

THE IMPACT OF LEADERSHIP STYLES ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION: A STUDY
ON TOURISM SECTOR IN NORTH CYPRUS



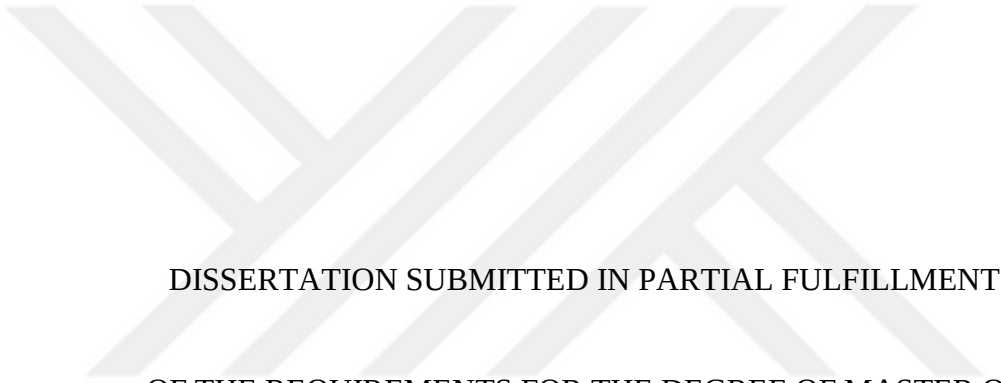
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ON TOURISM SECTOR IN NORTH CYPRUS

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PLAGIARISM

I hereby declare that all information in this document has been obtained and presented in accordance with academic rules and ethical conduct. I also declare that, as required by these rules and conduct, I have fully cited and referenced all material and results that are not original to this work.

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ABSTRACT

Increased competition at global level, technological advancements and constant turbulence in markets, changed the traditional ways of doing things. To remain up and running companies now face much more challenges than ever. To develop creative ways to attract customers and remain competitive, businesses need to adopt change. To do so, apart from the acquisition of new skills, organizations need to motivate their employees both individually and as a group. It has been established that qualified organizational work force and a strong organizational structure is a must for businesses in today's rapidly changing environment. Survival in current competitive world without positive contributions of skilled employees and an effective management is impossible. Therefore, leadership has become an ever more vital management function for the success of companies. Through the application of the right leadership style, leaders are expected to keep the motivation level of the employees high, and in so doing, keep them committed to business, its goals and objectives. Drawing on this point of view, this study investigates the relationship between leadership and employee motivation considering the changing role of different leadership styles. 429 professionals working at five-star hotels in Kyrenia were included in the research. Sociodemographic Information Form, Multidimensional Motivation Scale and Leadership Styles Scale were applied to the participants. According to the findings obtained from the research, leadership style was found to have a significant impact on employee motivation. Results obtained

from multiple regression analysis revealed that perceived leadership styles jointly predicted employee motivation with transformational leadership as the strongest predictor of employee motivation

Keywords: Leadership, leadership Styles, motivation.



ÖZET

Dünya genelinde gittikçe artan rekabet, teknolojik gelişmeler ile günümüz piyasalarında süregelen hale gelen kargaşa ile beraber geleneksel iş görme şekilleri büyük değişime uğramıştır. Bu bağlamda ayakta kalabilmek ve operasyonlarına devam edebilmek için günümüzde şirketler her zaman olduğundan daha fazla zorlukla karşı karşıya gelmek durumundadır. Neticede müşterilerini cezbetmeye yönelik yaratıcı yollar geliştirmek suretiyle rekabet edebilir kalmak için işletmelerin değişime ayak uydurması kendileri için bir zorunluluk haline gelmiştir. Bunu da yapabilmek için bir yandan yeni beceriler kazanırken öte yandan gerek bireysel gerekse grup bazında çalışanlarını motive etmek günümüz örgütleri için bir ihtiyaç haline gelmiştir. Bu bağlamda hızlı değişim gösteren çevreye bağlı olarak kalifiye ve organize işgücü yanında güçlü kurumsal yapıların işletmeler için birer zorunluluk haline geldiği yaygın bir şekilde kabul görürken, ehil işgücünün olumlu katkıları ile etkin bir yönetimden yoksun örgütlerin günümüz rekabetçi dünyasında ayakta kalamayacağı bilinen bir durumdur. Tüm bunlar günümüz koşullarında şirketler için bir yönetim fonksiyonu olarak liderliği her zamankinden daha hayati hale getirmiştir. Yönetimde doğru liderlik seçimi ile liderlerden beklenen motivasyon düzeylerini yüksek tutmak suretiyle kurumsal amaç ve hedeflere kendini adanmış çalışanların ortaya çıkmasıdır. Bu bakış açısından hareketle bu çalışmada farklı liderlik stillerinin değişen rollerini dikkate alarak liderlik motivasyon ilişkisi incelenmiştir. Kuzey Kıbrıs'a bağlı Girne bölgesinde faaliyet gösteren 5 yıldızlı hotelde çalışan toplam 429 kişinin araştırma kapsamına dahil edilirken katılımcılara sosyodemografik bilgi formu, çok boyutlu iş motivasyonu ölçeği ile liderlik stilleri ölçeği uygulanmıştır. Araştırma neticesinde ortaya çıkan bulgular yorumlandığında liderlikle motivasyon arasında istatistiksel

olarak anlamlı bir ilişki olduğu ve başta dönüştürücü liderlik olmak üzere liderlik stillerinin çalışan motivasyonunu pozitif yönde yordadığı belirlenmiştir.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik, liderlik stilleri, motivasyon



