transformational Scale Factor Analysis Results.....	96
Table 14	Transactional Scale Factor Analysis Results.....	97
Table 15	Laissez Faire Scale Factor Analysis Results.....	98
Table 16	Job Satisfaction Factor Analysis Results.....	99
Table 17	Significance of Intrinsic-Authority according to ANOVA.....	101
Table 18	Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior and Control Variables on Intrinsic –Authority.....	102
Table 19	Significance of Extrinsic- Supervision according to ANOVA	102
Table 20	Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Extrinsic – Supervision.....	102
Table 21	Significance of Intrinsic- Security according to ANOVA.....	103
Table 22	Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Intrinsic- Security.....	103
Table 23	Significance of Extrinsic- Compensation according to ANOVA	104
Table 24	Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Extrinsic-Compensation.....	105

LIST OF FIGURES

		Page No
Figure 1	: Ohio State Leadership Model	10
Figure 2	: Managerial Grid	15
Figure 3	: Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC)	18
Figure 4	: House's Path - Goal Theory	20
Figure 5	: Attribution Model of Leadership	29
Figure 6	: Equity Comparison In a Work Situation	74
Figure 7	: Reinforcement Process	79

ABBREVIATIONS

CEO	: Chief Executive Officer
ERG	: Existence Relatedness Growth
JDI	: Job Descriptive Index
LBDQ	: Leader Behavior Description Questionnaire
LMX	: Leader Member Exchange
LOQ	: Leadership Opinion Questionnaire
LPC	: Least Preferred Co-worker
MLQ	: Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire
MSQ	: Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire
TAT	: Thematic Apperception Test
VDL	: Vertical Dyadic Linkage

INTRODUCTION

In the dynamic business environment , leadership has become a more important concept. Managers are expected to have leadership talents in addition to their managerial qualifications to adopt their organizations to the changes in the environment. The rapid discontinuous changes in the environment have required much more need for leaders and followers to be more flexible and imaginative. To deal effectively with this rapidity of change, the good supervisors have to be both good managers and good leaders. Organizational success and effectiveness is related to the appropriate leadership style that the leader performs. Better performance in the organization is possible with happy and satisfied employees.

Over the years, leadership and leadership styles have been studied extensively in various contents and theoretical foundations. Leadership can be summarized as the process of providing direction, energizing others and obtaining their voluntary commitment to the leader's vision. The leadership style, leader performs is very important for the follower's and organization's performance and satisfaction.

The relationship between job satisfaction and leadership styles has been subject to many researches in organizational behavior, however there is limited research on transformational and transactional leadership styles known as the new leadership styles and job satisfaction. To be aware of the needs, expectations and factors that satisfy these needs is very important for the leaders for both increasing the productivity of the organization and decreasing the turnover.

This study aims to explain the relationship between leadership styles performed by leaders and job satisfaction of the followers. Following, the literature of leadership and job satisfaction is given. By combining the literature of these two concepts, the relationship between them will be explained in the method part.

1. LEADERSHIP

1.1. Definitions

Leadership concept, increasing its importance in our global world, is defined by Nelson and Quick as the process of guiding and directing the behavior of people in the work environment.[1]

Greenberg and Baron adds to this definition by mentioning about the goals by defining leadership as the process whereby one individual influences group members toward attaining defined group or organizational goals.[2]

Another definition of leadership is made by Boune and Kurtz where they define the leadership as the act of motivating or causing others to perform activities designed to achieve specific objectives.[3]

Leadership is the interaction between two or more group members that structures or restructures the situation and alters the perceptions and expectations of members according to Dean and Mary Tjosvold.[4]

In addition, Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey also defines leadership as a process by saying; leadership is the process of providing direction, energizing others and obtaining their voluntary commitment to the leader's vision. A leader creates a vision and goals and influences others to share that vision and work toward the goals.[5]

Finally Donald Clark defines leadership as a complex process by which a person influences others, applying her leadership attributes like belief, values, ethics,

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[1] Debra L. Nelson, James Campbell Quick, **Organizational Behavior: Foundations, Realities and Challenges,** USA: West Publishing Company, 1994, pp. 358.

[2] Jerald Greenberg, Robert A. Baron, **Behavior in Organisations,** 7th ed., New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2000, pp. 445.

[3] Louis E. Boune, David L. Kurtz, **Contemporary Business,** 6th ed, Orlando: The Dryden Press, 1990, pp.183.

[4] Dean Tjosvold, Mary M. Tjosvold, **Psychology for Leaders Using Motivation, Conflict and Power to Manage More Effectively,** USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1995, pp. 48.

[5] Curtis W. Cook, Phillip L. Hunsaker, Robert E. Coffey, **Management and Organizational Behavior,** 2nd ed., USA: Irwin – Mc GrawHill, 1997, pp.463.

character, knowledge and skills, to accomplish a mission, task or objective and directs the organization in a way that makes it more cohesive and coherent.[6]

1.2. Leadership and Management

A manager is a person who directs the work of employees and is responsible for results. An effective manager brings a degree of order and consistency to tasks. A leader by contrast inspires employees with a vision and helps them cope with change.[7] Managers are common at all levels of organization, whether they are called supervisors, managers, directors, administrators or executives. Like managers, leaders can be found at all levels. Unlike managers leaders do not necessarily need a title to effectively exert leadership in fact the leader may not be a manager at all.[8]

Leadership and management are two different and integrated operation systems. Each have their own characteristics and both are necessary to accomplish success in our competitive business world. Management involves coping with complexity, while leadership is about coping with change.[9] For Kotter, the management process involve (1) planning and budgeting (2) organizing and staffing and (3) controlling and problem solving. The management process reduces uncertainty and stabilizes an organization. In contrast, the leadership process involves (1) setting a direction for the organization (2) aligning people with that direction through communication and (3) motivating people to action, partly through empowerment and partly through basic need gradification. The leadership process creates uncertainty and change in organization. [10]

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[6] Donald Clark, "Concept of Leadership", *Big Dog's Leadership*,1999, http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadcon.html, (23.12.1999), (pp.1)

[7] Don Hellriegel, John W. Slocum Jr., Richard W. Woodman, **Organizational Behavior,** 7th ed., USA: West Publishing Company, 1995, pp. 343

[8] Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, pp.463

[9] John P. Kotter, **Liderler Gerçekte Ne Yapar?,** Çev. Meral Tüzel, Türkiye Metal Sanayicileri Sendikası, BZD Yayıncılık, Haziran 1999, pp.47

[10] Nelson and Quick, pp. 358

1.3. Leadership Theories

The first studies about leadership started at 1920's. Trait theory as the first leadership theory , tried to explain the common distinguishing characteristics of effective leaders. At 1940's behavioral theory replaced the trait theory at USA and at the rest of the world. The late decisions of leadership is explained with the contingency theories where leadership is depended on some situational factors.[11] At the end of 1980's the studies on leadership focus on charismatic and transformational leadership.

1.3.1. Trait Theory

At the turn of the 20th century, the prevailing belief was that leaders were born with characteristics that differentiate them from their followers.

The trait approach to leadership is the evaluation and selection of leaders on the basis of their physical, mental, social and psychological characteristics.[12] The first studies on this concept were named as "the great person theory". According to this orientation, great leaders possess key traits that set them apart from most other humans that remain stable over time and across different groups. It suggests all great leaders share these characteristics regardless of when or where they lived or the precise role in history they fulfilled.[13]

Studies conducted by Ralph Stogdill in 1948 and by Richard Mann in 1959, which sought to summarize the impact of traits on leadership, caused the trait approach to fall into disfavor. Stogdill concluded that five traits tended to differentiate leaders from average followers. They were; (1) intelligence, (2) dominance, (3) self-confidence, (4) level of energy and activity and (5) task-relevant knowledge[14] However these five traits did not correlate strongly with leader emergence. People with these traits often remained followers.

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[11] Robert Goffee ve Gareth Jones, *"Liderlik Geniş Bir Konunun Kısa Bir Tarihi"*, **Kontent,** Sayı:21 (Ocak-Şubat 2002), pp. 58-59.

[12] R. Wayne Mondy, Shane R. Premeaux, **Management Concepts, Practices and Skills,** 7th ed.,New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 1995, pp.347.

[13] Greenberg, Baron, pp.448.

[14] Robert Kreitner, Angela Knicki, **Organizational Behaviour,** Boston: BPI/ IRWIN, 1989, pp. 448.

Edwin Ghiselli, has tried to identify personality and motivational traits related to effective leadership. The most significant six traits were as follows:

Supervisory Ability – the performance of the basic functions of management, including planning, organizing, influencing and controlling the work of others.

Need for occupational achievement– the seeking of responsibility and the desire for success.

Intelligence – creative and verbal ability, including judgment, reasoning and thinking capacity.

Decisiveness – the ability to make decisions and solve problems capably and competently.

Self Assurance – the extent to which the individual views himself or herself as capable of coping with problems.

Initiative – the ability to act independently and to develop courses of action not readily apparent to other people; to self-start and find new, innovative ways of doing things.[15]

Trait theory has left many questions about what is necessary for effective leadership. The biggest criticism, of the theory is, traits causing successful leadership in some situations, may not give the same results in other situations. Researches on trait theory are still continuing.

Warren Bennis, had made a research with 90 leaders and their followers lasting 5 years. At the end he defined 4 traits, as competency areas, common to these 90 leaders.[16]

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[15] Mondy, Premeaux, pp.348.

[16] Paul Hersey, Kenneth H. Blanchard, Dewey E. Johnson, **Management of Organizational Behavior Leading Human Resources,** 8th ed., New Jersey: Prentice Hall, 2001, pp.90.

- *Care Management:* Competency of relationship with a goal and direction affecting followers.
- *Meaning Management:* Creating a clear and understandable meaning and transferring this to the followers.
- *Trust Management:* Competency of being trustable and consistent.
- *Self Management*: Being aware of own strengths and weaknesses and using abilities between these borders.

Limitations and questions on trait theory, forced researchers to work on the behaviors of leaders instead of the characteristics.

1.3.2. Behavioral Theory

This phase of leadership research began during Wold War 2 as part of the effort to develop better military leaders. It was an outgrowth of two events; the seeming inability of trait theory to explain leadership effectiveness and the human relations movement, an outgrowth of the Hawthorne Studies. The thrust of early behavioral leadership theory was to focus on leader behavior, instead of on personality traits. It was believed that leader behavior directly affected work group effectiveness. This led researchers to identify patterns of behavior (called leadership styles) that enabled leaders to effectively influence others. Kurt Lewin and his associates reinforced the belief that there is one best style of leadership in 1939 with a laboratory study. With this study they indicated that followers preferred leaders with a democratic style, as opposed to those with either an authoritarian or laissez-faire style.[17]

In the first studies to contrast the authoritarian and the democratic leader, the authoritarian leader dictated what was to be done and was unconcerned about the group members' needs for autonomy and development. The democratic leader shared the decision making with subordinates and was concerned about their need to contribute to

[17] Kreitner and Knicki, pp. 452.

deciding what was to be done. The authoritarian leader was personal in praise or reproof of each member, the democratic leader was factual and rational.[18]

Laissez-faire leaders gave group members complete freedom of action, provided them with materials, refrained from participating except to answer questions when asked, and did not make evaluative remarks. This behavior was in contrast to that of autocratic leaders, who displayed a much greater frequency of order giving, disrupting commands, praise and approval, and nonconstructive criticism. It also contrasted with the behavior of democratic leaders, who gave suggestions and stimulated subordinates to guide themselves.[19]

Table 1 represents the relationship between, authoritarian, democratic and laissez faire leadership styles.

[18] Bernard M. Bass, **Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership Theory, Research & Managerial Applications,** 3rd ed, NewYork: The Free Press, 1990, pp. 420.

[19] Bass, pp.545.

Table 1

The Three Classical Styles of Leader Behavior

	Authoritarian	**Democratic**	**Laissez-faire**
Nature	Leader retains all authority and responsibility.	Leader delegates a great deal of authority while retaining ultimate responsibility.	Leader denies responsibility and abdicates authority to group.
	Leader assigns people to clearly defined tasks.	Work is divided and assigned on the basis of participatory decision making.	Group members are told to work things out themselves and do the best they can.
	Primarily a downward flow of communication.	Active two- way flow of upward and downward communication.	Primarily horizontal communication among peers.
Primary Strength	Stresses prompt, orderly, and predictable performance	Enhances personal commitment through participation.	Permits self- starters to do things as they see fit without leader interference.
Primary Weakness	Approach tends to stifle individual initiative.	Democratic process is time consuming.	Group may drift aimlessly in the absence of direction from leader.

Source: Robert Kreitner, Angela Knicki, Organizational Behavior, Boston: BPI/IRWIN, 1989, pp.453.

Studies made to explain Behavioral Theory can be underlined as below:

- Ohio State Leadership Theory
- Michigan Leadership Theory
- Managerial Grid

1.3.2.1. Ohio State Leadership Theory

Starting from 1945, Ohio State University researchers made studies analyzing leadership behavior in various organisations. The main point of these researches is the leadership behaviors directing the efforts of followers towards group objectives. They generated a list of 1800 statements that described nine categories of leadership behavior. Using a statistical technique called factor analysis, the Ohio State researchers concluded there were only two independent dimensions of leader behavior: Consideration and Initiating Structure.[20]

Consideration is the degree to which a leader acts in a friendly and supportive manner, shows concern for subordinates and looks out for their welfare.[21] The considerate leader expresses appreciation for good work, stresses the importance of job satisfaction, maintains and strengthens the self- esteem of subordinates by treating them as equals, makes special efforts to help subordinates feel at ease, is easy to approach, puts subordinates suggestions into operation, and obtains subordinates' approval on important matters before going ahead.[22]

Initiating structure is the degree to which a leader defines and structures his or her own role and the roles of subordinates toward attainment of the group's formal goals.[23] The initiation of structure includes such leadership behavior as insisting on maintaining standards and meeting deadlines and deciding in detail what will be done and how it should be done. Clear channels of communication and clear patterns of work

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[20] Kreitner and Knicki, pp.453
[21] Gary A. Yukl, **Leadership in Organizations,** 2nd ed., USA: Prentice Hall, 1989, pp. 75.
[22] Bass, pp.511.
[23] Yukl, pp.75.

organization are established. Orientation is toward the task, the leader acts directively without consulting the group.[24]

Initiating structure and consideration are separate and distinct dimensions of leadership behavior. A manager can be high in both consideration and initiating structure, low in both, or high in one and low in the other. Figure 1 illustrates four leadership styles representing different combinations of the two dimensions.

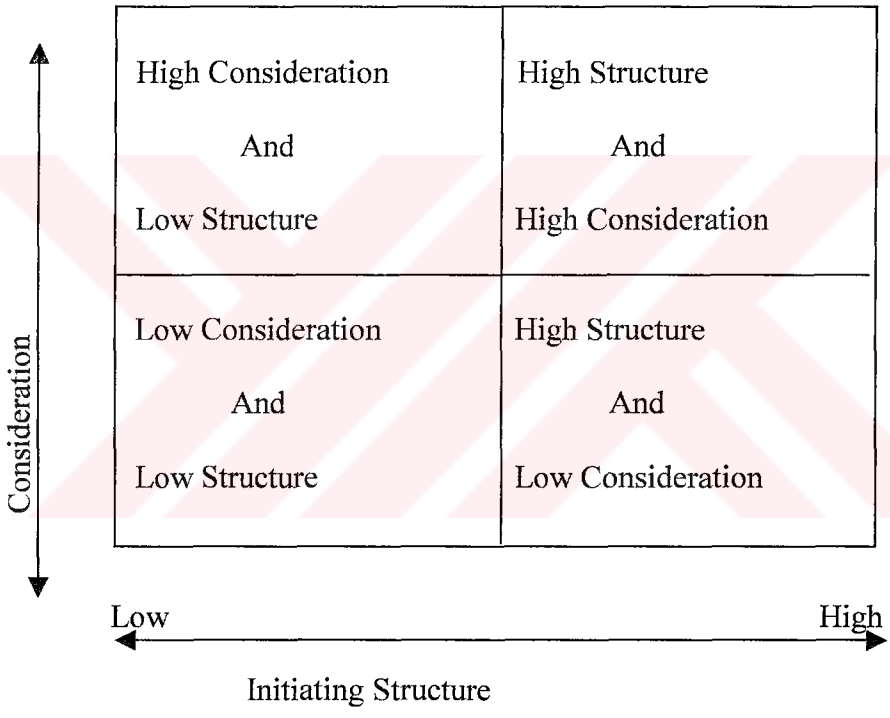

Figure 1. Ohio State Leadership Model

Source:R. Wayne Mondy, Shane R. Premeaux, Management Concepts, Practices and Skills, 7th ed., USA:Prentice Hall, 1995, pp.351

[24] Bass, pp.512.

Ohio State researchers, have used, leader behavior description questionnaire, LBDQ to measure leader behavior and then have matched it with different aspects of group performance such as output and satisfaction. This questionnaire focused on how the behavior of leaders were perceived by their subordinates, superiors and colleagues. However the importance is on the observed behavior in Ohio Leadership studies, to measure how the leaders perceive their own style, the leadership opinion questionnaire, LOQ was developed.

The research indicates that a leader who emphasizes consideration generally fosters employee satisfaction, group harmony and cohesion. A leader who emphasizes initiating structure generally improves productivity at least in the short run. The most positive effects of leader consideration on group members' productivity and job satisfaction occur when the task is routine and denies employees any job satisfaction, employees are predisposed toward participative leadership, team members must learn something new, employees feel that their involvement in the decision making process is legitimate and affects their job performance and few status differences exist between leader and subordinate. The most positive effects of leader initiating structure on members' productivity and job satisfaction occur when a high degree of pressure for output is imposed by someone other than the leader, the task satisfies employees, employees depend on the leader for information and direction on how to complete the task, employees are psychologically predisposed toward being told what to do and how to do it and no more than 12 employees report to the leader.[25]

1.3.2.2. Michigan Leadership Theory

Beginning in 1945, researchers made studies on effective and ineffective leadership. According to these studies two leader behavior styles were examined: employee oriented and production oriented.

Leaders defined as employee-oriented, focused on the relationship dimension of the job. They had dealed with each employee, thinking that every employee is

[25] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.350-351

important and has personal needs. Production-oriented leaders focused mostly on production and technical subjects, they had seen employees as tools for reaching company goals.[26]

The results from Michigan studies were summarized by Rensis Likert and the research found that three types of leadership behavior differentiated between effective and ineffective managers. According to task- oriented behavior, effective managers did not spend their time and effort doing the same kind of work as their subordinates. Instead, the more effective managers concentrated on task-oriented (production-oriented) functions such as planning and scheduling the work, coordinating subordinate activities and providing necessary supplies, equipment and technical assistance. Moreover, effective managers guided subordinates in setting performance goals that were high but realistic. According to relationship oriented (employee-oriented) behavior, effective managers were more considerate, supportive and helpful with subordinates. They try to understand subordinate problems, help to develop subordinates and further their careers, keep subordinates informed and show appreciation for their ideas. According to participative leadership managers make extensive use of group supervision instead of supervising each subordinate separately. Group meetings facilitate subordinate participation in decision making, improve communication, promote cooperation, and facilitate conflict resolution. Findings in several field experiments by University of Michigan researchers that subordinate participation in making decisions tends to result in higher satisfaction and performance.[27]

Likert, has defined forthcoming management styles of organisations as a 4 system process.

System1: Management does not trust employees, very rarely lets them join the decision making process. Decisions of the organisation are determined at the top and transferred through an order chain. Employees are motivated with punishment.

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[26] Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, pp. 94

[27] Yukl, pp.81-83

System 2: Management, has a little trust on employees. Decisions and objectives are determined at the top but in a limited frame decisions can be taken at lower positions. Employees are motivated with rewards and real or potential punishments.

System 3: Management has a lot trust on employees. General decisions are made at the top but employees can take more specific decisions. There is two way relationship. Employees are motivated with rewards and rarely with punishment.

System 4: Management has full trust on employees. Decisions are taken commonly in the organisation. There is also horizontal relationship. Employees are motivated by participation to development of economic rewards, goal decisions and method development .[28]

1.3.2.3. Managerial Grid

In 1964, Blake and Mouton, from Ohio State and Michigan University researches, developed a new leadership model where they summarized the way to reach effective leadership is integrating task- oriented and employee-oriented behaviors. Managerial Grid, is a three dimensioned matrix where on vertical axis there is concern for people style and on horizontal axis there is concern for production style. This model also was named as Leadership Grid by Blake and Mc Canse in 1991.