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1.INTRODUCTION

Today`s business world, characterised by increased global competition, technological advancements and constant turbulence in global markets, has swept away the traditional ways of doing things and companies now face more challenges than ever to develop creative ways to attract customers and remain competitive. Apart from attracting new ones, due to extremely hostile environment, nowadays companies are experiencing much more difficulties in maintaining their relationships with customers. To remain up and running, businesses are heavily investing in the acquisition of advanced technologies, developing new processes, and introducing new products. On the other hand, to retain existing customers and motivate them to make their next purchase, organisations are embarking on projects to improve organisational creativity and through their workforce are exerting extra effort in viable project solutions, aimed to keep the level of customer services high. Keeping customer satisfaction high is of crucial importance for profitable growth. In this respect, customer satisfaction has become a priority in companies` business strategies. Companies need to differentiate themselves from their rivals to have robust relationships with their customers. Thus, great amounts are spent by businesses to fulfil the needs and expectations of customers and for this reason, perhaps unsurprisingly, the cost of customer satisfaction has become the biggest portion of the annual marketing budgets today. Having said these, in today`s business climate a happier workforce is regarded as key for companies` ability to deliver better customer satisfaction. Further to this, employee engagement is considered as the most important factor in the success and failure of any organization. In this context, it is important to emphasize that the quality of employee performance in the service industries primarily depends on the wellbeing of workers. To date, numerous empirical

researches have been published illustrating the direct impact of employee satisfaction on consumer satisfaction in the service sector, basically telling us that employees who are not sufficiently satisfied pose a crucial threat for tourism enterprises since their dissatisfaction usually cause long-term negative impacts on the quality of services and products that results with dissatisfaction of consumers. (Peric et al. 2018, p.618) Accordingly, employee motivation is regarded as the most important factor enabling employees work better and perform better in their workplaces. The importance of the motivation stems from the need to bring human element to the forefront, which is of particular importance for service businesses. In this context, no matter how powerful advanced technological tools that acquired are, without sufficiently motivated employees it has been established that it is not possible especially for service businesses to continue their lives successfully. Employees have many expectations from businesses. Yet there has to be an optimal balance between employee desires and organisational goals. In this context harmonization of the desires and goals of the organization with the employees makes leadership critical in businesses.

Modern tourism and hospitality management compels businesses to take action for an organizational reconstruction including the development of processes on the basis of service quality. In this context, in order to create a successful organizational climate and pursue their goals, businesses need to adopt new methods targeted to improve their employees' performance. The key actions required to make this happen makes leadership vitally important in today's organisations. Since mutual understanding between leaders and employees is a must for organizational goals, that is to say, for efficient leadership leaders' understanding of employees and employees' understanding of the leader are both necessary for organizational outcomes,

leadership has become an increasingly important phenomenon for enterprises. Tourism enterprises are no exception.

Leadership is one of the widely discussed topics among scholars and social science researchers, and perhaps one of the most widely written and empirically researched subject areas in organizational behaviour literature. Yet, despite all the interest toward leadership studies, it has been noted by many scholars and researchers that some gaps and contradictions still exist in the literature and leadership remains to be a secret. (Luthans, 2011) A literature review at a glance provides a common perspectives simply defining leadership as the ability to influence and direct people consciously and on a regular basis to achieve organizational goals and objectives. In this context, being a good leader should not be regarded merely as a guidance in the organization aimed to achieve professional success, but an effective mentorship that instils confidence in employees through persuasion, constantly motivating members of the organization for organizational purposes. Thus, apart from being able to see the future, in order to be effective and efficient, today's leaders should contribute to the development of employees and increase their sense of trust in a way that will create a strong sense of harmony and self-confidence and keep communication channels open in the organization.

1.1. Purpose of the Study

In this research it is aimed to investigate the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation. In this regard, this study examines the concepts of "leadership" and "motivation" in the organization from a theoretical perspective and reveals an empirical analysis illustrating the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation. In so doing, study explores whether the types of leadership

that organizational employees think for their leaders have an impact on internal and external motivation and the degree of this impact. The research seeks to answer these research questions: Do autocratic, democratic, laissez faire, transactional and transformational leaders have a significant impact on employee motivation?

1.2. Importance of the study

Leader – employee relations remain to be the key component of today's businesses due to its one-to-one effect in the economic life of the organisations. Alongside other factors affecting employee motivation, influence of leaders and managers on employee performance is a frequently discussed topic by scholars and researchers. In this context leadership is considered as one of the most widely written and empirically researched subject areas. Yet, it remains to be a less known phenomenon in tourism and hospitality industry. Apart from its direct contribution to employment as a labour-intensive sector, tourism and hospitality are well-known with their countless indirect inputs to the countries' economies. In this context, as a labour-intensive service sector, since it is a known fact that human resources are of vital importance in tourism efficiency, a lens to understand the effects of different leadership styles on the motivation of the TRNC tourism sector employees is necessary. Taking a closer look at the employment data in the TRNC tourism sector, allows one to see that approximately 80% of the employees of the sector is composed of foreign nationals. Based on this fact, multinational employee structure of the hospitality sector of TRNC provides a purposeful sample for the aim of the research. As an island state, despite being an economy that mainly relies on tourism and hospitality sector, to date scholarly works on human resources in the tourism industry remained scarce. Furthermore, past attempts failed to provide any substantial

information about leadership and employee motivation components in the tourism and hospitality sector of the country. In this context two concepts remained neglected. The research will provide important indications to fill the existing gap through shedding light on leaders' role in motivating employees in regards to different leadership styles. Understanding this relationship might be helpful for organizations in the tourism and hospitality industry to improve their leadership development processes.



2. LITERATURE REVIEW

2.1. Leadership Concept, Leadership Approaches and Leadership Styles

It has been established in the literature that despite being a subject that has attracted scholarly attention for centuries, leadership still stands as one of the most studied and yet little understood subjects. (Krausz, 1986, p.85) A closer look reveals the fact that a generally accepted definition of leadership is lacking; since relevant literature provides numerous different explanations about the concept through addressing leadership from different perspectives; (Northouse, 2019, p.5) therefore reflecting sometimes complementary, sometimes contrasting descriptions to the reader. In this context, there is a degree of uncertainty around the leadership, reflecting differing perspectives of scholars. (Rosari, 2019, p.18) Still, at first glance, it is possible to observe a common viewpoint behind most of them. A surface level reading of the literature enables one to see that the concept in general is broadly defined as the process of influencing of others, gathering them around certain goals and activating them around for the achievement of the previously determined goals. (Krausz, 1986, p.85) That being said, taking a closer look allows us to see that several personal traits like belief, confidence, dynamism, courage, knowledge and intelligence are usually repeated in scholarly attempts to define the leadership. Being a such a multidimensional and dynamic concept is the main reason making leadership an interesting research area. In this context, scholarly attempts to define the concept of leadership enables us to witness differing features of leadership indeed. According to one of them, leadership is the non-coercive behavioural influence that a person has on group members while coordinating or directing group activities towards the achievement of a common goal. (Northouse, 2019, p.378) According to another definition, leadership is leaders' mobilization of followers to achieve independently or

commonly set organisational goals, by using economic, political and similar power and values. (Burns, 1978, p.425) Such descriptions are helpful in the sense that together they illustrate the dynamic and multidimensional nature of leadership. That being said, it is possible to witness scholarly attempts that considering varying descriptions from different sources, moved further and enriched the definition of leadership as the process of influencing group activities to realize organizational goals. Accordingly, leader is defined as a selected individual that drawing on a variety of powers that he or she possesses, encourages others, ensures certain situations, time and conditions to achieve organizational goals and conveys his/her experiences to the members of the organization. One of the well-known scholars in the field, Yukl (2013) defines leadership as “the process of influencing others to understand and agree about what needs to be done and how to do it, and the process of facilitating individual and collective efforts to accomplish shared objectives” (Yukl, 2013, p.8; Rowe, 2007, p.1) Following a similar perspective as of Yukl, another known scholar Peter Northouse (2019) describes leadership as “a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal” (Northouse, 2019, p.6 ; Rowe, 2007, p.1) Taking into account the definitions provided by Yukl and Northouse, another well-known scholar, Rowe underlines several components of the leadership phenomenon concluding that firstly, leadership is a process; secondly, leadership involves influencing others and lastly, but certainly not least, leadership seeks to find ways to make group members act towards a shared objective. (Rowe, 2007, p.1) Since the term ‘leader’ refers to a privileged individual with power who creates vision and goals, leadership is regarded as the process of energizing individuals and making them either voluntarily or involuntarily connect to the leader’s vision. In this sense, leader is responsible for encouraging employees or group

members to share the same vision and making them do their best towards achieving organisational goals. (Rost, 1991, p. 59).) Putting differently, leaders are mainly concerned with making change happen and motivating group members to support leaders' vision for change.

Having said these, it is important to note that especially since 1980's scholarly perspective towards leadership has been considerably changed. In this context, instead of considering leadership as merely a logical or technical function, a new perspective evaluating leadership as an activity beyond the generally accepted boundaries of 'managing people' or 'achieving organisational objectives' debate has become dominant. Thanks to the new understanding brought by full range leadership approach, recent scholarly attempts usually describe leadership as an ability in social and managerial relations that involves revolutionary, evolutionary, systematic and consciously held processes aimed to develop a sense of community within the organization for continuous and unusual organisational success. Since Freud regards leader as the one who holds group together, he defines leader as the person that groups need to provide a sense of identity and purpose for themselves. (Rost, 1991, p.59) Building on these definitions, we can conclude leadership is a combination of diverse characteristics, traits, behaviours and skills (Al Khajeh, 2018, p.2) and define an effective leader as the person who possesses sufficient skills, knowledge and characteristics such as creativity, foresight, insight, loyalty, honesty, determination, teamwork, communication ability, problem solving and intuitive thinking ability, charisma, power and inspiration to gather, influence and mobilize a group of people or groups of people around certain objectives and considering situations, guides his followers about where and how to go, creates mission, vision and organisational goals.

2.1.1. Leadership and Management

Differentiating leadership from management has been a contentious issue in scholarly circles since much of the leadership theories appear as relevant to managers and management due to the changing nature of the management. (Brooks, 2009, p.158) Taking a closer look at literature reveals that leadership and management are frequently used interchangeably. Still, it has been reiterated by relevant scholars that despite considerable similarities between leadership and management in many respects, there are some notable differences between leaders and managers. (Yukl, 2013, p.6) As some of the managers do not exercise leadership, and similarly some people lead without having a formal management position, supposing leadership and management as the same might lead to confusion. (Algahtani, 2014, p.61) In this context, past scholarly attempts to provide a distinction are questionable whether they succeeded to do so, since there is a common controversy among scholars about the difference between leaders and managers (Algahtani, 2014, p.71) and confusion that leadership is similar to management is still prevalent. (Toor & Ofori, 2008, p.61) Yet, taking a closer look at relevant literature reveals that a consensus among a considerable majority of the scholars exist on the idea that "managers do not necessarily make great leaders". (Toor & Ofori, 2008, p.62) While management is usually mentioned in the literature generally as a formal position responsible from planning, organising, staffing and directing works, leadership is depicted as a comprehensive process of social influence that drives productivity, and as an overarching figure, with their potential to influence the behaviour of others, leaders are portrayed as extraordinary peoples strategically guiding and managing a group or groups.