Managerial Grid, gave degrees from 1 to 9 to the attitudes of leaders concerning people and production and defined five leadership styles. Managerial Grid is represented in Figure 2.

- *1,1 Impoverished Management.* The leader has a minimum concern for both production and people.

[28] Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, pp.96.

- *1,9 Country Club Management.* The leader is thoughtful, and leads to a friendly and comfortable organisation, has minimum concern for production outputs.

- *5,5 Organisation Man Management.* The leader tries to balance the concern for production with satisfactory morale rate.

- *9,1 Authority- Obedience.* The leader's concern for production is at the highest rate (9) while, his concern for people is at the lowest (1).

- *9,9 Team Management.* The leader integrates the concern for production and the concern for people at a high level; is goal centered; and seeks results through the participation, involvement and commitment of all those who can contribute. This style can take the form of paternalism if the leader fails to integrate the concerns of production and people. Paternalism occurs, for example, when the leader expresses a strong concern for the well being of followers but does not consider their contributions to productivity, although he or she has an equally strong concern for production. They care as fathers for dependent subordinates from whom they expect unconditional loyalty.[29]

[29] Bass, pp.484.

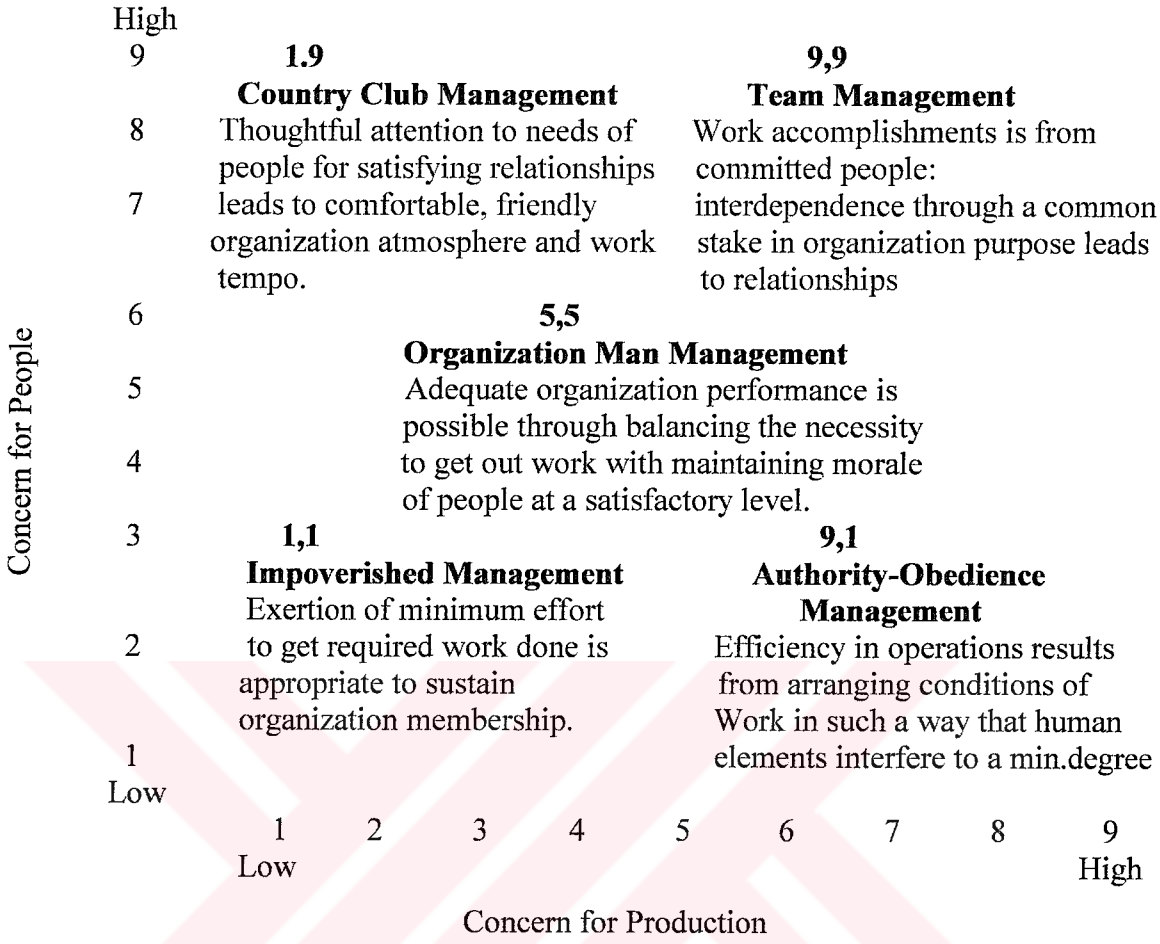

Figure 2. Managerial Grid

Source: Richard L. Daft, Management, 2nd ed., USA: The Dryden Press, 1991, pp.379.

Blake and Mouton, suggest that the 9,9 team management style, maximum concern for both output and people, is the most effective style. Blake and McCanse say their studies prove this approach will result in improved performance, lower employee turnover and absenteeism and greater employee satisfaction.[30]

Researchers like Blake, Mouton and McCanse, suggested that there is only one best leadership style that improves production , satisfaction, growth and development in

[30] Mondy and Premeaux, pp.352.

every situation. The later studies results with the idea that there is not one best leadership style. Successful and effective leaders, are the ones who can adjust their styles according to the needs of the situation.[31]

1.3.3. Contingency Theory

The broad and varied body of work on leadership suggests that there are many appropriate ways to lead or styles of leadership. Contingency theories differ from and build on the trait and behavior theories, as the philosophy that one best way to lead evolved into a complex analysis of the leader and the situation. For optimal success, both the leader style and situation can be evaluated, along with characteristics of the followers. Then, exhibit different behaviors, or the situation can be altered to best match the leader.[32]

Contingency theories, that determine leadership styles and effectiveness according to various situations in the organization and stating that best leadership style changes according to situations, can be summarized as below :

- Fiedler's Contingency Theory
- House's Path- Goal Theory
- Vroom-Yetton Decision Making Model
- Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Leadership Theory
- Substitutes for Leadership

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[31] Hersey, Blanchard, Johnson, pp.102.
[32] Melissa Horner, "*Leadership Theory: past, present and future*", **Team Performance Management,** Volume 3, Number 4 (1997), pp. 272

1.3.3.1. Fiedler's Contingency Theory

A prominent contingency leadership theory was developed by Fred Fiedler on the premise that good leadership depends on match between leadership style and situational demand. Leadership style is measured on what Fiedler calls the least – preferred co worker scale. It describes the tendencies of a leader to be either task motivated or relationship motivated. Fiedler believes that leadership style is part of one's personality therefore it is relatively enduring and difficult to change. Instead of trying to train a task motivated leader to be relationship motivated or vice versa. Fiedler suggests that the key to leadership success is putting the existing styles to work in situations for which they are good fits.[33] Figure 3 shows the least preferred co worker scale. If leader, describes least preferred co worker with positive expressions, scale is 73 points and over, than it is relationship oriented. If he uses negative expressions while describing and the scale is 64 points and below, than it is task oriented. Points between 65 and 72, have both the characteristics of task motivated and relationship motivated leaders.

[33] John R. Shermerhorn Jr, **Management,** 5th ed., USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1996, pp.326.

										Scoring
Pleasant	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Unpleasant	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Friendly	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Unfriendly	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Rejecting	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Accepting	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Tense	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Relaxed	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Distant	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Close	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Supportive	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Hostile	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Boring	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Interesting	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Quarrelsome	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Harmonious	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Gloomy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Cheerful	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Open	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Guarded	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Backbiting	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Loyal	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Untrustworthy	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Trustworthy	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Considerate	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Inconsiderate	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Nasty	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Nice	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Agreeable	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Disagreeable	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
Insincere	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Sincere	_____
	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8		
Kind	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	___	Unkind	_____
	8	7	6	5	4	3	2	1		
									Total	_____

Figure 3. Least Preferred Coworker Scale (LPC)

Source: Fred E. Fiedler, Martin M.Chemers, Improving Leadership Effectiveness: The Leader Match Concept, 2nd ed., USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1984, pp.19.

Leadership situations can be analyzed in terms of three elements: the quality of leader member relationships, task structure, and position power.

Leader member relations refers to group atmosphere and members attitude toward and acceptance of the leader. When subordinates trust respect and have confidence in the leader, leader member relations are considered good.

Task structure refers to the extent to which tasks performed by the group are defined involve specific procedures and have clear explicit goals. Routine well defined tasks have a high degree of structure.

Position power is the extent to which the leader has formal authority over subordinates. Position power is high when the leader has the power to plan and direct the work of subordinates, evaluate it and reward or punish them. When position power is high, the situation is considered favorable for the leader; when low the situation is unfavorable.[34]

Fiedler contends that task- oriented leaders are more effective in extreme situations of either high or low control, but relationship oriented leaders are more effective in middle- of the road situations of moderate control. Research about the relationship between leadership style and follower job satisfaction, suggested that followers generally had higher job satisfaction, displayed less job stress, fewer health problems, and lower absenteeism when the leader was correctly matched with the appropriate situation. In conclusion, except for the validity of the LPC scale, Fiedler's contingency model has considerable support. This implies that organizational effectiveness can be enhanced by appropriately matching leaders with situations.[35]

[34] Richard L. Daft, **Management,** 2nd ed., USA:The Dryden Press, 1991, pp.381.
[35] Kreitner and Knicki, pp. 461.

1.3.3.2. House's Path-Goal Theory

The path- goal theory of leadership was developed to explain how the behavior of a leader influences the satisfaction and performance of subordinates.[36] The path-goal leadership theory describes what the leader should do to motivate followers: clarify performance goals, show the acceptable paths or means for attaining them, make the path easier to travel, and provide reinforcing consequences for those who achieve satisfactory performance.[37] This theory developed by Robert House suggests that, an effective leader is one who clarifies paths through which followers can achieve both task related and personal goals.[38]

Intervening variables in path- goal theory explains how the leader behavior effects the followers satisfaction and performance. Path- goal theory as a contingency theory, depends on situational factors like leadership behavior effect on employee satisfaction and performance, environmental factors, and employee characteristics. Figure 4 represents path-goal theory.

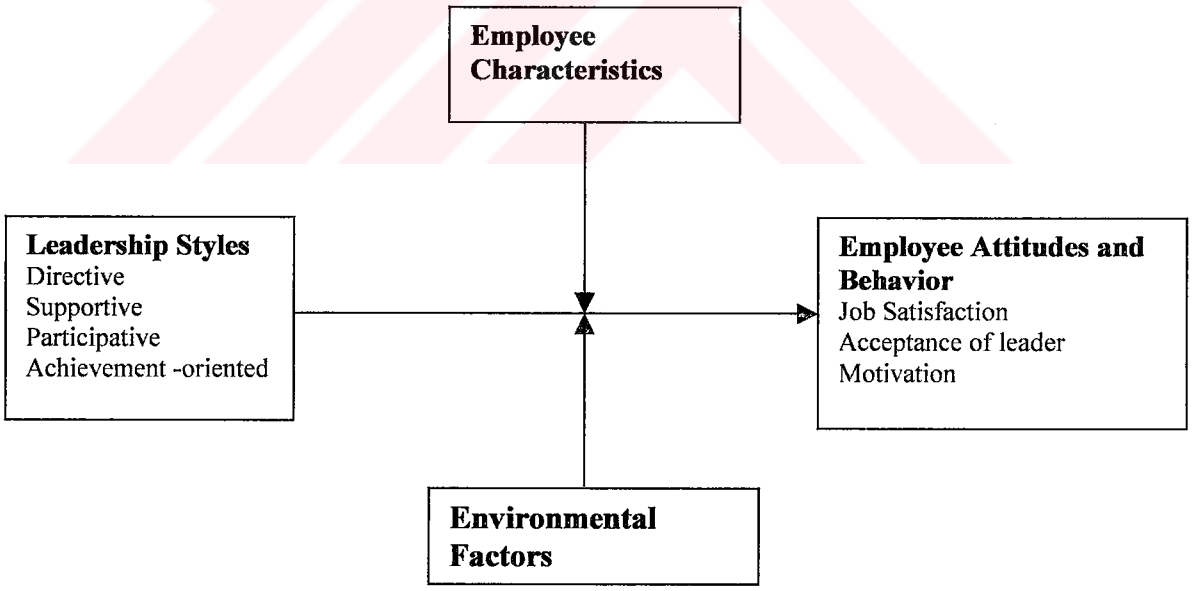

Figure 4. House's Path- Goal Theory

Source: Robert Kreitner, Angela Knicki, Organizational Behavior, USA: BPI/Irwin, 1989,pp.464

[36] Yukl, pp.99.
[37] Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, pp. 477.
[38] Schermerhorn Jr., pp.329.

The initial version of path-goal theory contained only two leader behaviors: supportive leadership (similar to consideration) and directive leadership (similar to initiative structure). Two other leader behaviors were added in the version by House and Mitchell in 1974. The four behaviors are defined as follows:[39]

Supportive leadership: Giving consideration to the needs of subordinates, displaying concern for their welfare and creating a friendly climate in work unit.

Directive leadership: letting subordinates know what they are expected to do, giving specific guidance, asking subordinates to follow rules and procedures, scheduling and coordinating the work.

Participative leadership: consulting with subordinates and taking their opinions and suggestions into account.

Achievement oriented leadership: setting challenging goals, seeking performance improvements, emphasizing excellence in performance, and showing confidence that subordinates will attain high standards.

Path- goal theory aims to create motivation of the group members to reach the group objectives. Path- goal leadership behavioral style gives good solutions according to some contingency factors. House's model has two contingency variables: employee needs and task characteristics. Employee needs like safety, esteem, belongingness determine how they will react to a leader's behavior. Employees with strong acceptance and affiliation needs may find that a supportive leader satisfies their needs. However, employees with strong autonomy, responsibility and self actualization needs probably will be motivated more by participative and achievement-oriented leaders than supportive leaders. Tasks generally may be classified as routine and nonroutine. A

[39] Yukl, pp.100.

routine task requires the use of only a few skills and represents bits and pieces of job rather than the whole job.[40]

This theory is criticized for not clearly specifying the variables it includes or the predictions it makes. The only prediction verified so far is that supportive leader behavior promotes job satisfaction when individuals are performing structured tasks.[41] Employees performing unstructured tasks are satisfied when their leaders' use directive style and are more productive. Achievement oriented leaders are less effective on performance and job satisfaction when employees are performing routine tasks. Participative leadership style is effective, when the employees are performing unstructured tasks.

1.3.3.3. Vroom-Yetton's Decision- Making Model

Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton finalized their normative theory of leadership and decision making in 1973. It attempts to show to what extent leaders should involve subordinates in decision making.[42] Vroom- Yetton model, is based on an analysis of how a leader's decision behavior effects decision quality and subordinate acceptance of the decision. Quality and acceptance are intervening variables that jointly affect group performance. Decision acceptance is the degree of subordinate commitment to implement a decision effectively. Decision acceptance is likely to be greater for joint decision making than for consultation and for consultation than for an autocratic decision. Decision quality refers to the objective aspects of the decision that affect group performance. Decision quality is important when there is a great deal of variability among alternatives, and the decision has important consequences. A high quality decision is one where the best alternative is selected. The model assumes that participation will result in better quality decisions if subordinates possess relevant information and are willing to cooperate with the leader in making a good decision.[43]

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[40] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.361.

[41] Kreitner and Knicki, pp. 465.

[42] Mondy and Premeaux, pp. 357.

[43] Yukl, pp.112-113.

The Vroom and Yetton model presents three basic decision styles: Autocratic; where the leader unilaterally makes decisions. Consultative; where the leader solicits member inputs before deciding, Group, where the leader collaborates with members to arrive at a joint decision.[44] Vroom and Yetton using this basic decision making model, naming with the initials of these styles developed five strategies: A1(autocratic), AII (autocratic), CI (consultative), CII (consultative), GII (group decision).Table 2, represents these decision strategies and definitions.

Table 2

Potential Strategies for Making Decisions

Decision Strategy	Description
AI (Autocratic)	Leader solves problem or makes decision unilaterally using available information.
AII (Autocratic)	Leader obtains necessary information from subordinates but then makes decision unilaterally.
CI (Consultative)	Leader shares the problem with subordinates individually but then makes decision unilaterally.
CII (Consultative)	Leader shares problem with subordinates in group meeting but then makes decision unilaterally.
GII (Group decision)	Leader shares problem with subordinates in a group meeting; decision is reached through discussion to consensus.

Source: Jerald Greenberg and Robert A. Baron, Behavior in Organizations, 7th ed., USA:Prentice Hall, 2000, pp.471.

[44] Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, pp. 481.

Vroom and Yetton, developed questions that the managers will give yes- no answers to diagnose a situation. These questions determine the problem type and the leadership style to be performed for the problem. In 1988 Vroom and Jago developed and restructured the Vroom-Yetton model. Vroom-Yetton model, urges managers to use different styles of decision making leadership to suit situational demands. Vroom-Yetton model while advising what the managers should not do, did not mention about what the managers should do. Giving yes-no answers to situational questions had missed some differences between situations. On the other hand Vroom and Jago model let managers understand situations by giving; no , probably no, probable, yes, probably yes answers.

Researches on Vroom-Yetton model shows that when the decision making process recommended by the model is used, more effective decisions are made. Vroom-Yetton model emphasizes that there is not one style of leadership effective for all situations.[45]

1.3.3.4. Hersey and Blanchard's Situational Model

Hersey and Blanchard's model is based on the amount of relationship (supportive) and task (directive) behavior that a leader provides in a situation. The amount of either relationship or task behavior is based on the readiness of the follower. Task Behavior is the extent to which a leader spells out to followers what to do, where to do it and how to do it Leaders who use task behavior structure, control and closely supervise the behaviors of their followers. Relationship behavior is the extent to which a leader listens, provides support and encouragement, and involves followers in the decision-making process. Follower readiness is subordinates' ability and willingness to perform the task.[46]

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[45] Kreitner and Knicki, pp.459.
[46] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr.and W.Woodman, pp.357.

Hersey and Blanchard's theory is based on the notion that the most effective leadership style varies according to the level of readiness of the followers and the demands of the situation. Four leadership styles are appropriate, given different levels of readiness:[47]

- Telling: High task, low relationship behavior
- Selling: High task, high relationship behavior
- Participating: High relationship, low task behavior
- Delegating: Low relationship, low task behavior

With the telling style, the leader uses one-way communication, defining the objectives and roles of employees and telling employees what, how, when and where to do the work.

As employees learn their jobs, a manager can begin to use selling leadership style. Manager must also provide a high level of emotional support – high relationship behavior to encourage the employees and demonstrate trust and confidence in them.

As employees exhibit an increase in task relevant readiness- as they become more experienced and skilled the leader should reduce the amount of task behavior but continue the high level of emotional support and consideration, therefore participating becomes the appropriate leadership style.

The delegating, low relationship, low task leadership style, goes with the highest level of follower readiness. In this stage employees are skilled and experienced, posess a high level of achievement motivation, they no longer need or expect a high level of task behavior from their leader.

Hersey and Blanchard further believe that leadership styles can and should be adjusted as followers in a given situation change over time. The model also implies that if the correct styles are used in lower readiness situations, followers will mature and

[47] Mondy and Premeaux, pp.359.

grow in ability , willingness and confidence. Not only is this a positive result in itself it also allows the leader to become less directive. Although the Hersey- Blanchard theory is popular in management training programs and is intuitively appealing , limited research has been accomplished on it to date.[48]

1.3.3.5. Substitutes for Leadership

The contingency leadership approaches so far have focused on the leader's style, the subordinates nature and the situation's characteristics. The final contingency approach suggests that situational variables can be so powerful that they actually substitute for or neutralize the need for leadership.