Practices and procedures of management were mostly emerged as a response to the chaos of the large corporations born in twentieth century. Therefore, management is a process of effectively dealing with the complexity that involves planning, budgeting, setting goals, establishing detailed steps to achieve goals and allocating necessary resources respectively. (Kotter, 2001, p.4) Leadership on the other hand, as Kotter said is about coping with change through a constructive vision which includes setting a direction and developing a common sight of the future together with strategies to achieve necessary changes. (Kotter, 2001, p.4)

Still, some of scholars defending those two terms are arbitrarily and yet similarly defined, refuse to accept leading and managing as complementary actions. In contrast, scholars in this line of thought claim that two terms are essentially the same concept used "to describe different levels of a taxonomy related to performance or organizational effectiveness". (Azad et al, 2017, p.1) Since management and leadership skills and abilities are both necessary for an individual to be able to drive team success, according to this group, functions of leaders and managers flow in a continuum that are not separable. (Azad et al, 2017, p.1) Leadership is considered as an essential part of effective management. Through building an environment providing room for every employee or team member to perform his or her best, remarkable leaders or effective managers play a crucial role in management. Considering the changing nature of management and the fact that to be effective, much of the managers in today's business do leadership functions, seeking a sharp distinction between two appears to be a futile exercise. Taking a closer look at the power bases that leaders and effective managers usually rely on, provides meaningful insights illustrating the similarity of the instruments employed by both. Notwithstanding the similarity employed by leaders and managers, since leadership

allows managers to influence employee behaviour in the organisation, gaining insights into leaders' actions to influence their followers is particularly important and for doing so a deeper understanding of leadership powers is required.

2.1.2 Leadership Powers

Leadership is a function debated around leaders' influence on others. (Vroom&Jago 2007, p.18) As Brownell states, a look back to the history of leadership theory reveals evolution of understandings on "the nature of human behaviour and the ways individuals acquire power and influence in the workplace". (Brownell, 2010, p.363) Therefore, power has been a centre of attention for leadership scholars and researchers for decades. In 1959, two leading scholars from the field of social psychology, John R. P. French and Bertram Raven published a notable study examining the complexities of power and illustrating the dynamics behind power used by leaders and managers. In their study two scholars defined power as the main cause of achievement and obedience of others and revealed five distinct forms of power. (Kovach, 2020, p.1) Since French and Raven's seminal study, power has been a topic attracting scholars and researchers. Accordingly, numerous works have been published in an attempt to gain insights and describe the relationship between leadership and power in a number of ways. (Kovach, 2020, p.1) In this context, understanding the capability of one person to influence others has been the central focus of the theorists in addressing power in organisations. (Gordon, 2011, p.195) Taking a brief look into the literature reveals that power is mostly defined as "the capacity or potential to influence" (Northouse, 2019, p.49) or similarly as "ability to influence others". (Krausz, 1986, p.86) Northouse notes that there are two major types of power in organisations: position power and personal power. Personal power refers to leaders' influence thanks to their personality characteristics accepted by

followers. On the other hand, position power, as the name suggests, refers to the power of a leader thanks to his or her formal status in the organisation. (Northouse, 2019, p.11-12) It is possible to observe a similar approach in the remarkable study of French and Raven. At first glance to the well-known typology of two scholars, it becomes clear that since they are related with personality characteristics and expertise, at least two of the leadership powers considered by authors do not originate from organisation. (Krausz, 1986, p.86) Therefore, similar to that of Northouse, as Krausz states, it is possible to classify sources of leadership power into two as; organisational power and individual power. (Krausz, 1986, p.87) French and Raven's power bases taxonomy, which identified five different power bases as; coercive power, reward power, legitimate power, expert power and referent power (French & Rawen, 1959, p.151) has been an important reference illustrating how leaders derive powers. (Piero et al., 2013, p.1123)

Coercive power is built on follower's expectation to be punished by leader if he or she fails to align with the orders given. Therefore, coercive power stems from organisation and refers to the leader's ability to punish followers. As Krausz notes, this type of leadership power is "based on the fear of punitive acts against the recipient of the coercive acts of influence" Leaders utilize this type of power to ensure compliance. (Krausz, 1986, p.87) Still, it is important to note that the extent that followers feel threatened by punitive acts of leader matters. As French and Raven put it, the strength of this type of power depends on the magnitude of "negative valence of the threatened punishment multiplied by the perceived probability that a power recipient can avoid the punishment by conformity". (French & Raven, 1959, p.152) Similarly, reward power is another power that relies on leaders' position in organizations and refers to their ability to assign material or psychological

compensations. (Krausz, 1986, p.87) Relying on their formal power, leaders usually provide some type of incentives or benefits to ensure obedience and compliance in return. To make followers move in a direction they want, leaders regard rewards as a critical component, as means to achieve high levels of motivation in workplace. Still, like coercive power of leaders, perception of followers matters. If followers believe that leader has ability to mediate, strength of reward power increase with the magnitude of rewards. (French & Raven, 1959, p.152) A leader's legitimate power rests on his or her relative position within the organisational hierarchy; and similar to the coercive and reward powers of leaders relies on others' readiness to accept that hierarchy. In other words, prevalent belief among followers that it's the right of leader to demand compliance and obedience and their acceptance of leader's influence lays the ground for leaders' legitimate power. That being said, it is possible to regard legitimate power as common acceptance of leader's authority. Followers' internalised belief that leader legitimately has right to dictate and thus regarding obedience as an obligation, forms the structural foundation of legitimate power. (French & Raven, 1959, p.153)

Taking a closer look at recent literature allows one to witness a considerable decrease in the popularity of traditional leadership based on command and control. On the other hand, collaboration and influence has become increasingly critical in today's organisational leadership. (Erez & Isen, 2002, p.1055) In this context, referent power is a leadership power that stems from the trust of others that can be earned by leader in time through collaboration. Owing to followers' admiration, respect or identification with the leader, their desire to join him provides the basis for a leader's referent power. (French & Raven, 1959, p.154) In the light these, since it does not a power obtained as a result of organisational position, as referent power is a personal

or individual power. Similarly, a leader's expert power indicates his or her possession of expertise, more to the point, his or her skills, knowledge, and abilities and others' recognition of these possessions. (French & Rawen, 1959, p.155) Therefore, it originates from leaders' personal qualities, expert power is another personal or individual leadership power.