Keer and Jermier (1978), developed a model to identify aspects of the situation that reduce the importance of managerial leadership. These researchers were mostly concerned with identifying limiting conditions for leader behaviors already found to influence subordinates, rather than on identifying new aspects of leader behavior that may be important. The model makes a distinction between two kinds of situational variables: substitutes and neutralizers.[49]A substitute for leadership makes the leadership style unnecessary or redundant. A neutralizer counteracts the leadership style and prevents the leader from displaying certain behaviors.[50]

According to Kerr and Jermier a number of subordinate characteristics may serve as substitutes or/and neutralizers for support and instrumental leadership. Extensive prior experience or training of subordinates serves as a substitute for instrumental behavior for the leader. Little direction is necessary because subordinates already possess the skills and knowledge to know what to do and how to do it. For example: medical doctors, pilots accountants, electricians and other professionals and crafts people do not require close supervision. Likewise, most professionals are internally motivated by their values, needs and ethics, so they do not need to be influenced by the leader to do high quality work.[51] Only a few studies have been

[48] Schermerhorn Jr., pp.329
[49] Yukl, pp.109
[50] Daft, pp.389
[51] Yukl, pp.110

conducted on Kerr and Jermier's model. Table 3 represents certain characteristics of subordinates, tasks or the organisation that may neutralize or eliminate the need for certain styles of leadership.

Table 3

Substitutes For Leadership

Subordinate Characteristics	Task Characteristics	Organizational Characteristics
Ability, experience, training, knowledge	Unambiguous and routine	Formalization (explicit plans, goals, and areas of responsibility)
Need for independence	Methodologically invariant	Inflexibility (rigid, unbending rules and procedures)
Professional orientation	Provides its own feedback concerning accomplishment	Highly specified and active advisory and staff functions
Indifference toward organizational rewards	Intrinsically satisfying	Closely knit, cohesive work groups
		Organizational rewards not within the leader's control
		Spatial distance between superior and subordinates

Source: Judith R. Gordon, Organizational Behavior, A Diagnostic Approach, 6th ed.,USA:Prentice Hall,1999, pp.237

1.3.4. Other Theoretical Approach

The last two decades have seen the emergence of a number of new theories that take fresh perspectives on leadership phenomenon. Before talking about transformational and transactional leadership theories we would like to discuss two of the emerging theories, attribution theory and leader- member exchange theory.

1.3.4.1. Attribution Theory

Attribution theory suggests that a leader's judgement about employees is influenced by the leader's attributions regarding employee performance. A leader's attributions, as much as employees' behaviors determine how the leader responds to their performance.[52] Once an attribution has been made as to the cause of an employee's behavior, the manager or leader then selects actions to deal with the behavior. Thus if a leader attributes a subordinate's poor performance to internal factors such as low effort or a lack of ability, he or she may reprimand, dismiss, or provide training for the employee concerned. If, however, poor performance is attributed to external factors such as lack of material, or to work overload, the leader would need to concentrate on these factors and improve the situation instead of giving negative feedback to employee.[53]

Attribution theory suggested that the leader does not directly act from observing the subordinate behave in a particular way, but interprets that behavior through a set of casual attributes about why that behavior occurred. Mitchell and Wood (1979) have developed an attributional model of leadership which attempts to link leader' actions to employees' poor performance. Figure 5 represents this model. Attributions are based on the leader's ability to process information concerning three dimensions of behavior:[54]

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[52] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.371

[53] Viv Shackleton, **Essential Business Pscychology Business Leadership,** USA: Clive Fletcher, 1995,pp.50

[54] Andrew D. Szilagyi Jr., Marc J. Wallace Jr., **Organisational Behavior and Performance,** 5th ed.,USA: Harper Collins Publishers, 1990, pp.411

Distinctiveness; the degree the individual responds differently to different tasks. Did the behavior occur on this task only?

Consistency; the degree to which the individual's performance on a task has varied over time. Is this level of performance usual for this employee?

Consensus; the extent to which others respond to task in the same way. Is this level of performance usual for other employees?

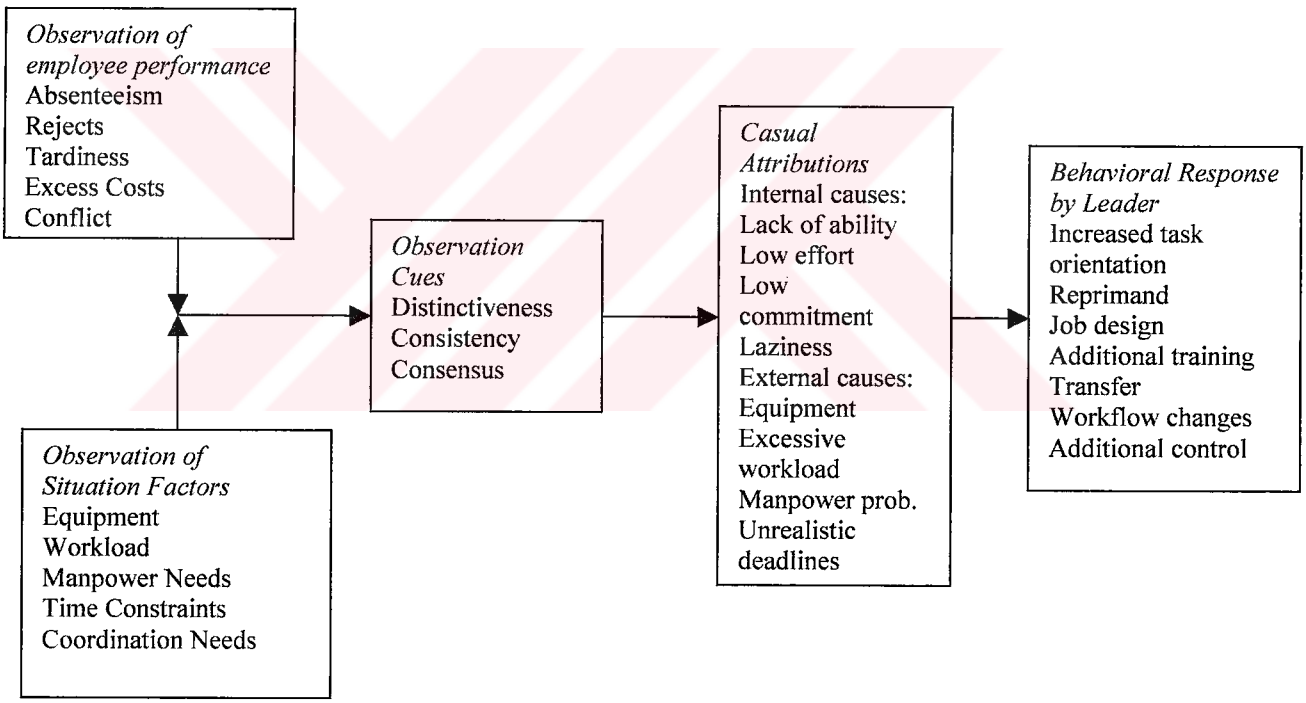

Figure 5. Attribution Model of Leadership

Source: Andrew D. Szilagyi Jr., Marc J. Wallace Jr., Organizational Behavior and Performance, 5th ed.,USA: Harper Collins Publishers, 1990, pp.411

Managers/ leaders need to be aware that their behavior is influenced by their perceptions about the causes of an employee's performance. If faulty attributions are made by leaders and managers because of other influences, then subsequent action

taken might be totally inappropriate to the circumstances. This can easily lead to resentment and dissatisfaction amongst subordinates and result in substandard performance.[55]

1.3.4.2. Leader- Member Exchange Theory

The issue of evolving relationships between leaders and followers had not been given much attention. The vertical dyadic linkage (VDL) model was the first to address this aspect. The VDL model introduced the notion of differentiated dyadic relationships between leaders and followers.[56] George Graen contends that leaders develop unique one to one relationships with each of the people reporting to them.

The VDL model has since evolved into the leader- member exchange (LMX) theory of leadership, focusing more on the quality of dyadic relationships and its effects on organizational outcomes. One type of leader member exchange is called in-group exchange. In this relationship, leaders and followers develop a partnership characterized by reciprocal influence, mutual trust, respect and liking and a sense of common fates.[57] The outgroup exchange is characterized by downward influence, defined role relationships, the leader as overseer and no common outcomes.

Workers in ingroup demonstrate higher performance, lower turnover and greater satisfaction with supervision than other workers. The remaining employees known as the outgroup receive little latitude from the leader and tend to demonstrate lower performance, lower satisfaction and higher turnover. Managers must recognize that belonging to ingroup versus the outgroup has its consequences and may need to adjust their leadership behaviors to prevent these differences from becoming dysfunctional. [58]

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[55] Shackleton, pp.52.
[56] Cary L. Cooper and Edwin A. Locke, **Industrial and Organizational Psychology, Linking Theory with Practice,** USA: Blackwell Publishers, 2000, pp. 144
[57] Kreitner and Knicki, pp.470
[58] Judith R. Gordon, **Organizational Behavior, A Diagnostic Approach,** 6th ed., USA: Prentice Hall, 1999, pp.238

1.3.5. New Leadership Theories - Transactional and Transformational Leadership

Prior to the 1980s behavioral research on leadership concentrated on the transactional exchange between the leader and the led. The leader clarified what needed to be done and the benefits to the self- interests of the followers for compliance.[59] The present research focuses on the theory of transactional and transformational leadership which was initially developed by Burns (1978) and further refined by Bass (1985).[60]

Burns distinguishes between two types of leadership: transactional and transformational. Transactional leadership refers to the bulk of leadership models, which focus on the exchanges that occur between leaders and their followers. The exchange dimension of transactional leadership is very common and can be observed at many levels throughout all types of organizations. In contrast to transactional leadership, transformational leadership refers to the process whereby an individual engages with others and creates a connection that raises the level of motivation and moralty in both the leader and the follower.[61]

A transactional leader views the leader- follower relationship as a process of exchange- work for specific rewards, a favor for a favor, and so forth. Transactional leader reflects the relatively narrow view of the leader as supervisor. Transformational leaders are in contrast are more visionary, inspirational figures who are consumed with specific ideals and goals and able to engender intense emotions in their followers.[62] Table 4 represents the comparison of transformational and transactional leadership styles.

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[59] Bass, pp. 901

[60] Rajnandini Pillai, "Fairness Perceptions and Trust as Mediators for Transformational and Transactional Leadership: A Two Sample Study", *Journal of Management,* Nov 1999, Retrieved November 26, 2002, from: http://www.findarticles.com/cf-0/m4256/6_25/59014433/p1/article.jhtml

[61] Peter G. Northouse, **Leadership Theory and Practice.** 2nd ed., USA: Sage Publications Inc., 2001, pp.132

[62] James L. Bowditch and Anthony F. Buono, **A Primer on Organizational Behavior.** 2nd ed., USA: John Wiley & Sons, 1990, pp.180

Table 4

Leadership

TRANSFORMATIONAL	TRANSACTIONAL
Builds on the need for meaning.	Builds on need to get the job done and make a living.
Pre-occupied with purposes, values morals and ethics.	Pre-occupied with power and position, politics and perks.
Transcends daily affairs.	Swamped in daily affairs.
Oriented towards long-term goals without compromising human values and principles.	Oriented to short term goals and hard data.
Separates causes and symptoms and works at prevention	Confuses causes and symptoms and is concerned with treatment
Focuses more on missions and strategies for achieving them	Focuses on tactical issues
Makes full use of available resources (human)	Relies on human relations to oil human interactions.
Designs and re-designs jobs to make them meaningful and challenging; realizes human potential	Follows and fulfils role expectations by striving to work effectively within current systems.
Aligns internal structures and systems to reinforce over-arching values and goals	Supports structures and systems that reinforce the bottom line.

Source: Retrieved Mar 10,2003, from www.bgfl.org/services/leaders/files/leadership.pdf

Another way of looking at this comparison is to say that transactional leaders depend on mutual dependence, that is transactional leaders give followers what they want (e.g., rewards) in exchange for what the leaders want (e.g., successful performance of a task). Transformational leaders are less concerned with "exchanges" than with changing the beliefs and values of followers. By expressing their personal standards, transformational leaders are able both to unite followers and to change followers' goals and beliefs and hence the overall direction of the organisation.[63]

1.3.5.1. Transformational Leadership

The term transformational leadership was first coined by Downtown (1973); however its emergence as an important approach to leadership began with a classic work by the political sociologist James MacGregor Burns titled Leadership (1978).[64] He constructed transformational leadership based on a qualitative analysis of the biographies of various political leaders.[65] Along with Downtown (1973), Burns (1978) presented the new paradigm of the transformational as opposed to the transactional leader. The transformational leader asks followers to transcend their own self interests for the good of the group, organization or society; to consider their long-term needs to develop themselves, rather than their needs of the moment and to become more aware of what is really important.[66]

Bass (1985), defines transformational leaders primarily in terms of the leader's effect on the followers. Followers feel trust, admiration, loyalty and respect toward the leader, and they are motivated to do more than they are originally expected to do. A leader can transform followers by: 1- making them more aware of importance and value of task outcomes, 2- inducing them to transcend their own self interest for the sake of the organization or team, and 3- activating their higher order needs.[67]

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[63] Andrew D. Szilagyi Jr. and Marc J. Wallace Jr.,: pp.413
[64] Northouse, pp. 132
[65] Serra Yurtkoru, *" The Role of Leadership in the Organizational Change Process"*, MÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü (Unpublished doctorate thesis), İstanbul 2001, pp.33
[66] Bass, pp.53
[67] Yukl, pp.211

The notion of transformational leadership offers a distinct challenge to managers. It is not enough to possess leadership traits, know the leadership behaviors and understand leadership contingencies. From such foundations of transactional leadership, the manager must also lead in an inspirational way and with a compelling personality. The transformational leader arouses followers to be more highly dedicated, more satisfied with their work, and more willing to put forth extra efforts to achieve success in challenging times.[68] Transformational leadership is closer to the prototype leadership that people have in mind when they describe their ideal leader and is more likely to provide a role model with which subordinates want to identify.[69]

In addition to Bass's work two other lines of research have contributed in unique ways to our understanding the nature of transformational leadership. They are the research of Bennis and Nanus in 1985 and the work of Tichy and Devanna in 1986-1990.[70]

Tichy and Devanna conducted a study of 12 CEO's in a variety of large organisations who must transform and renew these organisations to adopt successfully to a changing and increasingly competitive environment characterized by rapid technological change widespread social and cultural change, intense competition from foreign companies and increasing interdependence among the economies of different nations.[71] Analysis of the interviews led Tichy and Devanna to describe the transformational leadership process as a series of three phases:[72]

- Recognizing the need for change
- Creating a new vision
- Institutionalizing the changes

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[68] Schermerhorn Jr., pp.332

[69] Bass, pp.54

[70] Northouse, pp.141

[71] Yukl, pp.216

[72] Shackleton, , pp.124

Recognizing the Need for Change: There is a tendency for organisations and individuals within organisations to be comfortable with the status quo and to resist change. People want to sustain the present system. As a result the need for change may go unrecognized. Transformational leaders have the responsibility of pointing out to the organisation how the change in the environment could positively or negatively affect how the organisation operates.[73] There are several ways that can assist organisations in increasing their openness to change:[74]

- Leaders encourage dissent and allow people to disagree.
- Leaders encourage objective assessment of how well the organization is meeting its goals.
- Encourage members of the organisation to visit other organisations within and outside the organisation to obtain alternative viewpoints of how other organisations work and solve problems.
- Encourage organisations to assess their performance based on a wide range of economic and noneconomic indicators relative to other companies on these same indicators.

After people recognize the old ways of doing things are no longer effective and major changes are necessary, the next task of the transformational leader is to manage the transition process. This process includes diagnosis of the problem to determine what changes are necessary. A major danger for transformational leaders to avoid is the desire of people for a "quick fix" that will not involve major changes. Another important function of the leader at this stage is to help people deal with the emotional turnoil of rejecting old beliefs and values. It is difficult for people to accept the failure of past decisions and policies. Changes will alter the distribution of power and status in the organisation, threaten some peoples' career opportunities, and require people to

[73] Northouse, pp.143
[74] Shackleton,pp.125

learn new behavior patterns. Transformational leaders help people to accept the need for change without feeling that they are personally responsible for failure.[75]

Creating a New Vision: A vision is general transcendent ideal that represents shared values; it is often ideological in nature and has moral overtones. A vision includes several subcomponents, such as expecting high performance and instilling confidence in the followers' ability to reach the vision.[76] The vision acts as a conceptual road map for where the organisation is headed in the future and what it will look like. For Tichy and DeVanna a vision is constructed not by a single leader but as a result of bringing together the differing viewpoints within an organisation.[77]

A vision may be effective because it (a) arouses followers' needs and values, (b) highly discrepant from the status quo but still within the realm of acceptance and thus challenges followers, or (c) generally directs attention toward desires outcomes and away from undesired or irrelevant aspects of performance.[78]

To be motivating, a vision must be a source of self-esteem and common purpose for members. Transformational leaders may be so driven to achieve a vision that they ignore the costly implications of their goals. Visions fail when,[79]

- The vision reflects the internal needs of the leaders rather than those of the market or constituents.
- The leader has miscalculated the resources needed to achieve the vision.
- The leader has an unrealistic assessment or distorted perception of market and costly turnt needs.
- A failure to recognize environmental changes prevents redirection of the vision.

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[75] Yukl, pp.218
[76] Shelley A. Kirlpatrick and Edwin A.Locke, "*Direct and Indirect Effects of Core Charismatic Leadership Components on Performance and Attitudes*", Journal of Applied Psychology, Vol.81,No.1., 1996, pp.37
[77] Northouse, pp.144
[78] Kirkpatrick and Locke, pp.37
[79] Judith R. Gordon, pp. 242

Institutionalizing Change: Act of institutionalizing change involves seeing that new practices pervade the organisation instead of being limited to a handful of elite managers. The transforming leader enables others to act on the vision and conveys the confidence to meet challenges.[80] In transforming organisations, leaders need to find appropriate followers to implement new ideas. The breaking down of old structures may require that the leader creates new coalitions of employees who will be compatible with the new vision. In some cases, the leader will have to make personnel changes to replace people in key positions with others who have the skills and commitment necessary to implement the changes successfully. According to Tichy and Devanna, the common characteristics of a transformational leader are as below:[81]

- They identify themselves as change agents. Their professional and personal image was to make a difference and transform the organisation that they had assumed responsibility for.
- They are courageous individuals. These are prudent risk takers, individuals who take a stand.
- They believe in people. They are powerful yet sensitive of other people, and ultimately they work toward the empowerment of others.
- They are value driven. Each transformational leader is able to articulate a set of core values and exhibited behavior that was quite congruent with their value positions.
- They are life long learners. A transformational leader is able to talk about mistakes he/she has made without seeing them as failures but learning experiences.

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[80] Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, pp. 485

[81] *Characteristics of Transformational Leaders,* Retrieved, Jan 28, 2004, From, http://leadershipcenter.osu.edu/publications/Leadership_Moments/LM_1999/Characteristics %20of %20Transformational%20Leaders.doc

- They have the ability to deal with complexity, ambiguity and uncertainty. A transformational leader is able to cope with and frame problems in a complex, changing world.

- They are visionaries. The ability to dream, the ability to translate those dreams and images so that other people can share them.

Bennis and Nanus interviewed 90 leaders in USA. Bennis and Nanus (1985), identified common strategies used by leaders in transforming organisations.

First transforming leaders had a clear vision of the future state of their organisations. Bennis and Nanus found that to be successful, the vision needed to grow out of the needs of the entire organisation and be claimed by those within it. Although leaders play a large role in articulating the vision, the emergence of the vision originates from both the leaders and the followers within the organisation.[82]

Second, Transforming leaders created trust in their organisations by making their own positions clearly known. Commitment to the vision is closely related to the follower trust in the leader. It is unlikely that an untrusted leader can successfully achieve commitment to a new vision for the organisation. Trust is dependent on the perceived expertise of the leader, but it also depends on the leader's consistency in statement and actions. Leaders demonstrate commitment to values by their own behavior and by the way they reinforce the behavior of others.[83]

According to Bennis and Nanus, leaders knew their strengths and weaknesses and they emphasized their strengths rather than dewelling on their weaknesses. Bennis and Nanus also found that positive self regard in leaders had a reciprocal impact on followers, creating in them feelings of confidence and high expectations. In addition leaders in the study were committed to learning and re learning. Effective leaders did a number of things to develop their skills and increase the knowledge gained from experience of success and failures.

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[82] Northouse, pp.142
[83] Yukl, pp.222

Bennis as well as other researchers such as Kouzes and Posner also conclude that transformational leadership is a skill that can be learned. One develops leadership skills by learning from the best practices of others and from personal mistakes or setbacks. Researchers Kouzes and Posne focused on what leaders do whenever they are at their personal best and concluded that there are five behavioral practices common to successful leaders:[84]

- They challenge the process. They are willing to take risks to change the status quo. They make mistakes to push innovation.
- They inspire a shared vision. They have a dream – purpose , mission, goal or agenda. They live their lives backwards by starting with a picture in their mind, then enlisting others to share passionately in that vision and make it happen.
- They enable others to act. They focus on "we" to build coalitions and encourage collaboration. They build teams and empower others.
- They model the way. They are clear about their business beliefs. And behave consistently with those beliefs. They show others. Their values by behaving as they expect others to act.
- They encourage the heart. They use celebrations to offer dramatic encouragement and rewards. They show team members they can win and wining is exciting. They love their customers, their product, their people and their work.