Through a study in 1965 Raven added another base of power to the list, "information power" to leaders' informational power that stems from their possession of required knowledge. (Northouse, 2019, p.11)

2.1.3 Leadership approaches

As stated earlier, leadership remains to be one of the most heavily researched and written areas in the field of management and organizational behaviour. Long term pursuit of scholars to find a lasting solution to the question of leadership has gone through different stages. In this context, over the last decades, the concept has been examined in terms of personality traits, sets of behaviours or styles, situational properties, and presumed cognitive processes. (Davis & Luthans, 1979) A surface level reading of the literature allows one to witness three major approaches or theories that respectively dominated the leadership literature, which are namely; traits or psychological approach, the behavioural approach and the situational or contingency approach. (Gordon, 2011, p.195)

At the beginning of 1900s possession of charismatic features were considered sufficient to be a leader. In this context, via placing emphasis on the physical and personality characteristics of leaders', scientists sought evidence to test the idea that great leaders are born with the God-given abilities. (Gordon, 2011, p.196) Yet, despite its dominance in the early leadership literature with bulk of the studies focused on the

leaders' traits for decades, since empirical research especially after 1940s revealed that in some conditions individuals with different personal characteristics exhibit different behaviours, scholars concluded that trait approach fails to provide a comprehensive description for leadership. (Brooks, 2009, p.167) As a result, a new era which lasted from 1940s to until the end of 1960s characterised by sustained popularity of behavioural approach, whereby an approximately two decades long era that researchers focused on leader behaviours has been experienced. After 1960s the scholarly attention was turned into the studies aimed to understand leaders' behaviour in different situations. In 1978, a new well-established theory by Burns and Bass, provided Transactional and Transformational Leadership theories to the literature and since then, two leadership theories gained prominence among scholars. (Brownell, 2010, p.365)

2.1.3.1. Traits approach

A surface level reading of the leadership literature allows one to find the roots of the early leadership studies in 'The Great Man' theory, which simply regards leadership as a god- given extraordinary ability;(McCleskey, 2014, p.117) and suggests that leaders are "born and not made". (Brownell, 2010, p.364) Through portraying leaders as heroic characters with some mysterious natural attributes essential for leadership, this theory posits that leadership qualities are things to be carried in genes; or putting differently, some people are born with necessary attributes of leadership, therefore leaders are inborn not made. (Khan et al., 2016, p.1) Based on the assumption that some people with certain inherited traits that set them apart from others and make them 'great', are destined to rise to leadership when needed, this theory provided a limited and scientifically unproven perspective on leadership. Still,

it is important to note that this theory remained popular until 1930s, (Klingborg et al, 2006, p.280) and provided a theoretical ground for trait studies. (McCleskey, 2014, p.117) Years of research between 1930's and 1940's to find out the traits required to become a leader led to the appearance of the trait theories and caused great man theory to fade in scholarly circles. (Klingborg et al, 2006, p.280)

Early attempts to systematically theorize leadership were centred around trait theory which simply depends on the idea that unlike others or at least, more than others, some individuals possess certain traits paving the way to success and leadership for them. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.116; Luthans, 2011, p.419; Yukl, 2013, p.12)

Focusing on personal traits of leaders and assuming that all effective leaders possess a common characteristics pattern, trait approach put that some traits such as physical and personality characteristics, competencies, and values are consistently related to leadership and argued that those with more leadership characteristics are more likely to become effective leaders. (Yukl, 2013, p.12) Further to this, proponents of the trait theory of leadership did hold the view that developing and learning those key traits paves the way to success for leaders. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.116) Having a look at past attempts to provide a framework for leadership under trait theory allows us to witness important contributions of Professor Tead from Columbia University who provided a list to leadership studies detailing the necessary qualities of leaders which are physical, enthusiasm, friendliness, affection, integrity, technical mastery, decisiveness, intelligence, teaching skill and faith. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.116) Still, there is a scholarly consensus that first comprehensive and systematic attempt to identify traits associated with leadership was held by Ralph Stogdill and his team at Ohio University. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.116; Northouse, 2019, p.63) Stogdill's research was built on more than 120 trait studies conducted between 1904 and 1947

revealed a group of important leadership traits differentiating some individuals from others. (Northouse, 2019, p.64) Stogdill's first series research has showed that eight traits, namely; intelligence, alertness, insight, responsibility, initiative, persistence, self-confidence, and sociability make leaders differentiate from average individuals. Yet, he noted that possessing aforementioned traits does not necessarily make an individual a leader. The traits to be possessed have to be relevant to the demand of the leadership situation. (Northouse, 2019, p.64) In other words, it is the situational factors that determine leadership rather than personality factors. In this context, since traits work according to situational conditions, a leader in one situation might be a follower in another situation. (Northouse, 2019, p.64-65) Similar to his first attempt, Stogdill conducted a second survey which was published in 1970s. In his second survey Stogdill modified his first study's description on the role of situation and personality traits, stating that both factors as equally determinative on leadership and identified ten characteristics that were found to be positively associated with leadership, as follows:

1. drive for responsibility and task completion;
2. vigor and persistence in pursuit of goals;
3. risk taking and originality in problem solving;
4. drive to exercise initiative in social situations;
5. self-confidence and sense of personal identity;
6. willingness to accept consequences of decision and action;
7. readiness to absorb interpersonal stress;
8. willingness to tolerate frustration and delay;
9. ability to influence other people's behaviour; and

10. capacity to structure social interaction systems to the purpose at hand. (Northouse, 2019, p.65)

Common traits of leaders and researchers continued to be the main focus of researchers throughout decades of the first half of the twentieth century, and accordingly leadership studies within that period provided a large body of data pointing the important role of various personality traits in the leadership processes. Similar to that of Stogdill, through numerous studies researchers tried to reveal the physical, mental and social characteristics that distinguish the leader from others.

Through taking a closer look at trait literature, Fleenor put that throughout trait era, hundreds of lists of traits were prepared by researchers that typically included characteristics such as “self-confidence, intelligence, ambition, perseverance, assertiveness, emotional stability, creativity, and motivation”. (Fleenor, 2006, p.831)

Despite its considerable weaknesses scientists state that traits approach has some identifiable strengths when compared to its counterparts. Firstly, since trait theories rest on the idea that owing to special traits they possess, leaders are truly different from others, it is consistent with prevalent media and community perceptions which simply regard leaders out-front. Secondly, decades long research behind traits theory makes this approach considerably credible when compared with others. (Northouse, 2019, p.66) Still, studies held by many early researchers to find empirical evidence failed to provide a clear-cut framework enabling us to understand the difference between leaders and followers with respect to their leadership characteristics. (Luthans, 2011, p.419-420) More importantly attempts to reveal relationships between these traits and leadership effectiveness failed to provide reliable evidence. (Fleenor, 2006, p.831)

By taking a closer look at each of the criticisms raised by scientists, it is possible to state that first and foremost weakness of trait approach is found to be its failure to provide a precise list of leadership traits. As noted by scholars, despite countless number of studies conducted, findings have been ambiguous and uncertain at times. Another criticism of trait approach is based on its failure to consider situations. As slightly stated earlier, early studies have empirically revealed that possession of certain traits might be useful in becoming a leader. Yet since situation influences leadership possessing those traits may not allow a leader to maintain his leadership overtime, or become a leader in another situation. (Northouse, 2019, p.66)

2.1.3.2. Behavioural Leadership Approach

The behavioural leadership theories mainly focused on the behavioural patterns of leadership styles and argued that the success of leaders primarily depends on their behaviour rather than their natural attributes. (Brownell, 2010, p.365) Broadly speaking, in complete contrast to the trait theory of leadership, this approach is constructed on the belief that great leaders are made, not born. (Khan et al., 2016, p.2) Therefore, pointing to the actions and the actual behaviours of successful leaders that defined their success story, followers of this theory maintained that adoption of a specific set of behaviours are necessary to become an effective and successful leader. According to behavioural approach anyone who learn and implement certain beneficial behaviours and implement them in the workplace is likely to become an effective leader. During the late 1940s, two major research programs were launched at the Ohio State University and the University of Michigan to explore leadership from a behavioural perspective. (Rost, 1991, p.24)

2.1.3.2.1. Ohio State University Studies

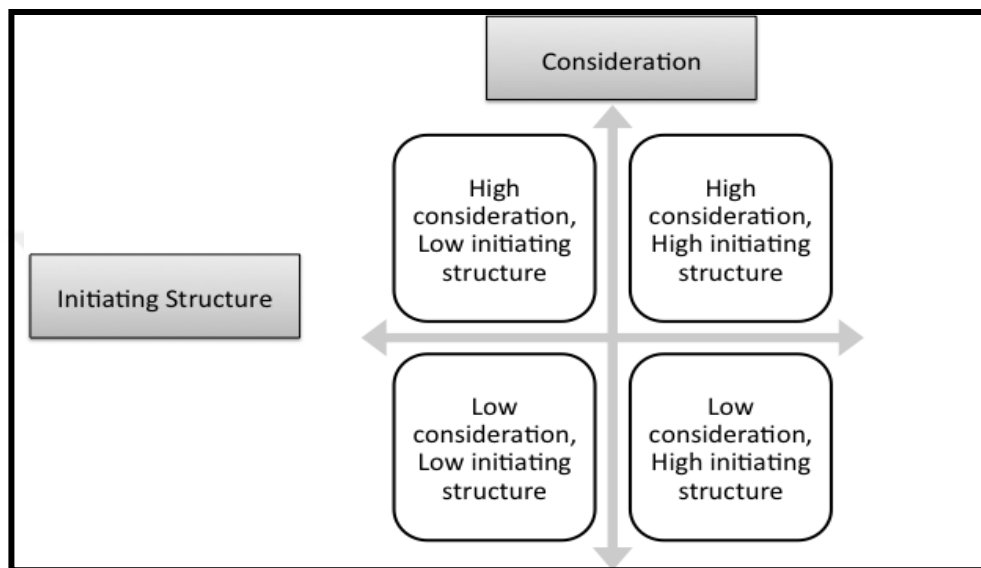
One of the most comprehensive programs in the field of leadership studies was held over a quarter-century ago at Ohio State University. (Schriesheim & Bird, 1979, p.135) That being said, perhaps, the most comprehensive of behavioural theories emerged as a result of a series of researches aimed to identify the independent dimensions of leader behaviour that started in the late 1940s. As stated in the previous section, until the end of 1940s, leadership remained to be a phenomenon associated to personality traits. Accordingly, identification of the traits necessary for effective leadership remained to be a challenge for decades. Considering the weaknesses and failures of trait approach to explain leadership, a group of researchers at Ohio State University decided to undertake the work through taking a novel approach whereby leaders' actions were analysed. (Northouse, 2019, p.72) In an attempt to change long gone belief, through a comprehensive research based on a new questionnaire composed of 150 questions specifically chosen to identify leaders' behaviour, data gathered from hundreds of respondents in educational, military and industrial settings were analysed.