1.3.5.1.1. Strengths of and Criticisms on Transformational Approach

Transformational leaders set out to empower followers and nurture them in change. They attempt to raise the consciousness in individuals and to get them to

[84] Cook, Hunsaker and Coffey, pp. 487

transcend their own self –interests for the sake of others. Transformational approach has several strengths.

Transformational leadership has been widely researched from many different perspectives, including a series qualitative studies of prominent leaders and CEO's in large, well- known organisations, and has also been the focal point for a large body of leadership research since its introduction in the 1970's.[85] The people are attracted to transformational leadership because it makes sense to them. It is appealing that a leader will provide a vision for the future. Transformational leadership treats leadership as a process between followers and leaders, places a strong emphasis on followers' needs, values and morals. According to Bass and Avolio, transformational approach provides an expanded picture of leadership that includes not only the exchange of rewards but also leaders' attention to the needs and growth of followers.

Using their charismatic leadership skills, transformational leaders may be most effective when an organisation is new or when survival is threatened.[86] Transformational leadership is not a cure- all for organisations. Despite good intentions "magic" leaders may become sufficiently captivated by their vision of what is best for the organisation that they unintentionally overlook internal and external signals that their vision might not be appropriate.[87] Transformational leaders emotionally manipulate followers and may create visions for their own self-aggrandizement. Such leaders may lack communications and impression management skills. Because people and organisations become dependent on transformational leaders, the danger is that these leaders will surround themselves with "yes people" and thus fail to receive important information that might challenge their vision.[88]

1.3.5.1.2. Transformational Leadership Factors

Factor analytic studies by Bass (1985), Hater and Bass (1988) and Seltzer, Numerof and Bass (1989) have suggested that transformational leadership can be

[85] Northouse, pp. 145
[86] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.376
[87] Bowditch and Buono, pp.212
[88] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp. 378

conceptually organized along four correlated dimensions:[89] charismatic leadership (charisma, idealized influence), inspirational leadership (inspirational motivation), intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration.

1- Charisma- Idealized Influence:

Idealized Influence is behavior that encourages followers to use their leaders as role models. Another term used to describe this form of leadership is charisma.[90] These leaders usually have very high standards of moral and ethical conduct and can be counted on to do the right thing. They are deeply respected by followers, who usually place a great deal of trust in them.[91]

2- Inspirational Motivation

The leader creates a clear picture of the future state that is both optimistic and attainable, encourages others to raise their expectations, reduces complexity to key issues and uses simple language to convey the mission. The reaction of the followers is increased willingness to exert extra effort so as to try to achieve the mission.[92]

Transformational leaders clearly communicate the importance of the company's mission and rely on symbols, (e.g., pins and slogans) to help focus their efforts.[93]

3- Intellectual Stimulation

Encourages followers to question their own way of doing things or to break with the past. Followers are supported for questioning their own values, beliefs, and expectations as well as those of the leader and organization.[94] This type of leadership

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[89] Bass, pp.54
[90] James C. Sarros and Joseph C. Santora, *"The transformational-transactional model in practice"*, **Leadership & Organization Development Journal,** Volume 22, Number 8,2001, pp. 386
[91] Northouse, pp.138
[92] Shackleton, pp.119
[93] Greenberg and Baron, pp.462
[94] Edwin P.Hollander, *"Legitimacy, Power and Influence: A Perspective on Relational Features of Leadership"*, **Leadership Theory and Research Perspectives and Directions,** USA:Academic Press Inc., 1993, pp.52

supports followers as they try new approaches and develop innovative ways of dealing with organizational issues.[95]

Key elements of intellectual stimulation are problem solving ability, creativity and challenging the status quo. These approaches rely on different talents to those associated with individualized consideration (caring) and inspirational motivation (encouraging). Intellectual stimulation (challenging) relies on "though love" to work; in other words the ability to get people to think in different and creative ways.[96]

4- Individualized Consideration

Individualized consideration provides personal attention, treats each employee individually and coaches and advises.[97] The leader is alert to followers' needs, provides challenges and learning opportunities and delegates to raise their skill and confidence. The result is that followers are more likely to be willing to develop competence and take initiative.[98]

1.3.5.1.3. Transformational and Charismatic Leadership

The terms transformational leadership and charismatic leadership refer to the process of influencing major changes in the attitudes and assumptions of organization members and building commitment for the organization's mission or objectives. Transformational leadership is usually defined more broadly than charismatic leadership, but there is considerable overlap between the two conceptions.[99]

Charisma is a Greek word that means divinely inspired gift, such as the ability to perform miracles or predict future events. House (1977) proposed a theory to explain charismatic leadership. The theory is based on findings from a variety of social science disciplines. The theory identifies how charismatic leaders behave, how they differ from

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[95] Northouse, pp.138
[96] Sarros and Santora, pp.387
[97] John R. Schermerhorn Jr, James G. Hunt and Richard N. Osborn, **Managing Organizational Behaviour,** 5th ed., USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1994, pp.514
[98] Shackleton, pp.117
[99] Yukl, pp.204

other people, and the conditions where they are most likely to flourish. The extent to which a leader is charismatic is determined by following indicators: [100]

- Followers' trust in the correctness of the leader's beliefs
- Similarity of followers' beliefs to those of the leader
- Unquestioning acceptance of the leader by followers.
- Followers' affection for the leader
- Willing obedience to the leader by followers.
- Emotional involvement of followers in the mission of the organisation.
- Heightened performance goal of followers
- Belief by followers that they are able to contribute to the success of the group's mission.

House's theory suggests that charismatic leaders have very high levels of referent power and that some of that power comes from their need to influence others. The charismatic leader has extremely high levels of self –confidence, dominance, and a strong conviction in the righteousness of his/her beliefs or at least the ability to convince followers that he or she possesses such confidence and conviction.[101]

Conger and Kanungo developed a model of charismatic leadership, according to which charismatic leadership is an attribution based on follower perceptions of their leader's behavior. Charismatic leaders differ from other leaders by their ability to formulate and articulate an inspirational vision and by behaviors and actions that foster an impression that they and their mission are extraordinary. As such individuals choose

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[100] Yukl, pp 205

[101] James A.F. Stoner, R.Edward Freeman and Daniel R. Gulbert Jr., **Management,** 6th ed. USA:Prentice Hall, 1995, pp. 489

to follow such leaders in management settings not simply because of the leader's formal authority but out of perceptions of their leader's extraordinary character.[102]

Charismatic leaders see their organization's future different from today. To catch the future changes, they maintain their followers to get responsibility by developing them. They create an emotional relationship with their followers and create a trustful environment. They use all the communication channels to introduce their ideas. With their ideas and behaviors, they form models for their followers. However, the most important thing to keep in mind is the followers' understanding and trusting in the leader.[103]

Charisma is not simply a gift or personal trait possessed by some individuals, but more a special type of relationship which exists between leaders and followers. Conditions have to be right for charismatic leadership to develop and flourish. All the available research suggests that the right conditions need to include a combination of traits, leader behaviors, situation and a vision which is shared by the leader and the followers.[104] Charisma alone however is insufficient for changing how an organisation operates. Although the terms charisma and transformational leadership are often used synonymously, Bass separates them, with charisma forming a part of transformational leadership.[105]

Transformational leaders seek to elevate their followers to do "their own thing". In contrast charismatic leaders may keep their followers weak and highly dependent.[106] Charismatic leaders use dominance, self confidence, a need for control and a conviction of moral righteousness to increase their hold over their followers. Transformational leaders rely on their referent and personal sources of power to arouse

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[102] Jay A. Conger, Rabindra N. Kanungo and Sanjay T. Menon, "*CharismaticLeadership and Follower Effects*",Journal of Organisational Behavior, Vol 21, Jun 1999, pp. 748

[103] Suna Tevrüz, İnci Artan and Tülay Bozkurt, **Davranışlarımızdan Seçmeler (Örgütsel Yaklaşım),** İstanbul: Beta Basım Yayım Dağıtım, 1999, pp, 213

[104] Shackleton, pp.112

[105] Julian Barling, Tom Weber and E,Kevin Kelloway, *"Effects of Transformational Leadership Training on Attitudinal and Financial Outcomes: A Field Experiment"*, **Journal of Applied Psychology,** Volume 81, Number 6, Dec. 1996, pp.827

[106] Greenberg and Baron, pp.462

intense feelings and heighten employee motivation. Leaders who use their charismatic ability to inspire others often are called transformational leaders.[107]

1.3.5.2. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership diverges from transformational leadership in that the transactional leader does not individualize the needs of subordinates nor focus on their personal development. Transactional leaders exchange things of value with subordinates to advance their own as well as their subordinates' agenda.[108] Transactional behavior focuses on the accomplishment of tasks and good worker relationships in exchange for desirable rewards. Transactional leadership may encourage the leader to adapt their style and behavior to meet the perceived expectations of the followers.[109]

1.3.5.2.1. Transactional Leadership Factors

Transactional leadership involves daily exchanges between leaders and subordinates and is necessary for achieving routine performance that is agreed upon leaders and subordinates. These exchanges involve contingent rewards and management by exception.

1- Contingent Reward

Involves a positively reinforcing interaction between leader and follower that emphasizes an exchange (e.g. the leader provides appropriate rewards when followers meet agreed on objectives).[110] This is the familiar work-for-reward exchange agreement, where the leader makes clear what tasks must be accomplished in order to obtain desired rewards and provides these rewards only when subordinates perform adequately or put in the necessary effort.[111]

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[107] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.374-375
[108] Northouse, pp.140
[109] *What is "transactional Leadership"?,* Jan2003, Retrieved Mar 10, 2003, From http://www.leadingtoday.org/ Onmag/jan03/transaction12003.html
[110] Hollander, pp.52
[111] Shackleton, pp.115

2- Management by Exception

Leaders who practice management by exception have implicit trust in their workers to finish the job to a satisfactory standard. These leaders do not inspire the workers to achieve beyond expected outcomes.[112] Only when things go wrong will the leader intervene to make some correction.

Management by exception takes two forms: active and passive. A leader using the active form of management- by-exception watches followers closely for mistakes or rule violations and then takes corrective action. A leader using passive form intervenes only after standards have not been met or problems have arisen. In essence, both the active and the passive management by exception types use more negative reinforcement patterns than positive reinforcement pattern described under contingent reward.[113]

1.3.5.3. Absence of Leadership – Laissez- Faire

The major indicator of the laissez faire behavior is the manager's or leader's incapacity to get involved. The leader works intentionally on avoiding involvement or confrontation, keeping personal interactions to a minimum. The leader avoids taking a stand on issues, refrains from intervening, lets others do as they please and is absent, disorganized and indifferent. Follower reactions include conflict with each other about their responsibilities and attempts to usurp the leader's role.[114]

There is a negative association between laissez-faire leadership and a variety of subordinate performance, and effort indicators, which implies that laissez-faire leadership is an inappropriate way to lead. By laissez- faire it is meant that the leader is not sufficiently motivated or adequately skilled to perform supervisory duties, this observation seems correct. However, there are situations in which highly active leadership is not necessary or not even desirable. A less active role of leaders could also lead to empowerment of followers which could even make for a useful component of

[112] Sarros and Santora, pp.389
[113] Northouse, pp. 140-141
[114] Shackleton, pp. 114

transformational leadership.[115] As can be seen in Table 5 the model of transformational and transactional leadership incorporates seven different factors. Peter G. Northouse, has given the original factors that are determined by Bass and Avolio in 1994 in table 5.

Table 5

Leadership Factors

Transformational Leadership	**Transactional Leadership**	**Laissez-Faire Leadership**
Factor 1 Idealised Influence Charisma	**Factor 5** Contingent Reward	**Factor 7** Laissez- faire Nontransactional
Factor 2 Inspirational Motivation	**Factor 6** Management by exception Active & Passive	
Factor 3 Intellectual Stimulation		
Factor 4 Individualised Consideration		

Source: Peter G. Northouse, Leadership Theory and Practice, 2nd ed, USA: Sage Publications, 2001, pp.136

[115] Yurtkoru, s. 41

1.3.5.4. Leadership Instrument

The most widely used measure of transformational leadership is the MLQ. An earlier version of the MLQ was originally developed by Bass (1985), based on a series of interviews he and his associates conducted with 70 senior executives in South Africa. These executives were asked to recall leaders within their experiences who had raised their awareness to broader goals, moved them to higher motives, or inspired them to put other's interests ahead of their own. The executives were then asked to describe how these leaders behaved- what they did to effect change. From these descriptions and from numerous other interviews with both junior and senior executives, Bass constructed the questions that make up the MLQ.[116] The most recent version of the MLQ (Form 5X) developed by Avolio & Bass (1999), is a 36- item questionnaire.

Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (1996) performed 33 independent empirical studies using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ). They concluded that there was a strong positive correlation between all components of transformational leadership and both objective and subjective measures of performance.[117] Also transformational leaders were found to generate higher commitment from followers in numerous studies. The results of the research are consistent with the conclusion that effective leaders emphasize transformational behaviors but also use relevant transactional behaviors.[118]

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[116] Northouse, pp.155
[117] MLQ Brochure, Retrieved April 12, 2004 from, http://mindgarden.com/Documents/MLQ%20Brochure.doc.
[118] Yurtkoru, pp.42.

1.4. Leadership and Follower Effects

Leadership primarily involves influence- that is a leader changes the actions or attitudes of several group members or subordinates. Subordinates consider leadership to be valuable, but leaders become an integral part of an organisation, group or team only after proving their competence and value. Leaders receive their authority from their subordinates because subordinates have accepted them as leaders. To maintain a leadership position, a person must enable others to gain satisfactions that are otherwise beyond their reach. In return they satisfy their leader's need for power and prominence and give the leader the support necessary to reach organizational goals.[119]

Leadership influence of a manager on subordinates is referred to as follower effects. A manager's leadership behavior can influence subordinate's reactions towards the manager as a leader and towards themselves as subordinates and their task efforts.

Previous research has devoted a great deal of attention to the relationship between leadership behavior and its effects on followers in the organisation. Shamir, House and Arthur (1993), reviewed more than 20 studies that found charismatic or transformational leadership to be positively associated with follower's performance, attitudes and perceptions. Another set of 15 studies, reviewed by Bass and Avolio reported equally positive findings.[120] Studies using a wide variety of samples, have shown that transformational leadership is positively related to employee satisfaction and to those in role- behaviors which constitute job performance.

Research shows that leadership has effects on trust. The use of procedurally fair leadership practices affects employees' trust in the supervisor and the organisation itself because the development and use of fair procedures explicitly demonstrates the importance placed on the rights (and duties) of individual employees. Korsgaard (1995), in his research showed that procedural justice played an important mediating role in the relationship between leader consideration and trust in the leader. Bennis and Nanus (1985) suggested a direct relationship between transformational leadership and trust,

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[119] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman, pp.344

[120] Kirkpatrick and Locke, pp.36

since effective transformational leaders earn the trust of their followers. Trust may also be important to transformational leaders because of the need to mobilize follower commitment towards the leader's vision. Thus, it is very unlikely that a leader who is not trusted by his or her followers can successfully achieve commitment to a vision. Although transformational leadership may be an important antecedent of trust, possible consequences of trust include commitment, satisfaction, and citizenship behaviors. Both trust in the leader and the organisation and commitment are necessary for successful attainment of leader's vision. Lagace examined managers and sales people and found that reciprocal trust in the relationship greatly influenced the job satisfaction of the salespersons.[121] Several studies found a positive relationship between leadership and organisational commitment. In the research of Darwish Yousef which was performed in a non-western country, results suggested that those who perceive their superiors as adopting consultative or participative leadership behavior were more committed to their organisations, more satisfied with their jobs, and their performance was high. The results of the research also indicated that national culture moderated the relationship of leadership behavior with job satisfaction.[122]

According to Yukl, transformational leadership increases follower motivation by activating higher needs of followers, appealing to moral ideas, and empowering followers. An important source of insight into the dynamics of transformational leadership is provided by research and theory on organizational culture. The basic assumptions and beliefs shared by members of a group or organisation are learned responses to problems of survival in the external environment and problems of internal integration. Culture is influenced by several aspects of a leader's behavior, including examples set by the leader, what the leader attends to, how the leader reacts to crises, how the leader allocates rewards, and how the leader makes selection, promotion and dismissal decisions.[123]

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[121] Pillai,.pp.10

[122] Darwish A. Yousef, *"Organisational Commitment: a mediator of the relationships of leadership behavior with job satisfaction and performance in a non- western country"*, Journal of Managerial Psychology, Vol 15, Number 1, 2000. pp.9

[123] Yukl, pp.230

The limited number of studies that have investigated the casual relationships between leader behavior and employee satisfaction and performance have suggested that a two-way influence process exists: certain leader behaviors can affect subordinate's behaviors, while certain activities of subordinates can cause the leader to change his or her behavior. The results to date suggest the following:[124]

- Leader employee orientation and leader positive reward behavior can lead to employee job satisfaction.
- High leader task orientation sometimes leads to lower employee job satisfaction.
- Low-performing subordinates tend to cause leaders to use more task orientation and punitive reward behavior.
- High leader positive reward behavior tends to lead to improved subordinate performance.

These and other findings demonstrate the importance of the manager's learning to diagnose various elements in the leadership situation. According to Mescon, Albert and Khedouri; research on the relationship among satisfaction, leadership style and productivity can be summarized considering the autocratic and human relations views as;[125]

- A democratic and employee style does lead to higher satisfaction in many situations.
- A democratic style may lower satisfaction in situations where followers operate on a low need level. Participation does, however tend to have a positive affect on the satisfaction of most people above the blue- collar level. There are also instances where it has proven successful with even relatively unskilled workers.

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[124] Szilagyi Jr. and Wallace Jr., pp.417

[125] Micheal H.Mescon, Michael Albert and Franklin Khedouri, **Management,** 3rd ed,New York: Harper & Row Publishers, 1988, pp. 534

On the other hand, according to some researchers, leadership style will affect the satisfaction of subordinates only if; the style results in increased productivity and if the increased productivity is rewarded which then leads to increased satisfaction.

According to Luthans, it can be said that there are two dimensions of supervisory style that affect job satisfaction. One is employee centerdeness. This is measured by the degree to which a supervisor takes a personal interest in the employee's welfare. It commonly is manifested in ways such as checking to see how well the subordinate is doing , providing advice and assistance to the individual, and communicating with the worker on a personal as well as official level. The other dimension is participation or influence as illustrated by managers who allow their people to participate in decisions that affect their own jobs. In most cases, this approach leads to higher job satisfaction. For example, comprehensive meta analyses concluded that participation does have a positive effect on job satisfaction. A participative climate created by the supervisor has a more substantial effect on worker's satisfaction than does participation in a specific decision.[126]

It has been hypothesized that charismatic leadership produces higher performance levels among followers as well as more motivated and satisfied followers. In a review of empirical investigations of charismatic and transformational leadership, Shamir , found that charismatic leadership was indeed positively correlated with followers' performance and satisfaction. As Shamir , noted the effect size of these studies of the behavior charismatic leaders on follower performance and satisfaction is higher than prior field study findings of other forms of leader behavior, with correlations of 0.50 or better and well below 0.01 probability of error due to chance.[127] Charismatic leaders have dramatic effects on the behavior of their followers. Because these leaders are perceived as being heroic , followers are very pleased with them and this satisfaction generalizes to their perception of the job itself.[128]

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[126] Fred Luthans, **Organisational Behavior,** 6th ed., New York: Mc- Graw Hill Int., 1995, pp 121

[127] Conger, Kanungo and Menon, pp.747

[128] Greenberg and Baron, pp.461.

When the relationship of leader behavior and follower effects are analyzed from the point of transformational and transactional leadership approach; transformational and transactional leadership should not be viewed as opposing approaches to getting things done, however transformational leadership is built on top of transactional leadership. For instance, a number of studies with US., Canadian and German military offices found at every level , that transformational leaders were evaluated as more effective than their transactional counterparts. And managers at Federal Express who were rated by their followers as exhibiting more transformational leadership were evaluated by their immediate supervisors as higher performers and more promotable. In summary according to Robbins, transformational leadership is more strongly correlated than transactional leadership with lower turnover rates, higher productivity and employee satisfaction.[129] According to Bass, a hierarchy of leader-outcome relationships based on survey questionnaire methods and routines has been established in a number of industrial, educational and military settings. Transformational leadership, particularly charismatic leadership , correlates above,70 with the subordinates satisfaction with the leader and the leader's perceived effectiveness. The transactional contingent reward correlates closer to ,40 with these same outcomes. Transactional passive management by exception correlates closer to zero with these outcomes.[130] In one study, researchers gave the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire to teachers in various secondary schools in Singapore and asked them to complete it with their school principals in mind. The more highly transformational the principals were found to be, the more highly satisfied the teachers with their jobs and the more strongly committed they were to their schools.[131]

Bass and Avolio suggest transformational leadership can be thought to individuals at all levels within an organisation and that it can positively affect a firm's performance. It can be used in recruitment, selection, and promotion, and training and

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[129] Stephen P. Robbins, **Organizational Behavior: Concepts, Controversies, Applications,** 7th ed., New York: Prentice Hall, 1996, pp. 439
[130] Bass, pp.903
[131] Greenberg and Baron, pp. 463

development. It can also be used in improving team development, decision making groups, quality initiatives and reorganisations.[132]

As it is mentioned before, leadership behavior has effects on several organizational behaviors like; commitment, trust, performance, satisfaction and it has its effects on the organizational processes like selection and training. In this study, relationship between leadership and employee job satisfaction will be analyzed. Therefore following part of the study will refer firstly to the content of Job Satisfaction.

[132] Northouse, pp.148

2. JOB SATISFACTION

2.1. Definitions

The most popular, single definition of job satisfaction was supplied by Locke (1976), who defined job satisfaction as " a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one's job or job experiences.[133]

Another definition is; job satisfaction is a set of favorable or unfavorable feelings with which employees view the work. There is an important difference between these feelings and two other elements of employee attitudes. Job satisfaction is a feeling of relative pleasure or pain (" I enjoy having a variety of tasks to do"), that differs from objective thoughts ("My work is complex") and behavioral intentions ("I plan to quit this job in three months"). Together the three parts of attitudes help managers understand employee reactions to their jobs and predict the effect on future behavior.[134]

Summarizing, it is appropriate to say job satisfaction is the general attitudes of the employee against his or her job. As mentioned before, the employee's attitudes may be positive or negative. Therefore, it is better to define job satisfaction as "the positive psychological state of employee after his or her job experiences" and job dissatisfaction as " the negative attitudes of employee against his or her job".[135]

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[133] Cooper and Locke, pp.166

[134] Keith Davis, John W. Newstrom, **Human Behavior at Work,** 7th ed., USA: Mc Graw Hill, 1985, pp.109

[135] İlhan Erdoğan, **İşletme Yönetiminde Örgütsel Davranış,** 1. Baskı, İstanbul: İ.Ü. İşletme Fak. Yay., 1996, pp.231

2.2. Sources of Job Satisfaction

When employees join an organisation they bring with them a set of wants, needs, desires and past experiences that combine to form job expectations.[136] The sources of job satisfaction and dissatisfaction vary from person to person. Sources thought to be important for many employees include the challenge of the job, the degree of interest that work holds for the person, the extent of required physical activity, the characteristics of working conditions, the types of rewards available from the organisation (such as the level of pay), the nature of co workers and the like. Table 6, lists work factors that often are related to levels of employee job satisfaction.[137]

Factors forming job satisfaction can be grouped as; personal factors and factors related to work.

2.2.1. Personal Factors

Employee has his own values and beliefs according to his personality. Some employee wants to have independence at his job. Some employees prefer more challenging jobs than others, they are satisfied with the achievement gained from the jobs that others can not do.

Furthermore the work life experience of the employee is another important personal factor determining job satisfaction. New graduates and the employees having little work experience have some unrealistic expectations from their jobs. Meanwhile, recognizing that it is not really possible to promote quickly and the co-workers are not really sympathetic, may create dissatisfaction. A more experienced employee, knows that job satisfaction is a fact related to time, therefore he accepts little dissatisfaction for later satisfaction. Also, it is known that social and family life of the employee is related to his job satisfaction.[138]

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[136] Davis and Newstrom, pp.109
[137] Hellriegel, Slocum Jr. and Woodman,pp.57
[138] Erdoğan, pp. 234-235

Table 6

Effects Of Various Work Factors on Job Satisfaction

Work Factors	Effects
Work Itself	
Challenge	Mentally challenging work that the individual can successfully accomplish is satisfying.
Physical demands	Tiring work is dissatisfying.
Personal Interest	Personally interesting work is satisfying.
Reward Structure	Rewards that are equitable and that provide accurate feedback for performance are satisfying.
Working Conditions	
Physical	Satisfaction depends on the match between working conditions and physical needs.
Goal Attainment	Working conditions that promote goal attainment are satisfying.
Self	High self-esteem is conducive to job satisfaction.
Others in Organisation	Individuals will be satisfied with supervisors, co-workers, or subordinates who help them attain rewards. Also individuals will be more satisfied with colleagues who see things the same way they do.
Organisation and Management	Individuals will be satisfied with organisations that have policies and procedures designed to help them attain rewards. Individuals will be dissatisfied with conflicting roles and/or ambiguous roles imposed by the organisation.
Fringe Benefits	Benefits do not have a strong influence on job satisfaction for most workers.

Source: Don Hellriegel, John W. Slocum Jr., Richard W. Woodman, Organizational Behavior, 7th ed., USA: West Publishing Company, 1995,pp.57

According to researches, patterns of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction have been clearly established in certain groups:[139]

- White-collar personal (e.g., managerial and professional people) tend to be more satisfied than blue- collar personnel (e.g., physical laborers, factory workers)

- Older people generally are more satisfied with their jobs than younger people. Interestingly, however, satisfaction does not increase at an even pace. People become more satisfied with their jobs during their thirties (as they become more successful), level off during their forties (as they become disenchanted) and become more satisfied again during their late fifties (as they resign themselves to their lot in life)

- People who are more experienced on their jobs are more highly satisfied than those who are less experienced. This should not be surprising because people who are highly dissatisfied with their jobs may be expected to find new ones when they can. Moreover, the longer someone stays on a job, the more strongly that employee rationalizes his or her tenure by perceiving the job in a positive light.

- Women and members of minority groups tend to be more dissatisfied with their jobs than men and members of majority groups. This appears to result from the tendency for victims of discrimination to be channeled into lower level jobs and positions with limited opportunities for advancement.

2.2.2. Factors Related to Work

Work itself, social and economic benefits and working conditions are important factors affecting job satisfaction. These factors can be changed by the manager to increase job satisfaction of the employee. Furthermore , these factors are not

[139] Greenberg and Baron, pp.171

personal they are social and they can be analyzed, measured and compared with other jobs.[140]

How the work is seen by the society is an important factor affecting job satisfaction. Also the structure of the work is an important factor determining job satisfaction. Interesting jobs, giving employee the chance of development and responsibility are sources of satisfaction. People have the desire for achievement. Therefore challenging jobs, if they bring success and this is recognized by the society, are satisfying. Employee should work at a position appropriate for his talents and qualities. Otherwise the employee will not be successful and this will bring dissatisfaction.

Researches on job satisfaction, points out payment policies as the basic factor of job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. People with higher level occupations tend to be more satisfied with their jobs. They usually are better-paid and have better working conditions and their jobs make fuller use of their abilities. Therefore they have good reason to be more satisfied.[141] Employees want the policies of payment to be just and similar with their expectations. If there is equal payment then the attitudes of the employee towards his job will be positive. Equal and just reward and promotion policies are also important in determining satisfaction.

Co- workers also affect job satisfaction of the individual. With the support of his collegeaus employee will be more motivated.

Edwin Locke, summarizes seven key factors contributing to job satisfaction:[142]

1- Mentally challenging work with which the individual can cope successfully.

2- Personal interest in the work itself.

3- Work which is not physically tiring.

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[140] Erdoğan, pp. 236
[141] Davis and Newstrom, pp.114
[142] Stephen E.Cott, Donald S. Miller, **Supervision Working With People,** 2nd ed., USA: Irwin, 1991,pp.164

4- Rewards for performance which are just, informative and in line with the individual's personal aspirations.

5- Working conditions which are compatible with the individual's physical needs and which facilitate the accomplishment of his or her work goals.

6- High self- esteem on the part of the employee.

7- Agents in the work place who help the employee to attain job values such as interesting work, pay and promotions, whose basic values are similar to his own, and who minimize role conflict and ambiguity.

2.3. Consequences of Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction has been correlated with many outcome variables such as life satisfaction, performance, absenteeism and turnover.

2.3.1. Life Satisfaction and Job Satisfaction

Researchers have speculated that there are three possible forms of the relationship between job and life satisfaction: 1) spillover, where job experiences spill over into the life and vice- versa 2) segmentation where job and life experiences are balkanized and have little to do with one another and 3) compensation where an individual seeks to compensate for a dissatisfying job by seeking fulfillment and hapiness in his or her non- work life, and vice- versa.[143]

As a matter of fact, a person's self concept can be influenced by the type of job he or she has. That is if we have an important and prestigious job, we will generally feel better about ourselves than if we are employed in a very low- level job. Furthermore research studies find that job satisfaction has a spillover effect on employees satisfaction with life. For example, in one four-year study, approximately 1000 workers were interviewed about their job satisfaction. Interestingly, the study

[143] Cooper and Locke, pp.174

found "that workers who are more rather than less satisfied with supervision, pay and promotion also are more satisfied with life.[144]

2.3.2. Performance and Job Satisfaction

The relationship between job satisfaction and performance has an interesting history. The Hawthorne studies are credited with making researchers aware of the effect of attitudes on performance. Shortly after the Hawthorne studies, researchers began taking a critical look at the hypothesis that a happy worker is productive one.[145] In the 1950's, two major literature reviews showed that in most studies only a slight relationship had been found between satisfaction and performance. A later review by Vroom (1964) also showed that studies had not found a strong relationship between satisfaction and performance: in fact, most studies had found a very low positive relationship between the two. In other word, better performers did seem to be slightly more satisfied than poor performers. A considerable amount of recent work suggests that the slight existing relationship is probably due to better performance indirectly causing satisfaction rather than the reverse.[146]

Greene (1972), identified three essentially distinct positions regarding the relationship between satisfaction and performance: (a) satisfaction causes performance, (b) performance causes satisfaction, (c) rewards as a casual factor.[147] Acceptance of the satisfaction- causes- performance proposition makes sense a solution, particularly because it represents the path of least resistance in that the manager, by not making rewards contingent on performance, avoids the problems associated with creating dissatisfaction among low performing subordinates. Further most modern managers view both high satisfaction and high performance as desirable outcomes- both are "good" and therefore ought to be related to one another.

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[144] Cott and Miller, pp. 161
[145] Cooper and Locke, pp.174
[146] Edward E. Lawler, "*Satisfaction and Behavior*",**Motivation and Work Behavior,** 2nd ed. Mc Grraw Hill Series, 1979,pp. 296
[147] Charles N. Greene, Robert E. Craft Jr., *The Satisfaction- Performance Controversy- Revisited*", **Motivation and Work Behavior,** 2nd ed. Mc Grraw Hill Series, 1979,pp. 270

Represented by the work of Porter and Lawler (1968) posits that satisfaction, rather than being a cause, is an effect of performance; that is, performance causes satisfaction. Differential performance determines rewards, that in turn, produce variation in employees expressions of job satisfaction.

According to the third view, any apparent relationship between job satisfaction and performance may stem from being related to a third factor: receipt of various reward. Some scientists suggest the relationship works as follows: past levels of performance lead to the receipt of both extrinsic rewards (e.g. pay, promotions) and intrinsic rewards (e.g., feelings of accomplishment). If employees judge these rewards to be fair, they eventually may recognize a link between their performance and these outcomes. In turn, this may have two effects, First, it may lead to high levels of effort and thus, good performance. Second, it may lead to high levels of job satisfaction. In short, high productivity and high satisfaction both may stem from the same conditions; however these two factors themselves may not be directly linked. Thus, job satisfaction may not relate directly to performance in many contexts.[148]

2.3.3. Withdrawal Behaviors and Job Satisfaction

When employees are dissatisfied with their jobs, they find ways of reducing their exposure to them. In other words they stay away from their jobs, which is a phenomenon known as employee withdrawal. Two main forms of employee withdrawal are absenteeism and voluntary turnover.

As might be expected, higher job satisfaction is associated with lower employee turnover, which is the proportion of employees leaving an organisation. Employee turnover is costly. In addition to the direct and indirect costs to the organisation of replacing workers, the employees who remain may suffer decreased satisfaction from the loss of valued coworkers and the disruption of established social patterns.[149] Researchers have found negative relationship between job satisfaction and turnover but job satisfaction is not the only variable effecting employee turnover. Work

[148] Greenberg and Baron, pp.178
[149] Davis and Newstrom, pp.112

conditions, other job opportunities, and the employee's position in the company will also affect turnover.[150]

The less people are satisfied with their jobs, the more likely they are to be absent. The strength of this relationship , however is only modest. Job dissatisfaction is likely to be just one of many factors influencing people's decisions to report or not to report for work. For example even people who really dislike their jobs may not be absent if they believe their presence is necessary to complete an important project. Other employees, however might dislike their jobs so much they will show no concern how the company is affected. Thus, absenteeism, though not a perfectly reliable reaction to job dissatisfaction, is one of its most important consequences.[151]

Certainly, low job satisfaction is not the only reason employees may be absent or resign from a job. However, considering the high cost of absenteeism and turnover, the research findings on job satisfaction should be of interest to supervisors.

2.3.4. Mental and Physical Health and Job Satisfaction

Several studies have provided evidence to indicate that workers who are dissatisfied with their jobs are prone to physical ailments ranging from headaches to heart disease. Most individuals have noticed that when they must perform tasks they do not enjoy, they sometimes become irritable and short- tempered. On the other hand, people generally experience a sense of accomplishment and worth when performing a job they find satisfying. Research findings appear to indicate that more satisfied employees do tend to be psychologically healthier.[152]

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[150] Erdoğan, pp.252
[151] Greenberg and Baron, pp. 177
[152] Cott and Miller, pp. 161

2.4. Promoting Job Satisfaction

Supervisors need to realise that when trying to improve the job satisfaction of subordinates, it is the little things that often count. The greater the number and severity of irritants, the lower an employee's job satisfaction level. Employees progress through three stages in response to these irritants: *the acceptance stage*; employees view irritants on the job as normal, not as the result of uncaring management. *Tolerance stage,* where they begin to question the supervisor's competence, sincerity and willingness to correct problems. Employees begin to complain to each other about the problems that exist and the supervisor's slowness in dealing with them. *Rejection stage;* where employees job satisfaction is minimal. They believe management does not care, is incompetent or both. As a result dissatisfied employees may seek employment elsewhere or put in only a minimum amount of work. Supervisors should not wait until things have deteriorated so badly that subordinates reach the rejection stage. [153] An employee's dissatisfaction might not account for all aspects of his or her performance, but it is important to promote satisfaction- if for no other reason than to make people happy. Following can be done to promote job satisfaction:[154]

- Make jobs fun. People are more satisfied with jobs they enjoy doing than with those they find dull and boring. Some jobs are intrinsically boring , but some level of fun can be infused into almost any job.

- Pay people fairly. People who believe their organisation's pay system is inherently unfair tend to be dissatisfied with their jobs. This applies not only to salary but to fringe benefits as well. In fact, when people can select the fringe benefits they most desire, their job satisfaction tends to rise.

- Match people to jobs that fit their interests. People have many interests, which only sometimes are satisfied on the job. The more people find they can fulfill their interests on the job, however, the more satisfied they are with those jobs.

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[153] Cott and Miller, pp. 169
[154] Greenberg and Baron, pp. 179

- Avoid boring, repetitive jobs. Most people find little satisfaction in highly boring, repetitive jobs. In keeping with two-factor theory, people are far more interested in jobs that allow them to succeed by taking control over how they do things.

2.5. Job Satisfaction and Motivation Theories

Edward E Lawler III, a researcher , educator and consultant has examined the relationship between motivation and satisfaction because some managers may think these terms are similar if not synonymous. Lawler thinks they are infact very different. Motivation is influenced by forward- looking perceptions concerning the relationship between performance and rewards, while satisfaction refers to people's feelings about the rewards they have received. Thus satisfaction is a consequence of past events while motivation is a consequence of their expectations about the future.[155]

Factors affecting motivation can be understood only by analyzing people's behaviors. Therefore it is necessary for managers to analyze their employee's behavior and then develop models and applications to motivate them. Motivation integrates with leadership. In many conditions, effective leadership affects motivation of the personnel. Therefore, motivation is an important subject that managers should work on.[156]

Five ways of explaining behavior- instincts, needs, rewards, cognitions and job characteristics- underlie the evolution of modern theories of human motivation. These theories fall into one of two categories, content and process theories. Content theories (need theories) of motivation focus on internal factors such as instincts, needs and satisfaction that are said to energise purposeful behavior. Process theories of motivation, on the other hand, explain how behavior is given purpose and direction through person-environment interaction. Rewards, cognitions and job characteristics fall into this

[155] Hersey, Blanchard and Johnson, pp. 72
[156] Tamer Koçel, **İşletme Yöneticiliği Yönetici Geliştirme, Organizasyon ve Davranış,** 4.baskı, İstanbul Üniversitesi İşletme Fakültesi, 1993, pp. 369

second category. Content theories of motivation tend to be static and relatively simple, whereas process theories are dynamic and more complex.[157]

2.5.1. Need Theories

Some people work to satisfy their needs, which represent perceived deficiencies in their basic requirements for living and working productively. For example, some employees work to make money to meet their basic survival needs. Others work to satisfy their need for social interaction. Managers may motivate workers by helping them meet their particular needs.[158]

Need theory has a long standing tradition in motivation research and practice. As the term suggests, need theory focuses on what people require to live fulfilling lives. In practice, need theory deals with the part work plays in meeting such needs. According to need theory, a person is motivated when he or she has not yet attained certain levels of satisfaction with his or her life. A satisfied need is not a motivator. There are various need theories, which differ regarding what those levels are and when satisfaction is actually reached.[159]

2.5.1.1. Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs

One of the most well known and appealing motivation models is Abraham H. Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Maslow's need hierarchy theory postulates that people in the workplace are motivated to perform by a desire to satisfy a set of internal needs. Maslow's framework is based on three fundamental assumptions:[160]

1. People are wanting beings whose needs can influence their behavior. Only unsatisfied needs can influence behavior, satisfied needs do not act as motivators.

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[157] Kreitner and Knicki, pp.147
[158] Gordon, pp.88
[159] Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert Jr., pp.447
[160] Szilagyi and Wallace, Jr., pp. 96

2. A person's needs are arranged in an order of importance, or hierarchy, from the basic (e.g., food and shelter) to the complex (e.g. ego and achievement)

3. The person advances to the next level of the hierarchy, or from basic to complex needs, only when the lower need is at least minimally satisfied. That is, the individual worker will focus on satisfying a need for safe working conditions before motivated behavior is directed toward satisfying a need for successfully accomplishing a task.

Maslow proposed five classifications of needs, which represent the order of importance to the individual:1) physiological 2) safety and security 3) social and belonging 4) ego, status and esteem 5) self actualization.

Maslow identifies three lower order needs. First the physiological needs are considered the most basic concerns. They consist of need for food, water and like. At work place such needs are represented by concern for salary and basic working conditions. Individuals try to satisfy these before turning to the next level of safety and security needs, which involve such things as security protection and stability. In the workplace individuals would view these needs, in terms of such factors as safe working conditions, salary increases, job security and acceptable level of fringe benefits to provide for health, protection and retirement needs. The social needs consist of a sense of belonging and a need for affiliation. In organisations, such needs are expressed as a concern for interacting frequently with fellow workers, employee-centered supervision, and acceptance by others. Once the physiological and safety needs are satisfied, the need for relationships and belonging is activated. The kinds of work teams emphasized in total quality management and other high-performance systems are one means of satisfying needs.