Analysis of survey data identified specific sets of behaviours that were common among leaders. Focusing on behaviours of leaders instead of their traits, Ohio University researchers discovered two critical sets of characteristics of leaders illustrating that leadership performance depends on two categories of behaviours, named as 'Initiating Structure' and 'Consideration'. (Tabernero et al., 2009, p.1394) Taking a closer look towards the two distinct and independent types of leader behaviours representing the core of behavioural approach that were identified through followers' responses, allows us to see that 'initiating structure' includes task related

behaviours of leaders and 'consideration' includes relationship related behaviours of leaders. (Yukl, 2013, p.50)

Figure 1

Ohio State Leadership Studies – Dimensions of Leader Behaviour



Note. <https://www.researchgate.net/>

Initiating Structure refers to a set of behaviour illustrating the extent to which a leader is task oriented and directs subordinate work activities towards goal attainment. (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p.19) Here the leader is the individual who assigns particular tasks to group members and defines standards and objectives to be accomplished within a specific time limits. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.117; Tabernero et al., 2009, p.1394) The role of the task-oriented leader is to provide a clear-cut definition of leader-subordinate role, and make everyone know what is expected. In this context, task-oriented leaders usually establish the formal lines of communication and determine the ways tasks will be performed. (Yukl, 2013, p.50-51) Consideration on the other hand, refers to a set of leader behaviour illustrating a tendency that puts the

employees in the centre, reminding us of democratic and participatory leadership styles. (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p.19) The level of consideration shows leader's level of empathy and his or her focus on group followers. In this context, high consideration behaviour illustrates leader's trust and interest in the followers' feelings, and leader's willingness to create a supportive climate in the workplace whereby warm relationships between leader and followers are observable. (Bass, 1990; Johns & Moser, 2001, p.117; Tabernero et al. 2009, p.1394) Two sets of behaviours were thought of as Northouse states; "not as two points along a single continuum, but as two different continua". (Northouse, 2019, p.137) That is, being an effective leader in task-oriented functions does not promise being similarly effective in relationship behaviours or the other way around for the same leader. There's no relationship between two sets of behaviours. Putting that some traits were common across leaders, Professor Stogdill from Ohio State University concluded that leadership should "be considered in terms of interaction of variables which are in constant flux and change" (Schriesheim & Bird, 2015, p.138) Aforementioned studies paved the way for the emergence of an axis shift in the way of thinking about leadership, more to the point, a shift from thinking leadership in terms of traits someone has, to a new conceptualisation of leadership as a form of activity occurred.

2.1.3.2.2. Michigan University Leadership Studies

Michigan Leadership Studies is another well-known series of leadership studies that was started in 1947 and lasted throughout 1950s by a research team at the University of Michigan under supervision of Rensis Likert. Similar to that of their colleagues at Ohio University, researchers at Michigan University carried out a series of studies focusing on leaders' behaviour. In their studies Michigan University researchers paid special attention to the impact of leaders' behaviours on the

performance of small groups and similarly identified two types of leadership behaviours. (Northouse, 2019, p.73) Building on the work of the Ohio State University, Michigan University research team followed a novel approach by directly concentrating on the behaviour of effective and ineffective supervisors and similarly identified two mutually exclusive dimensions of leader behaviour in which one was a task-oriented axis, known as 'production oriented leadership' and the other one was an interpersonal relations-oriented axis, known as 'employee oriented leadership' (John & Moser, 2001, p.117) Resonating consideration cluster found by Ohio University researchers, employee orientation refers to the leader behaviour addressing employees as human beings with personal needs and desires. (Northouse, 2019, p.73) Resonating initiating structure cluster of Ohio University Studies, production orientation on the other hand, refers leaders' behaviour based on technical and production aspects of the job, rather than human side of the organisation. (Northouse, 2019, p.73-74)

Apart from understanding the principles and methods of effective leadership, the purpose of these studies, which were conducted with employees at different levels working in a wide variety of organisations operating in various industries, was to identify the factors that contribute to the satisfaction and the productivity of the group members. Using criteria such as productivity per work, job satisfaction, turnover, complaints, absenteeism, cost, employee and managerial motivation in studies conducted and via interviews with leaders and followers, Likert's team reached to a conclusion identifying leader behaviours as two distinct styles namely as job centred and employee centred behaviour. (Jain & Duggal, 2018, p.1038).