The higher order needs differ significantly from lower order ones. The esteem needs are for both self-respect and for reputation and recognition in the eyes of others. They are the first to come into play once lower order needs are satisfied. Next come the self actualization needs , the highest level in Maslow's hierarchy, consisting of the

desire to achieve self –fulfillment through the creative and full use of one's talents.[161] Self actualizing people have the following characteristics:[162]

- Have better perceptions of reality and are comfortable with it.
- Accept themselves and their own natures.
- They lack artificiality
- They focus on problems outside themselves and are concerned with basic issues and eternal questions.
- They like privacy and tend to be detached.
- Rely on their own development and continued growth.
- Appreciate the basic pleasures of life (do not take blessings for granted)
- Have deep feeling of kinship with others.
- Are deeply democratic and are really aware of differences.
- Have strong ethical and moral standards.
- Are original and inventive, less constricted and fresher than others.

Since its development, a number of research have been conducted on the need hierarchy theory in organisations. From the standpoint of needs in motivation and satisfaction, a number of interesting results have been reported. For example, upper-level managers place less emphasis on safety needs and more importance on higher order needs than do lower level managers.[163] It is clear, of course, that different individuals will be at different places in the hierarchy and that the same person may be at different times. Moreover many people may wish to fulfill their higher-level needs

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[161] Shermerhorn Jr, Hunt and Osborn ,pp.89,

[162] Donald Clark, *"Big Dog's Leadership- Human Behavior" (1997),* Retrieved Dec 23, 1999, From http://www.nwlink.com/~donclark/leader/leadhb.html

[163] Szilagyi Jr. and Wallace Jr., pp.98

outside the workplace. All individuals, therefore cannot be motivated in the same way. In this sense, Maslow's theory emphasizes a contingency approach to motivation in that managers and organisations should be flexible and able to tailor incentives to individual employees if they desire to maximize employee contributions. This strategy can be quite time consuming and difficult in practice. Moreover, to fully tap motivational potential, managers must be able to relate to the needs of the employees involved and not just their own needs or assumptions.[164]

2.5.1.2. Alderfer's ERG Theory

Dissatisfied with Maslow's need theory, Clayton Alderfer developed an alternative theory of human needs in the late 1960's. Alderfer's theory differs from Maslow's in three major respects. First, a smaller set of core needs is used to explain behavior. From lowest to highest level they are: existence needs (E), relatedness needs (R), and growth needs (G).In addition ERG theory does not assume needs are related to eachother in a prepotent or stairstep hierarchy.[165] Alderfer stressed that when higher needs are frustrated, lower needs will return, even though they were already satisfied. Maslow in contrast felt that a need, once met, lost its power to motivate behavior. Where Maslow saw people moving steadily up the hierarchy of needs, Alderfer saw people moving up and down the hierarchy of needs from time to time and from situation to situation.[166]

Existence needs are all the various forms of physiological and material needs and desires such as hunger, thirst and shelter. This category is comparable to Maslow's physiological and certain safety needs.

Relatedness needs include all those that involve interpersonal relationships with others in the workplace. This type of need in individuals depends on the process of sharing feelings with others to attain satisfaction. This need category is similar to Maslow's safety , social and certain esteem needs.

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[164] Bowditch and Buono, pp. 56
[165] Kreitner and Knicki, pp. 155
[166] Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert Jr., pp. 450

Growth needs are all those needs that involve a person's efforts toward creative or personal growth on the job. Maslow's self actualization and certain of his esteem needs are comparable to growth needs.

Even though additional research is needed to shed more light on its validity the supporting evidence on ERG theory is encouraging. In particular the allowance in the theory for regression back to lower level needs is a valuable contribution to our thinking. It may help to explain why in some settings, for example, the focus of workers' complaints is primarily on wages, benefits and conditions of work – things relating to existence needs. Although these are certainly important, their concerns may be exaggerated because of the inability of the worker's jobs to otherwise satisfy relatedness and growth needs. ERG theory thus offers a more flexible approach to understanding human needs than does Maslow's strict hierarchy.

2.5.1.3. Mc Clelland's Needs Theory

In the late 1940's psychologist David I. Mc Clelland and his coworkers began experimenting with the Thematic Apperception Test (TAT) as a way of measuring human needs. The TAT is projective technique that asks people to view pictures and write stories about what they see. Mc Clelland identified three themes in such TAT stories, with each corresponding to underlying need that he believe is important for understanding individual behavior: Need for achievement, need for affiliation and need for power.[167]

Need for achievement concerns issues of excellence, competition, challenging goals, persistence and overcoming difficulties. A person with a high need for achievement is one who seeks excellence in performance, enjoys difficult and challenging goals, and is preserving and competitive in work activities. Mc Clleland found that people with a high need for achievement perform better than those with a moderate or low need for achievement. Individuals with a high need for achievement have three unique characteristics. First, they set moderately difficult goals, yet ones that

[167] Shermerhorn Jr, Hunt and Osborn, pp. 90

are achievable because they want both challenge and a good chance for success. Second, they like to receive feedback on their progress toward these goals. Third they do not like external events or other people interfere with their progress toward the goals. High achievers often hope and plan for success. People with moderate and low needs for achievement will be satisfied with less challenging goals, lower levels of excellence and less persistence in the fact of difficulty.[168]

Need for affiliation is concerned with establishing and maintaining warm, close, intimate relationships with other people. People with a high need for affiliation are motivated to express their emotions and feelings to others. While expecting other people to do the same in return. Need for affiliation resembles Maslow's belongingness need and Alderfer's relatedness need. It describes the need for social interaction, love and affection.[169]

Need for power is concerned with making an impact on others, the desire to influence others, to urge to change people or events, and the desire to make a difference in life. People with a high need for power are people who like to be in control of people and events. A high need for power was one distinguishing characteristics of managers rated the best in Mc Clelland's research. Specifically, the best managers had a very high need for socialized power, used for the collective well being of the group , as opposed to personalized power. These managers are concerned for others have an interest in organisation's larger goals; and have a desire to be useful to larger group, organisation and society. This need can be related to how people deal with failure and success. Fear of failure and an erosion of one's power can be a strong motivator for some people.

From the perspective of the manager, this theory means: if the needs of the personnel can be determined, recruitment and selection systems can be developed according to these needs. Therefore, an employee with a high achievement need can be recruited and selected for a job that can provide the satisfaction for this need. Employee

[168] Nelson and Quick, pp.152
[169] Gordon, pp. 91

will put his effort, knowledge and talent for the job, because he finds the chance for motivation and satisfaction.[170]

2.5.1.4. Herzberg's Motivator- Hygiene Theory

Frederick Herzberg, a widely known behavioral scientist, developed the motivator- hygiene theory during the late 1950's. Based on his studies of the relationship between job attitudes and work performance, Herzberg proposed that motivation is a direct offshoot of job satisfaction. This satisfaction- motivation linkage has supporters and detractors. Still, Herzberg's theory provides valuable insights about work motivation.[171]

The original research used in developing the theory was conducted with 200 accountants and engineers using the critical- incident method for data collection. The interviewers began by asking the engineers and accountants to recall a time when they had felt exceptionally good about their jobs. Keeping in mind the time that had brought about the good feelings, the interviewers proceeded to probe for the reasons why the engineers and accountants felt as they did.[172] Interviewees were also asked, among other things, how their feelings of satisfaction or dissatisfaction affected their work performance, personal relationships and well being. Content analysis of the interviews suggested that certain job characteristics led to job satisfaction, while different job characteristics led to job dissatisfaction. For instance, job achievement was related to satisfaction while working conditions were related to job dissatisfaction. Poor conditions led to dissatisfaction, but good conditions did not necessarily lead to satisfaction. Thus satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not simple opposites. Hence a two- factor theory of satisfaction is needed.[173]

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[170] Koçel, pp.376
[171] Kreitner and Knicki, pp. 161
[172] Frederick Herzberg, **Work and the Nature of Man,** 4th ed., Great Britain: Granada Publishing Limited, 1974, pp. 71
[173] Fred Luthans,**Contemporary Readings in Organisational Behavior,** USA: Mc Graw Hill, 1972, pp.242

The Herzberg research resulted in two conclusions:[174]

1. There is a set of extrinsic job conditions that, when not present, result in dissatisfaction among employees. If these conditions are present, their presence does not necessarily motivate employees. These conditions are the dissatisfiers or hygiene factors, because they are needed to maintain at least a level of no dissatisfaction. These factors, related to the context of the job and called dissatisfiers, include the following:

a) Job security, b) Salary, c) Working conditions, d) Status,

e) Company policies

f) Quality of technical supervision

g) Quality of interpersonal relations among peers, supervisors and subordinates

h) Fringe benefits

2. A set of intrinsic job conditions exist that help build levels of motivation, which can result in good job performance. If these conditions are not present, they do not result in dissatisfaction. These aspects, related to job content and called satisfiers include the following:

a) Achievement, b) Recognition, c) Work itself, d) Responsibility

e) Advancement, f) Personal growth and development

The absence of hygiene factors from the workplace leads to high levels of dissatisfaction, their presence creates a state of "zero dissatisfaction or neutrality. By themselves hygiene factors do not motivate individuals to better performance. The motivators or satisfiers are the job content factors that motivate people to perform. Thus the opposite of job satisfaction, would not be the job dissatisfaction but rather no job

[174] Szilagyi Jr and Wallace Jr., pp.101

satisfaction, similarly the opposite of job dissatisfaction is no job dissatisfaction, not satisfaction with one's' job.[175]

2.5.2. Process Theories

The various need theories emphasize the " what" aspects of motivation; they tend to look for ways to improve motivation by dealing with activated or deprived needs. They do not delve formally into the thought processes through which people choose one action versus another in the workplace. For answers to these more " why" and "how" questions, the process theories must be turned to.

2.5.2.1. Equity Theory

Equity theory is based on the phenomenon of social comparison and is best applied to the workplace through the writing of J. Stacy Adams. He argues that when people gauge the fairness of their work outcomes relative to others, any perceived equity is a motivating state of mind. This occurs whenever someone believes that the rewards received for their work contributions compare unfavorably to the rewards other people appear to have received for theirs. The equity comparison in a work situation can be described as:

Personal rewards		Other's rewards
———————	*equity comparison*	———————
Personal Contributions		Other's contributions

Figure 6. Equity Comparison In a Work Situation

Source: John R. Schermerhorn Jr, James G. Hunt and Richard N. Osborn, Managing Organizational Behavior, 5th ed., USA: John Wiley & Sons Inc., 1994,pp.92

There are a number of behavioral patterns that an individual can follow to reduce an inequitable situation. First, when inequity is caused by a lower outcome/ input ratio for the focal person (underpayment), this person may attempt to improve the

[175] Herzberg, pp. 76

outcome. For example, an employee who believes that he or she is being paid less than another worker for comparable inputs could ask for an adjustment in income, such as a cost of living or pay scale rate adjustment. Another mechanism may be to decrease an input by reducing productivity or increasing time off from the job. A third possible mechanism is for the focal person to change his or her reference person to bring about a more realistic comparison. When inequity is caused by the focal person's ratio of outcomes, inputs being greater than the reference person's (overpayment), the individual will be motivated to remove this inequity by decreasing outcomes or more probably increasing inputs.[176]

Most discussion and research on equity theory focuses on money as the most significant reward in the workplace. The research is most conclusive in respect to felt negative inequity. It appears that people are less comfortable when they are underrewarded than when they are overrewarded. Such results however are particularly tied to individualistic cultures where self- interests tend to govern social comparisons.

Equity theory suggests how very important it is that managers get to know their employees and recognize that jobs are done in the context of human relationship. Managers can diagnose and then reduce inequalities in the workplace by identifying workers inputs outputs and comparison others. Managers can then check that perceived comparability exists among workers. They can also encourage employees to make equity judgements on the basis of accurate information.[177]

2.5.2.2. Expectancy Theory

According to expectancy theory, people choose how to behave from among alternative courses of action, based on their expectations of what there is to gain from each action. David Nadler and Edward Lawler describe four assumptions about behavior in organisations on which the expectancy approach is based:[178]

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[176] Szilagyi Jr and Wallace Jr., pp.130
[177] Gordon, pp. 96
[178] Stoner, Freeman and Gilbert Jr., pp. 456

- Behavior is determined by a combination of factors in the individual and factors in the environment.
- Individuals make conscious decisions about their behavior in the organisation.
- Individuals have different needs, desires and goals.
- Individuals decide between alternative behaviors on the basis of expectations that a given behavior will lead to desire outcome.

Expectancy theories include three basic elements: expectancy, instrumentality and valance.

Expectancy refers to an individual's perception that his effort will result in performance, such as higher productivity or increased sales. Expectancy would equal 0 if the person felt it were impossible to achieve the given performance level; it would equal 1 if a person were 100 percent certain that the performance could be achieved.

Instrumentality refers to a person's perception that performance will result in certain positive or negative outcomes, such as promotion, increased wages, greater fatigue, or interpersonal isolation. Instrumentality also varies from 0 to 1.

Valence, refers to the value the person attaches to various outcomes that result. She may assign a positive valence to a promotion but a negative valence to fatigue. Valences form a scale from –1 (very undesirable outcome) to +1 (very desirable outcome.[179]

Victor Vroom popularized this theory in the 1960s.In his model,

Motivation = Expectancy X Instrumentality X Valence

[179] Gordon, pp.99

For motivation to be at a high level, valence, instrumentality and expectancy must each be high. Whenever one or more factors is low, the resultant motivation is also low.

Since Vroom's initial model, expectancy theory has undergone several modifications. First the theory was extended by making a distinction between extrinsic outcomes (e.g., pay and promotion) and intrinsic outcomes (e.g., recognition, achievement and personal development). Extrinsic valences are outcomes that come to the individual from others because of his or her performance; intrinsic valences are associated with the job itself.

A further distinction was made between two types of expectancies. Expectancy I is concerned with the perceived relationship between effort expended and first- order outcomes, such as performance or work- goal accomplishment. Expectancy II is similar to Vroom's concept of instrumentality is concerned with the relationship between first level outcomes (e.g., performance), and second-level outcomes or rewards (e.g., pay, recognition or achievement). Finally the theory was extended to include the variable of work related satisfaction. According to the new model, satisfaction is a function of actual performance and the real rewards gained from that performance.[180]

Lowler and Porter has done several additions to Vroom's model of expectancy. The first part of the model is the same with Vroom's. Person's motivation degree is affected by valence and expectancy. Meanwhile, according to Lowler and Porter high effort of a person is not automatically ended with a high performance. There are two new intervening variables. One of them is the necessary knowledge and talent of the person. If the person lacks this knowledge and talent , he or she will not be able to show performance, how much effort he or she spends. The other variable is related with the role that the person perceives for himself. Every member of the organisation must have an appropriate role to perform effectively. Performance according to; effort, Knowledge and talent and perceived role variables will be rewarded either by an intrinsic or an extrinsic reward. Additional to Vroom's model, each person comes to an

[180] Szilagyi Jr. and Wallace Jr , pp. 127-128

idea how their performance should be rewarded. If the received reward is less than the perceived one the person will not be satisfied. Therefore the expectancy of the person will be affected. [181]

The main implications which can be drawn from expectancy theory are:[182]

1. Rewards or other outcomes to motivate people must be desired by those individuals. Managers must therefore try to identify valent outcomes rather than simply assuming that they know exactly what their employees want or attributing their needs or desires to others.

2. If employees are to be motivated, they must perceive that differences in actual performance will result in differences in (valent) rewards or outcomes. Unless organizational reward systems can provide sufficient flexibility in the ways in which people are rewarded and this is followed through, the link between high performance and obtaining goals will be undermined.

3. Employees must also perceive that their effort will result in good performance. Properly training employees for their jobs, clarifying managerial expectations concerning "good" performance, and attempting to increase and individual's level of self- confidence or feeling of competency are some of the ways in which this effort- performance link can be strengthened.

[181] Koçel, pp.382
[182] Bowditch and Buono, pp. 61

2.5.2.3. Reinforcement Theory

Reinforcement Theory, associated with the psychologist B. F. Skinner and others shows how the consequences of past behavior affect future actions in a eyelical learning process. This process may be expressed as follows:

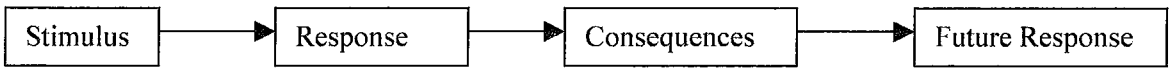

Figure 7. Reinforcement Process

Source: James A.F. Stoner, R.Edward Freeman and Daniel R. Gulbert Jr., **Management,** 6th ed. USA:Prentice Hall, 1995, pp. 458

On this view, the individual's own voluntary behavior (response) to a situation or event (stimulus) is the cause of specific consequences. If those consequences are positive the individual will in the future tend to have similar responses in similar situations. If those consequences are unpleasant, the individual will tend to change his or her behavior in order to avoid them.

Reinforcement approach to the concept of learning, based largely on the works of Skinner is, operant conditioning. Although there is no single theory of operant conditioning, there is a set of fundamental ideas and principles. First there is an emphasis on objective, measurable behavior. The focus of attention is on the behavior itself which can be observed and measured. Second a process known as contingencies of reinforcement is stressed. Stated simply, if "in a given work situation (stimulus),an individual acts in a way desired by the organisation (response), then the reward (consequence of behavior) should match the behavior. Third, the shorter the time interval, or reinforcement schedule, between the employee's response (performance) and the administration of the reinforcer (reward or consequence), the greater effect the reinforcer will have on behavior. The fourth and final principle concerns the value and

size of the reinforcer. The greater the reinforcer's value to the individual, the greater the effect on subsequent behavior.[183]

Reinforcement techniques can either encourage or eliminate the desired behavior by applying or removing reinforcers. Managers can choose among positive reinforcement, negative reinforcement, extinction or punishment. Where Positive reinforcement is giving rewards or feedback when the desired behavior occurs. Negative reinforcement, encourages a person to avoid undesirable consequences and removes the person from an undesirable situation when the desired behavior occurs. Extinction eliminates, behavior by with holding positive reinforcement. Punishment eliminates an undesirable behavior by following the undesirable behavior with a negative event.[184]

Researches on Organizational Behavior Modification shows that punishment is not as effective as rewards and positive reinforcement. Therefore it is suggested that positive reinforcement should be used in the behavior modification.[185]

2.5.2.4. Goal Setting Theory

Edwin Locke (1976) argued that the individuals' values would determine what satisfied them on the job. Only the unfulfilled job values that were valued by the individual would be dissatisfying.[186]

Goal setting theory focuses on the process of setting goals themselves. Edwin Locke, describes the relationship between conscious goals and task performance. The basic premise of the approach is that an employee's conscious goals influence his or her work behavior. Stated simply, difficult goals result in a higher level of performance than do easy goals, and specific difficult goals result in a higher level of performance than do no goals.[187]

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[183] Szilagyi Jr. and Wallace Jr., pp. 134-135
[184] Gordon, pp. 97
[185] Koçel, pp. 379
[186] Cooper and Locke, pp.168
[187] Szilagyi Jr. and Wallace Jr., pp. 142

Effective motivation may require establishing an array of goals at all levels of the organisation. Performance depends on employees' ability, acceptance of goals, level of the goals and the interaction of the goal with their ability. Feedback must accompany goal setting because workers need information about their effectiveness in meeting their goals as part of continuing to work toward them. [188]Studies of setting multiple goals suggest that accomplishment of one results in some sacrifice of a second, reflecting the limited cognitive capacity of people. In very complex jobs, however, goal setting may not be feasible because the job may require setting too many goals.

2.6. Measuring Job Satisfaction

People have many different attitudes toward various aspects of their jobs, but these are not as easy as it is thought. An attitude can not be directly observed so we must rely on what people tell us to determine their attitudes. Researchers have worked to develop reliable and valid instruments designed to systematically measure job satisfaction. Several useful techniques have been developed, including; questionnaires, critical incidents and interviews.

2.6.1. Questionnaires

The most common approach to measuring job satisfaction involves questionnaires in which highly specialized rating scales are completed. Using this method people answer questions, thereby allowing them to report their reactions to their jobs.

One of the most popular questionnaires is the Job Descriptive Index (JDI), in which people indicate whether each of several adjectives describes a particular aspect of their work. Questions on the JDI deal with five distinct aspects of the jobs: the work itself, pay, promotional opportunities, supervision and people (e.g. , coworkers).[189] Employee can be satisfied with some of these aspects and not satisfied with the others. Likert type points are given to this questionnaires' answer choices and the total

[188] Gordon, pp.101
[189] Greenberg and Baron, pp. 173

satisfaction point of the company and each employee's job satisfaction point are calculated.[190]

Another widely used measure, the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), uses a different approach. In this scale, people rate the extent to which they are satisfied or dissatisfied with various aspects of their jobs (e.g., pay, chances for advancement). Higher scores reflect higher degrees of job satisfaction. This questionnaire measures the attitudes of people towards their job with the Likert measuring scale.

The first step in using job satisfaction information is to communicate it to all managers so they can understand it and prepare to use it. This is known as survey feedback. Managers will be the ones to make any changes suggested by the data. When corrective action is taken as the result of a survey, details of what was done should be shared with employees as soon as possible. Only in this way will the people who participated feel that management listened to them and took action on the basis of their ideas. [191]

2.6.2. Critical Incidents Technique

This scale is firstly developed and used by Herzberg. Employees were asked about the times when they felt happy and unhappy at their job and then these answers were analysed and helped to find which parts of the job were satisfying. One of the positive sides of this technique is the employees who answer the questions feel themselves comfortable and can tell exactly what they think and how they feel. There are not any directive questions like in the questionnaire technique. Meanwhile, comments may not be objective and the employees answering the questions may give the answers in the way as they think the researcher wants.[192]

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[190] Erdoğan, pp.261
[191] Davis and Newstrom, pp.123
[192] Erdoğan, pp. 260

2.6.3. Interviews

A third procedure for assessing job satisfaction involves careful, face to face interviews with employees. By questioning people in person about their attitudes, it often is possible to explore more deeply than by using highly structured questionnaires. By carefully posing questions to employees and systematically recording their answers, it is possible to learn about the causes of various work- related attitudes.[193]This technique gives detailed information to the management about job satisfaction. This technique sometimes is also used for determining the training need of the company. This technique is sometimes found useful although it takes time and is expensive.

[193] Greenberg and Baron, pp.174

3. METHOD

3.1. Introduction To Research

3.1.1. Content and Purpose of the Research

In the global and developing business world, managers are aware of the necessity and importance of using the appropriate leadership style for a dynamic and effective organisation. Leadership concept has drawn attention from social scientists for many decades. Recently the focus of leadership has shifted from traditional models of leadership to transformational leadership model, which is defined as the new leadership theory. In the organizational behavior literature; transformational leader is defined as someone who engages with others in such a way that leader and follower raise one another to a higher level of motivation and morality, a level not easily explained by traditional instrumental changes. The transactional leader on the other hand is seen as operating within existing system or culture, and generally preferred process over substance as a means for maintaining control.

Leadership and job satisfaction relationship has been tried to explained several times in the literature with researches. Studies have shown that transformational leadership is positively related to employee satisfaction.[194] Different leadership behaviors have different consequences on the organization's effectiveness.

Job satisfaction is one of the most important subjects in the organizational behavior. Being aware of the job satisfaction degree of his/ her workers for a manager is important for increasing the organization's rivalry, increasing the production, increasing the customer satisfaction, decreasing the turnover and for other organizational effectiveness related situations. Therefore the leadership style, the manager uses is important for the job satisfaction degree of the workers and the organisation.

Although the relationship between leadership and job satisfaction is examined before, there are limited research on the relationship of transformational and

[194] Pillai, pp.7

transactional leadership styles and job satisfaction. This study is made in A firm operating at the automotive sector for to explain the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction behavior of the subordinates'.

3.1.2. Research Question and Hypothesis

In this research, the relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction has been examined. The research question, this study seeks for answer is;

RQ- Is there a relationship between the leadership behavior style that the leader performs and the job satisfaction of the subordinates'?

From the factor analysis of the job satisfaction questions, four factors for job satisfaction was found which were, intrinsic-authority, extrinsic- supervision, intrinsic-security and extrinsic-compensation. The previous literature have shown that there is relationship between leadership behavior and job satisfaction. The hypothesis of the study are explained as:

H.1- There is relationship between the leadership style behavior that the leader performs and intrinsic-authority of job satisfaction.

H.2- There is relationship between the leadership style behavior that the leader performs and extrinsic-supervision of job satisfaction .

H.3-There is relationship between leadership style behavior that the leader performs and intrinsic-security of job satisfaction .

H.4- There is relationship between leadership style behavior that the leader performs and extrinsic- compensation of job satisfaction .

3.1.3. Limitations

This research is conducted in only a unique firm and sector. Another limitation can be that the research is performed only in İstanbul. Therefore, it can be said that, if the research is performed in Turkey generally or in more than one firm and sector, with a different sample, it may have different consequences.

3.2. Method Of The Research

3.2.1. Measuring Instrument

Questionnaire is used as the measuring instrument at this research. The questionnaire consists of 3 parts. Demographic Questions, Leadership Style Questionnaire and Job Satisfaction Questionnaire. An example of questionnaire form is given in Appendix. Appendix 1 represents demographic questions, Appendix 2 contains, multifactor leadership questionnaire and Appendix 3 represents job satisfaction questionnaire.

3.2.1.1. Demographic Questions

The first part contains 6 demographic questions, to determine the characteristics of the sample. This part gives ideas about the employees, gender, age, marital status, education, work experience and the experience in the current firm.

3.2.1.2. Leadership Style Questionnaire

In this study as the leadership style questionnaire; Bass and Avolio's Multifactor leadership Questionnaire 5X is used.[195] MLQ was developed in 1985 to measure both transactional and transformational leader behavior and to investigate the nature of the relationship between these leader styles and work unit effectiveness and

[195] Yurtkoru, pp.50

satisfaction.[196] This questionnaire contains 3 scales; transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez faire leadership and 36 items.

3.2.1.2.1. Transformational Leadership Scale

The transformational leadership scale is composed of idealized influence-attribute, idealized influence- behavior, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. Each dimension contains 4 items. Below the example items can be seen for the transformational leadership scale dimensions.

Idealised influence attribute; " His/ her actions build my respect for him/her."

Idealised influence behavior; "Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission"

Inspirational motivation; "Expresses his/her confidence that we will achieve our goals"

Intellectual stimulation; "Suggests new ways of looking at how we do our jobs"

Individualized consideration; "Spends time teaching and coaching"

The questions measuring transformational leadership scale in the questionnaire are; (1,2,3,4,9,10,11,12,17,18,19,20,24,26,27,28,31,34,35,36)

3.2.1.2.2. Transactional Leadership Scale

Transactional leadership scale has three dimensions: contingent reward, management by exception active and management by exception passive. All three dimensions have 4 items each. Example items representing the dimensions are given below:

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[196] *Transformational leadership,* Retrieved Apr 22, 2004, from http://www.desgriffin.com/leadership/transformation.htm

Contingent reward; "Makes sure that we receive appropriate rewards, for achieving performance targets"

Management by exception active; " Keeps track of my mistakes"

Management by exception passive; "Problems must become chronic before he/she will take action"

The questions measuring transactional leadership scale are; (5,6,7,13,14,15,21,22,23,29,30,32)

3.2.1.2.3. Laissez Faire Leadership Scale

Laissez faire leadership style has one dimension and is measured by 4 items. The example item is:

Laissez faire ; "Delays responding to urgent questions"

The questions measuring laissez faire leadership scale are; (8,16,25,33)

3.2.1.3. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

For measuring the job satisfaction of the employees the short form of Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire is used.[197] Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire was developed by D.J.Weiss, R.V.Dawis, G.W.England and L.H. Lofquist in 1967. Minnesota satisfaction questionnaire includes questions measuring intrinsic satisfaction factor (questions; 1, 2, 3, 4, 7, 8, 9, 10, 11, 15, 16, 20) and questions measuring extrinsic satisfaction factor (questions; 5, 6, 12, 13, 14, 19).

[197] Fatih Ağan, " *Özel Okullarda, Devlet Okullarında ve Dershanelerde Çalışan Lise Öğretmenlerinin İş Tatminlerinin Karşılaştırılması",* MÜ Sosyal Bilimler Enstitüsü (Unpublished Masters Thesis), İstanbul 2002, pp.66

The factors that describe the individual's relationship to what he does, were classified as intrinsic factors, that describe his relationship to the environment in which he does his job, were classified as extrinsic. The intrinsic factors included:[198]

Activity: Being able to keep busy all the time

Independence: The chance to work alone on the job.

Variety: The chance to do different things from time to time.

Social Status: The chance to be " somebody" in the community.

Moral Values: Being able to do things that do not go against one's conscience.

Security: The way one's job provides steady employment.

Social Service: The chance to do things for other people.

Authority: The chance to tell other people what to do.

Ability Utilization: The chance to do something that makes use of one's abilities.

Responsibility: The freedom to use one's own judgement.

Creativity: The chance to try one's own methods of doing the job.

Achievement: The feeling of accomplishment one gets from the job.

The extrinsic factors included:

Advancement: The chances for advancement on the job.

Company Policies and Practices: The way company policies are put into practice.

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[198] F. Aslı Baycan, "An Analysis of the Several Aspects of Job Satisfaction Between Different Occupational Groups", Bosphorus University, (Unpublished masters thesis), İstanbul 1985, pp.14

Co-workers: The way one's co- workers get along with each other.

Recognition: The praise one gets for doing a good job.

Working Conditions: The working conditions

Compensation: The pay and the amount of work one does.

Supervision- Human Relations: The way one's boss handles his employees.

Supervision- Technical: The competence of one's supervisor in making decisions.

In the further analysis, according to the perceptions of the sample, factor analysis was made for the job satisfaction questions and instead of intrinsic and extrinsic factors; four factors have been found and analysis was made according to these factors determined by the sample of this research study.

3.2.2. Measuring

Demographic questions in the first part of the questionnaire, have been examined with the frequency analysis.

For the Leadership Styles Questionnaire, 5 point Likert scale from 1: "not at all" to 5: "if not always" have been used. The items in the laissez faire scale and , four of the items in the transactional scale were reversed. Therefore before analyzing their coding was inverted.

"Things have to go wrong for him/her to take action."; " Keeps track of my mistakes"; " shows he/she is a firm believer in if ain't broke don't fix it" and; "Problems must become chronic before he/she will take action" are the items reverted in the transactional scale.

In the third part of the questionnaire for measuring the job satisfaction questions, the 5 point likert scale from 1: not satisfied to 5: extremely satisfied has been used.

3.2.3. Procedure

The research is made in A firm operating in the automotive sector. 140 questionnaires were distributed to the attendants in April from hand at the firm. Attendants were asked to answer the questionnaires in their spare time at home and were asked not to write their names on the questionnaires to get objective results. In May the questionnaires were collected back from 114 people. The return ratio of the questionnaires is %81,4.

3.2.4. Data Analysis

The answers from the questionnaires have been analyzed with statistical techniques. SPSS program is used for the analysis.

The demographic questions in the first part have been examined with frequency analysis. To the second part and third part questions, after entering the data reliability and factor analysis have been done. After these analysis, regression analysis was made to the second and third part questions to test the explanatory and significance.

3.3. RESEARCH FINDINGS

3.3.1. FREQUENCY ANALYSIS

The demographic questions in the first part have been analysed according to frequency. Frequency analysis shows the sample of the questionnaire.

3.3.1.1. Frequency According To Gender

It is seen that from the 114 employees 55 are female and 59 are male, with the percentages % 48,2 and 51,8. Table 7 represents the frequency of the genders of the attendants.

Table 7.
Frequency According To Gender

Gender	Frequency	Percentage
Female	55	48,2
Male	59	51,8
Total	114	100

3.3.1.2. Frequency According To Age

When the ages of the attendants are analyzed, it is seen that ages vary from 22 to 56. The attendants are stated in three age groups. % 37,7 of the attendants are in the 22-29 age group. % 48,3 of the attendants are scattered between ages 30 and 39. The %24 percent of the attendants are scattered in the ages over 40. Table 8 represents the frequency of the ages of the attendants.

Table 8.
Frequency According To Age

Age Group	Frequency	Percentage
22-29	43	37,7
30-39	55	48,3
40 and over	16	24
Total	114	100

3.3.1.3. Frequency According To Marital Status

When the marital status of the attendants of the research are examined it is seen that 49 of the employees are single and 59 of them are married. Only 6 of the attendants are divorced or widow, therefore these attendants are put in the group of unmarried and single attendants to get better result in the analysis. The table 9 represents the frequency of the marital status of the attendants.

Table 9.

Frequency According To Marital Status

Marital Status	Frequency	Percentage
Single-Unmarried	55	48,3
Married	59	51,8
Total	114	100

3.3.1.4. Frequency According To Education

According to the frequency analysis of education of the employees, 22 of the attendants are highschool graduates, 70 of the attendants are university graduates, 20 of the attendants have masters degree, 1 of them has doctorate degree and one of them is a graduate of primary education. Therefore the highschool and primary education together were grouped as highschool and below, and masters and doctorate as masters and over. Table 10 represents the frequencies according to education.

Table 10.

Frequency According To Education

Education	Frequency	Percentage
Highschool and below	23	20,2
University	70	61,4
Masters and over	21	18,4
Total	114	100

3.3.1.5. Frequency According To Working Experience

Working experiences of the employees vary from 1 year to 36 years. In the frequency analysis the working experiences are grouped in three as 1 to 8 years; 9 to 15 years and 16 and over. The frequency of the experiences are represented in table 11.

Table 11.

Frequency According To Working Experience

Working Experience	Frequency	Percentage
1-8 years	49	43
9-15 years	47	41,2
16 years and over	18	15,8
Total	114	100

3.3.1.6. Frequency According To Experience In The Current Firm

Employees frequencies of working in the current firm is analyzed. It is seen that the working experiences vary from 1 year to 34 years but the density of the employees are between the 1-5 years period and 6-10 years period. Therefore the employees are grouped into periods as 1 to5, 6 to 10, 11 to20, 21to 30, 31 and over. The frequencies are represented in table 12.

Table 12.

Frequency Of Working Experience In The Current Firm

Working Experience in Current Firm	Frequency	Percentage
1-5 years	37	32,5
6-10 years	48	42,1
11-20 years	20	17,5
21- 30 years	7	6,1
31 years and over	2	1,8
Total	114	100

3.4. STATISTICAL ANALYSIS

Collected data has been analyzed for the leadership style and job satisfaction questionnaires by conducting reliability and factor analysis. As a result of these analysis, items decreasing reliability, items explained under the same factor have been eliminated and factors of scales were found. In the analysis, the new factors have been used.

3.4.1. Factor And Reliability Analysis Of Leadership Style Questions

Multifactor leadership questionnaire with 36 items was used for the analysis of leadership style. First, the reliability analysis of the leadership questionnaire was made. According to this analysis (Cronbach α), the reliability of the questions were found as (α) ,9562. Reliability was high above ,70, therefore the factor analysis was made following. The factor analysis were performed to each scale separately .

3.4.1.1. Transformational Leadership Scale

Transformational leadership consists of 20 items, and this scale's reliability is ,9565 (α). Principal component analysis was made afterwards and two factors were found instead of five factors as Bass and Avolio's as mentioned before in the literature. Keyser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0,945 and Barlett's test of Sphericity was 1668,242 (df=190) and was significant by 0.000. The two factors were named as; idealized influence and inspirational motivation as the other items scattered between these two. The idealised influence contained 9 of the items and inspirational motivation contained 11 of the items. The reliabilities of these two factors were also high separately as idealized influence; ,936 (α) and inspirational motivation; ,917 (α). The factors and their loadings are represented in Table 13.

Table 13

Transformational Scale Factor Analysis Results

FACTOR 1 : Idealized Influence **Reliability : ,936 Variance value : 55,454**	
His/her actions build my respect for him/her	Factor loading: ,803
Displays a sense of power and confidence	Factor loading: ,799
Goes beyond his/her own self interest for the good of our group	Factor loading: ,745
Treats me as an individual rather than just a member of a group	Factor loading: ,737
I have pleasure in working with him	Factor loading: ,723
Considers the moral and ethical consequences of his/her decisions	Factor loading : ,717
Treats each of us as individuals with different needs, abilities and aspirations	Factor loading : ,704
Spends time teaching and coaching	Factor loading : ,625
Focuses me on developing my strength	Factor loading : ,502
FACTOR 2 : Inspirational Motivation **Reliability : ,911 Variance value : 5,830**	
Talks enthusiastically about what needs to be accomplished	Factor loading : ,798
Emphasizes the importance of having a collective sense of mission	Factor loading : ,718
Talks to us about his/her most important values or beliefs	Factor loading : ,697
Specifies the importance of having a strong sense of purpose	Factor loading : ,688
Seeks differing perspectives when solving problems	Factor loading : ,629
Suggests new ways of how we do our jobs	Factor loading : ,627
Expresses his/ her confidence that we will achieve our goals	Factor loading : ,622
Gets me to look at problems from many different angles	Factor loading: ,584
Talks optimistically about the future.	Factor loading: ,557
Articulates a compelling vision of the future	Factor loading: ,521
Re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate	Factor loading : ,506
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Exampling Qualification: , 945 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square : 1668,242 df : 190 Sig : .000	

3.4.1.2. Transactional Leadership Scale

Transactional leadership scale contains 12 items and the reliability of the scale was ,7592 (α).After the reliability analysis, factor analysis were made and 4 factors were found. 4th factor was represented by only one item which was "fails to intervene until problems become serious", therefore this was not a component alone and it was eliminated. After the factor analysis there were three factors found as in the original Bass and Avolio's , contingent reward, management by exception passive and management by exception active. Also when the reliability analysis were made

separately, the item "Keeps track of my mistakes" was seen to decrease reliability, therefore it was eliminated. The reliabilities of factors were; contingent reward; ,847(α), management by exception passive; ,807 (α) and management by exception active; ,392 (α). Although the items of the third factor was deleted the reliability of the scale did not improve. This can be explained as those two dimensions represent two opposite behaviors. In one dimension leader praises his employees when they perform well, but in the other leader does not intervene unless employee makes a mistake.[199] Therefore in the further analysis this dimension was not included and the factor management by exception active was not used in the further analysis. After the elimination of this factor, factor analysis was made again and items were scattered between the same factors. Keyser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0,802 and Barlett's test of Sphericity was 372,610 (df= 21) and was significant by 0.000. Table 14, represents the factors and factor loadings of transactional scale.

Table 14

Transactional Scale Factor Analysis Results

FACTOR 1 : CONTINGENT REWARD **Reliability : ,847** **Variance value : 39,521**	
Expresses his/her satisfaction when ı do a good job	Factor loading: ,867
Makes sure that we receive appropriate rewards, for achieving performance targets	Factor loading: ,857
Provides his/her assistance in exchange my effort	Factor loading: ,805
Makes clear what I can expect to receive if my performance needs designated standards.	Factor loading: .662
FACTOR 2 : MANAGEMENT BY EXCEPTION (PASSIVE) **Reliability : ,807** **Variance value : 32,686**	
Problems must become chronic before he/ she will take action	Factor loading : ,845
Shows he/she is a firm believer in "if ain't broke don't fix it."	Factor loading : ,841
Things have to go wrong for him/her to take action.	Factor loading : ,769
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Exampling Qualification: , 802 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square : 372,610 Df : 21 Sig : ,000	

[199] Yurtkoru, pp.65

3.4.1.3. Laissez Faire Leadership Scale

Laissez faire leadership scale has 4 items. This scale's reliability was ,7702 (α). After the factor analysis only one component was found. Therefore rotated component matrix can not be found. The Keyser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0,765 and Barlett's test of Sphericity was 119,111 (df= 6) and was significant by 0.000. Table 15, represents the factors of the laissez faire scale.

Table 15

Laissez Faire Scale Factor Analysis Results

FACTOR 1 : LAISSEZ FAIRE **Reliability : ,7702** **Variance value : 59,728**	
Is absent when needed	Factor loading:
Avoids making decisions	Factor loading:
Delays responding to urgent questions	Factor loading:
Avoids getting involved when important issues arise	Factor loading:
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Exampling Qualification: , 765 Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square : 119,111 df : 6 Sig : ,000	

3.4.2. Factor and Reliability Analysis of Job Satisfaction Questions

For the analysis of job satisfaction of the employees Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire with 20 items was used. After the data were entered, first the reliability analysis of the questions were made. Reliability was found ,9104 (α) for the 20 items. After the reliability analysis, factor analysis was made. There were many questions explained under the same factor, therefore 5 items were eliminated. These items were; "Being able to keep busy all the time", " the chance to work alone on the job", "the chance to do different things from time to time", "the way company policies are put into practice", "the working conditions". After these items were eliminated , the factor analysis was made again and four factors were found. These factors were named as, intrinsic- authority, extrinsic- supervision, intrinsic- security and extrinsic-compensation as the items were scattered according to these subjects. Reliability analysis was made to 4 factors separately and the reliabilities were found as; Intrinsic-authority ,868 (α), extrinsic- supervision; ,884 (α), intrinsic-security; ,707 (α). For the fourth factor reliability was low therefore one of the items were eliminated which was

"the way my co-workers get along with eachother" and the reliability was reached as; ,649 (α). The first factor, intrinsic- authority contained 7 items, the second factor, extrinsic- supervision contained 3 items, the third factor intrinsic- security contained 2 items and the fourth factor, extrinsic- compensation was explained with 2 items. The Keyser- Meyer- Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy was 0,859 and Barlett's test of Sphericity was 795,045 (df= 91) and was significant by 0.000. Table 16, represents the factors and the factor loadings of the job satisfaction questions.

Table 16

Job Satisfaction Factor Analysis Results

FACTOR 1 : INTRINSIC –AUTHORITY	
Reliability : ,868	**Variance value : 26,461**
The chance to tell people what to do	Factor loading: ,766
The freedom to use my own judgement	Factor loading: ,744
The chance to try my own methods of doing the job	Factor loading: ,712
The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job	Factor loading: ,710
The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities	Factor loading: ,658
Being able to do things that don't go against my conscience	Factor loading : ,627
The chance to do things for other people	Factor loading : ,609
FACTOR 2 : EXTRINSIC- SUPERVISION	
Reliability : ,884	**Variance value : 19,730**
The competence of my supervisor in making decisions	Factor loading : ,900
The way my boss handles his/her workers	Factor loading : ,862
The praise I get for doing a good job	Factor loading : ,757
FACTOR 3: INTRINSIC- SECURITY	
Reliability : ,707	**Variance Value: 12,335**
The way my job provides for steady employment	Factor loading : .823
The chance to be "somebody" in the community	Factor loading : .775
FACTOR 4: EXTRINSIC- COMPENSATION	
Reliability :,649	**Variance Value: 10,851**
My pay and the amount of work I do	Factor loading : ,866
The chances for advancement on this job	Factor loading : ,674
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Exampling Qualification: , 859	
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity Approx. Chi-Square : 795,045	
df : 91 Sig : .000	

3.4.3. Regression Analysis

After the factor and reliability analysis were made, linear regression analysis was made to test the explanatory of leadership style behavior of the leaders on job satisfaction factors and to test the significance of the model.

In the beginning, correlation analysis was made and seen that the transformational and transactional leadership were correlated positively with each other, therefore the leadership style behavior is taken as a whole in the further regression analysis. Also it was seen that laissez faire leadership style did not have any contribution and effect on the analysis.

First, the explanatory of leadership style behavior on intrinsic- authority of job satisfaction was tested. It was seen that with adjusted R square = ,254, when two factors come together; idealised influence of transformational scale and management by exception passive of transactional scale, intrinsic- authority of job satisfaction was explained. The R square was found low but the leadership style behavior was explanatory on intrinsic-authority of job satisfaction. When the Anova was looked , it was seen that the model was significant with sig. ,000. In the analysis, the standardized coefficients showed that the idealised influence with Beta ,602 and management by exception passive with Beta: -,262, explained the intrinsic- authority of job satisfaction.

After this analysis, the effect of control variables to this model was tested, with age, working experience and working experience in the current firm. It was seen that, the same factors; idealised influence, management by exception passive and the working experience when taken together, increased partially the explanatory on intrinsic- authority with adjusted R square= ,287, .The Beta values were; idealised influence; ,567, management by exception- passive; -,240 and working experience; ,200. The model was significant with sig. ,000. From the analysis, it was seen that leadership style behavior is explanatory on intrinsic- authority. Table 17 shows the significance and Table 18 shows the explanatory values of the model.

Table 17

Significance of Intrinsic-Authority according to ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	18,454	3	6,151	16,187	,000
Residual	41,802	110	,380		
Total	60,257	113			
Predictors: (Constant), Idealised Influence, Management By Exception Passive, Working Experience Dependent Variable: Intrinsic-Authority Adjusted R Square= ,287 Std Error of the Estimate: 61,646					

Table 18

Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior and Control Variables on Intrinsic –Authority

Model	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	Beta		
Constant		11,110	,000
Idealised Influence	,567	6.047	,000
Management By Exception Passive	-,240	-2,567	,012
Working Experience	,200	2,488	0,14

Second, regression analysis was made to test the explanatory affect of leadership style behavior on extrinsic-supervision of job satisfaction. It was seen that, idealised influence of transformational scale and contingent reward of transactional scale had joined explanatory effect on extrinsic-supervision of job satisfaction with adjusted R Square=,679. Anova indicated that the model was significant with sig.,000.Table 19 represents the significance. When the coefficients are analyzed it was seen that, idealised influence explained extrinsic-supervision with Beta:,430 and

contingent reward explained extrinsic- supervision with Beta:, 423. This is represented in Table 20. When the control variables of age, working experience and working experience in the current firm were added, the analysis showed that there weren't any change and the control variables did not have any contribution to this model. From this analysis, it is found that leadership style behavior has explanatory effect on extrinsic-supervision.

Table 19

Significance of Extrinsic- Supervision according to ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	100,736	2	50,368	120,474	,000
Residual	46,407	111	,418		
Total	147,142	113			
Predictors: (Constant), Idealised Influence, Contigent Reward Dependent Variable: Extrinsic- Supervision Adjusted R Square= ,679 Std Error of the Estimate: ,6466					

Table 20

Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Extrinsic – Supervision

Model	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	Beta		
Constant		1.100	,274
Idealised Influence	,430	3,818	,000
Contingent Reward	,423	3,750	,000

Following, regression analysis was made for to test the explanatory effect of leadership style behavior on intrinsic-security of job satisfaction. It is found that only, idealised influence of transformational scale was explaining the intrinsic security of job satisfaction with a very low ratio. Adjusted R square was found to be:,098. When the Anova was looked it was seen that the model was significant with sig.,000. Idealised influence was explaining intrinsic-security with Beta: ,325. When the contributions of the control variables, age, working experience and working experience in the current firm were analysed, there weren't any difference in the adjusted R square and the significance and explanatory of the model. Table 21 represents the significance and Table 22 represents the explanatory values of the regression analysis. It can be said that, idealised influence has little explanatory effect on intrinsic-security.

Table 21

Significance of Intrinsic- Security according to ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	10,094	1	10,094	13,258	,000
Residual	85,268	112	,761		
Total	95,362	113			
Predictors: (Constant), Idealised Influence Dependent Variable: Intrinsic- Security Adjusted R Square= ,098 Std Error of the Estimate: ,8725					

Table 22

Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Intrinsic- Security

Model	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	Beta		
Constant		9,930	,000
Idealised Influence	,325	3,641	,000

Finally, the relationship between leadership style behavior and extrinsic-compensation of job satisfaction was analyzed. From the regression analysis, adjusted R Square was found; ,527 and the results showed that the idealised influence of transformational scale had explanatory effect on extrinsic-compensation of job satisfaction. When the Anova was looked, it was seen that the model was significant with sig. ,000. This is represented in Table 23. The explanatory value for idealised influence leadership behavior style on extrinsic-compensation was found as Beta: ,729. Table 24 represents the relationship. After the regression analysis, contribution of the control variables on this model was analyzed. The results showed that there was not any change in the explanatory variable and significance of the model, the control variables did not have any contribution. From the findings of the regression analysis, it can be said that, idealised influence has explanatory effect on extrinsic-compensation and there is relationship between leadership style behavior performed by the leader and extrinsic-compensation of job satisfaction.

Table 23

Significance of Extrinsic- Compensation according to ANOVA

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig
Regression	53,230	1	53,230	126,967	,000
Residual	46,955	112	,419		
Total	100,184	113			
Predictors: (Constant), Idealised Influence Dependent Variable: Extrinsic- Compensation Adjusted R Square= ,527 Std Error of the Estimate: ,6475					

Table 24

Explanatory Values of Leadership Style Behavior on Extrinsic-Compensation

Model	Standardized Coefficients	T	Sig
	Beta		
Constant		5,925	,000
Idealised Influence	,729	11,268	,000

4. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

In this research, the relationship between leadership style behavior that is performed by the leader and job satisfaction of the subordinates is analyzed. In this analysis, a questionnaire containing; demographic questions, Multifactor leadership Questionnaire (MLQ5X) and short form of Minnesota Job Satisfaction Questionnaire were used.

First of all, frequency analysis was made, to better understand the sample of the research. Then the factor and reliability analysis were made to leadership and job satisfaction questions.

Research that used MLQ, in Turkey, was very limited, therefore reliability and factor analysis were performed. The reliability of the leadership questions were high and as in the original, transformational, transactional and laissez faire scale were found as the dimensions of the questionnaire. The original factors of the transformational scale that were determined by Bass and Avolio for the MLQ 5X, 36 items questionnaire were; idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration. In this study, factors were distributed differently from Bass & Avolio's model. The items were scattered between idealised influence and inspirational motivation. Individualized consideration items were loaded into idealised influence and intellectual stimulation items were loaded into inspirational motivation by the sample. For the transactional scale, the factors found were parallel to the original but the composition of the items were different. The factors were contingent reward, management by exception active and management by exception passive. But the reliability of management by exception active was very low therefore it was eliminated. This factor analysis shows similarity to Yurtkoru's factor analysis in her research study "the role of leadership in the organizational change process", which was performed also in Turkey and where she was left with the same two factors of transactional scale. Also another research in Turkey performed by Nurdan Özaralli which was named "Effects of transformational leadership on empowerment and team effectiveness"; had similar factor analysis to this study where her items of transformational scale were loaded

mostly on idealised influence. The laissez faire scale had the same items as the original's in this study.

The reliability of job satisfaction questions was found high. In the factor analysis of job satisfaction questions, four factors were found according to the perceptions of the sample of this study and named as intrinsic-authority, extrinsic-supervision, intrinsic-security and extrinsic- compensation.

The aim of this study was to examine if the leadership style behavior explained the job satisfaction of the subordinates and to analyze the relationship between leadership style behavior and job satisfaction. First, correlation analysis was made and it was seen that transformational leadership and transactional leadership were positively correlated with each other. The idealised influence and inspirational motivation had positive correlations with transactional leadership factors where the correlation with contingent reward was high but also they had positive correlations with management by exception passive. This also shows similarity to Yurtkoru's research where she found positive correlations between contingent reward and transformational leadership dimensions.[200]Therefore, from this, it was seen that sample of this research perceived the leadership dimensions together. In the literature and from previous research studies performed other than Turkey, it was seen that transformational leadership had positive effects on job satisfaction. Although it was mentioned before in the literature that the transformational and transactional leadership are not opposites but transformational leadership was built on top of transactional leadership, transformational and transactional leadership styles were said to have different effects on followers. As mentioned before transformational leadership was more strongly correlated than transactional leadership with lower turnover rates, higher productivity and employee satisfaction.[201] Therefore, in the literature abroad these leadership styles are taken as different dimensions in the performed researches. As, the sample that is used in this research saw the leadership styles as a whole, the leadership style was taken with its all dimensions in the analysis. This can be explained due to cultural differences. In Turkey, the sample is rather different, than other countries'. Therefore; cultural

[200] Yurtkoru, pp.103

differences may change the subordinate's perceptions of their leaders' leadership style behaviors.

Following, regression analysis was made to analyze the relationship between leadership style behavior and job satisfaction. The factors of job satisfaction were taken separately to understand how the leadership style behavior explained each factor.

First the regression analysis was made by taking intrinsic- authority as dependent variable. In all analysis contribution of the control variables were also looked. Idealised influence, management by exception passive and work experience together were found to explain the job satisfaction factor intrinsic-authority, where management by exception's explanatory effect was reverse. Study found that there is relationship between leadership styles and intrinsic- authority and leadership style behavior explained intrinsic- authority of job satisfaction.

When for the extrinsic- supervision of job satisfaction, the regression analysis was made, it was found to be explained by idealised influence and contingent reward together with very close Beta values to each other. Before it was mentioned that the contingent reward had positive relationship with transformational leadership also in the previous literature since contingent reward is the exchange or promises of rewards for effort and recognition of accomplishments. Study found relationship between idealised influence, contingent reward and extrinsic- supervision.

To understand the relationship between leadership style behavior and intrinsic security of job satisfaction, regression analysis was made and it was found that only idealised influence alone was explaining intrinsic-security with a very low ratio.

When the regression analysis for the fourth factor of job satisfaction which was extrinsic-compensation was made, it was found to be explained by idealised influence alone with a strong beta value.

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[201] Robbins, pp.439

In summary, it can be said that there is relationship between leadership styles and job satisfaction of subordinates. From the analysis it is seen that, idealised influence of transformational scale has explanatory effect on each job satisfaction factor. Intrinsic-authority is explained by idealised influence and management by exception passive leadership styles; extrinsic-supervision is explained by idealised influence and contingent reward with a strong explanatory effect; intrinsic- security and extrinsic-compensation are explained by only idealised influence, where explanatory effect of idealised influence on intrinsic security was very low, therefore it can be said that it was partially explained. The control variable; work experience has contribution effect to explanation of only first factor, intrinsic-authority. The contribution may be logical because the authority gained increases due to the increases in the working experience. While, from the analysis it can be seen that inspirational motivation of transformational leadership and laissez faire leadership did not have any contributions to the explanation of job satisfaction factors.

Finally, it can be said that , the leadership styles are perceived as a whole by the sample of this study and these leadership styles that the leaders perform and the subordinates perceive have explanatory effect on the job satisfaction of the subordinates. Although in the previous researches, transformational leadership and transactional leadership scales were taken as different dimensions, it was supported in the literature that they were not opposites. It can be said that in the different cultures, followers perceptions of their leaders' leadership style behaviors may be different. This study was performed in a unique firm in one sector, therefore the perceptions of the subordinates may show differences in different sectors. If the research is spread to different sectors, in different circumstances the consequences may change.

APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1. Demographic Questions

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket, "Liderlik Tarzları İle İş Tatmini Arasındaki İlişkiler" konusunda hazırlanmakta olan tez çalışmasında kullanılacaktır.

Anket üç bölümden oluşmaktadır. Birinci bölümde, kişisel bilgilerinize yönelik sorular yer almaktadır. İkinci bölümde bir üst yöneticinizin liderlik tarzını ve üçüncü bölümde ise yaptığınız işten ne derece memnun olduğunuzu belirlemeye yönelik sorular bulunmaktadır.

Vereceğiniz bilgiler sonuçların değerlendirilmesi açısından büyük önem taşımaktadır. Cevaplarınız sadece tez çalışmamın amacına yönelik değerlendirmede kullanılacaktır. Bu nedenle sizden isim yazmamanız istenmektedir.

Araştırmama göstermiş olduğunuz ilgi ve katkınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederim.

Saygılarımla

Pınar Orpen Ertekin

1. Bölüm

Aşağıdaki sorulara size uygun seçeneğin yanına X işareti koyarak ve boşlukları doldurarak cevap veriniz.

1. Cinsiyetiniz
   - ☐ Kadın
   - ☐ Erkek
2. Doğum tarihiniz (yıl olarak) _____
3. Medeni haliniz
   - ☐ Bekar
   - ☐ Evli
   - ☐ Boşanmış / Dul
4. Eğitim düzeyiniz
   - ☐ İlköğretim
   - ☐ Lise
   - ☐ Lisans
   - ☐ Yüksek Lisans
   - ☐ Doktora
5. Çalışma hayatı içinde bulunduğunuz süre (yıl olarak) ? _____
6. Şu anda çalıştığınız kurumda kaç yıldır görev yapmaktasınız ?_____

APPENDIX 2. Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire

2. Bölüm

Aşağıdaki soruları bir üst yöneticinizi düşünerek cevaplayınız Lütfen her soruyu dikkatlice okuyunuz ve ne derece uygun gördüğünüzü ölçek üzerinde X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

	Her Zaman	Çoğu Zaman	Bazen	Nadiren	Hiçbir Zaman
1. Onunla çalışmak zevklidir					
2. Önem verdiği değerleri, inançları bizimle paylaşır					
3. Geleceğe olumlu bakar					
4. Kritik varsayımların planlanana uygun olup olmadığını sürekli inceler					
5. Benim için konulan performans standartlarını tutturduğumda ne beklemem gerektiğini açıkça söyler					
6. Hatalarımız konusunda bizi daima uyarır					
7. Sorunlar ciddiyet kazanıncaya kadar karışmaz					
8. Önemli bir konu karşısında karışmaktan çekinir					
9. Bana grubun herhangi bir üyesi olarak değil de bir birey olarak davranır					
10. Grubun iyiliği için kendi önceliklerinden vazgeçer					
11. Güçlü bir amaca sahip olmanın önemini belirtir					
12. Hedeflerimize ulaşabileceğimize güvendiğini belli eder					
13. İçimdeki çabayı ve hevesi gördüğünde bana destek olur					
14. Zamanını "söndürülecek yangınlar" arayarak geçirir					
15. Harekete geçmesi için işlerin kötüye gitmiş olması gerekir					
16. Gerektiğinde ortada yoktur					
17. Problemler karşısında farklı bakış açıları ortaya koyabilir					
18. Kendini geliştirmeye beni yönlendirir					
19. Davranışları ona saygı duymama neden olur					
20. Kararlarının ahlaki , etik sonuçlarını dikkate alır					
21. Performans hedeflerimize ulaştığımızda uygun şekilde ödüllendirilmemizi sağlar					
22. Yaptığım hataları asla unutmaz					
23. Mecbur kalmadıkça tedbir almanın gereksizliğine inanır					
24. Ulaşmamız gereken hedefleri büyük bir şevkle anlatır					
25. Karar vermekten kaçınır					
26. İşimizi nasıl yaptığımıza farklı yönlerden bakmamızı önerir					
27. Başkalarını yetiştirmek, onlara yeni bir şeyler öğretmek, onun için önemlidir					
28. Tavırları güç ve güven hissi verir					
29. Yapılan iyi işi daima takdir eder					
30. Hedefe ulaşmadaki başarısızlıklar asla gözünden kaçmaz					
31. Ortak bir misyona sahip olmanın önemini vurgular					
32. Harekete geçmesi için problemlerin kronikleşmesi gereklidir					
33. Acil sorulara cevap vermeyi geciktirir					
34. Gelecekle ilgili düşleriyle bizi peşinden sürükler					
35. Sorunlara çok farklı açılardan bakmamı sağlar					
36. Her birimize farklı ihtiyaçları, yetenekleri olan bireyler olarak yaklaşır					

APPENDIX 3. Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

3. Bölüm

Aşağıda işinizin çeşitli yönleri ile ilgili cümleler bulunmaktadır. Her cümleyi dikkatle okuyunuz. İşinizden ne derece memnun olduğunuzu "Çok memnunum"dan "Hiç memnun değilim"e uzanan aralıklar üzerinde size uygun olan seçeneğe X işareti koyarak belirtiniz.

	Çok memnunum	Memnunum	Kararsızım	Memnun değilim	Hiç memnun değilim
1. Beni her zaman meşgul etmesi bakımından					
2. Bağımsız çalışma imkanımın olmasından					
3. Ara sıra değişik şeyler yapabilme şansımın olmasından					
4. Toplumda "saygın bir kişi" olma şansını bana vermesi bakımından					
5. Yöneticimin emrindeki kişileri iyi yönetmesi açısından					
6. Yöneticimin karar verme yeteneği bakımından					
7. Vicdani bir sorumluluk taşıma şansını bana vermesinden					
8. Bana garantili bir gelecek sağlaması yönünden					
9. Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabildiğimi hissetmem açısından					
10. Kişileri yönlendirmek için fırsat verdiğinden					
11. Kendi yeteneklerimi kullanarak bir şeyler yapabilme şansımın olmasından					
12. İşimle ilgili alınan kararların uygulamaya konması bakımından					
13. Yaptığım iş karşılığında aldığım ücret bakımından					
14. Terfi imkanımın olması yönünden					
15. Kendi fikir ve kanaatlerimi rahatça kullanma serbestliğini vermesi açısından					
16. Mesleğimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi kullanabilme serbestliğini vermesi bakımından					
17. Çalışma şartları bakımından					
18. Çalışma arkadaşlarımın birbirleri ile anlaşması açısından					
19. Yaptığım işte takdir edilmem açısından					
20. Yaptığım iş karşılığında duyduğum başarı hissinden					

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