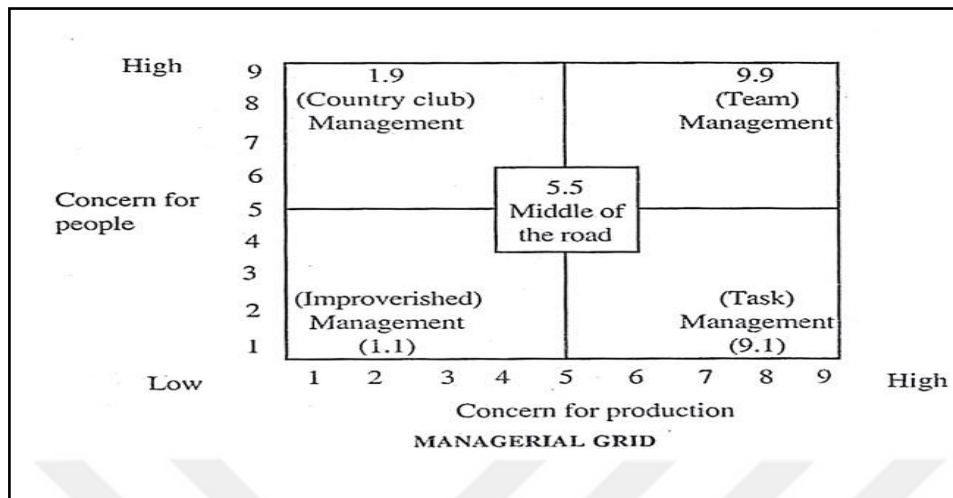
Some of the leading scholars criticised the approaches proposed by Ohio and Michigan University for being failed to produce a solid body of scientific evidence sufficient to guide practice to the study of leadership. (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p.19) Johns and Moser states; “Both studies emphasized observed leader behaviour rather than some supposed capacity inferred from this behaviour. No theoretical assumptions were made that leader behaviour which a leader exhibits in one group situation will be shown in other group situations”. (Johns & Moser, 2001, p.117) Still, as noted under the previous title, Ohio and Michigan University Studies played a pivotal role in promoting the way of understanding leader-employee relations.

2.1.3.2.3. Blake and Mouton's Managerial Grid

Some of the well-known leadership scholars call managerial grid of Blake and Mouton as the best-known model of managerial behaviour. (Northouse, 2019, p.71) Two University of Texas scientists, Robert Blake and Jane Mouton, developed their model through following the footsteps of the Ohio and Michigan University researchers. Managerial grid which first appeared in 1960s and after a few revisions in 1970s and 1980s renamed as leadership grid, was designed to illustrate leaders' role in achieving organisational goals through paying attention to their orientations. (Yukl, 2013, p.57) In this context Blake and Mouton's model tells us that for understanding leadership style of managers special attention has to be paid towards two key areas of concern, namely, people and production concerns of managers. (Northouse, 2019, p.74; Yukl, 2013, p.57) Concern for production is about leaders' orientation in achieving organisational tasks and involves all task related activities like policy decisions, sales volume and so on. (Fisher, 2009, p.359) Concern for people on the other hand, is about leaders' approach towards employees who are crucial for organisations goals and involves people related activities like improving working

conditions, building organisational commitment and so on.(McCleskey, 2014, p.118)

Through managerial or leadership grid, two scholars proposed a graphic portrayal of five major leadership styles: authority–compliance, country-club management, impoverished management, middle-of-the-road management, and team management. (Northouse, 2019, p.75) Based on a model consisting two behavioural dimensions which are ‘concern for people’ on vertical and ‘concern for production’ on ‘horizontal’ axis where each axis ranges from 1 (Low) to 9 (high), two scientists Robert Blake and Jane Mouton have provided a matrix to be used to change and explain the behaviour of managers. (Fisher, 2009, p.359) Concern for people on y axis illustrates the degree in times of deciding how best to achieve a task by focusing on needs of team members, their interests, and areas of personal development. Concern for Production on the other hand on x axis illustrates the degree in times of deciding how best to achieve a task by considering high productivity, concrete objectives and organizational efficiency. That said, as shown in the figure, Blake and Mouton’s model indicates five resulting leadership styles which are Country Club Style Leadership, Produce or Perish Leadership, Impoverished Leadership, Middle of the Road Leadership and Team Leadership. (Koç et al, 2013, p.97)

Figure 2*Managerial Grid Source*

Note. <https://www.iedunote.com>

2.1.3.2.4. McGregor's Theory X and Theory Y

The X and Y approach, which was put forward by Douglas McGregor in his seminal book *Human Side of Enterprise*, in 1960 is based on the divergence in the approaches of two different types of managers to employees. (Kopelman, 2008, p.255)

According to McGregor's leadership theory, leaders with affinity to X approach believe that the majority of people are naturally lazy and therefore reluctant to work or make an effort for organisational purposes. (Kopelman, 2008, p.255; Gordon, 2011, p.196) For this reason, theory X leaders believe that employees are inclined to loaf around and therefore, they usually seek for ways to avoid attending work. That being said, theory X tells us that these employees refrain from taking responsibility, so, they are closed to change and innovation. (Fisher, 2009, p.356) Since leaders

within the scope of theory X think that employees do not have enough dedication to fulfil their duties, they believe that they need to be constantly managed. According to leaders who adopt theory X, the only way to go beyond the ordinary and make employees fulfil the requirements of their job is to either take action to fulfil their self-interest, or make them feel their job is in danger. (Kopelman, 2008, p.255; Fisher, 2009, p.356) These types of leaders think that employees can only be motivated by punishment, position or money. (Fisher, 2009, p.356)

Managers within the scope of Theory Y on the other hand, are committed to the idea that when employees are properly motivated alongside their rightful expectations they usually work hard and give their best. According to these managers, in motivating peoples, taking action to serve their self-actualisation needs works much better than rewards and punishments. (Fisher, 2009, p.356) Therefore, in complete contrast to theory X type leadership, theory Y leaders are inclined to support their teams and members at every opportunity; listen to the problems and suggestions of the group and group members and constantly deal with them. Quite to the contrary to theory X leaders, this type of leaders think that people are creative in the right conditions, committed to their responsibilities and therefore do not need constant supervision and management. (Kopelman, 2008, p.255-257)

2.1.3.3. Contingency Approaches Leadership

Following the framework provided by trait and behavioural approaches numerous studies had been held for decades. Still, since those studies were built on a single perspective concentrating just on leaders themselves, despite their undeniable contribution to leadership literature, they failed to provide satisfactory expressions for leadership and fell short of being adequate overall theories. (Luthans, 2011, p.423)

That said, empirical evidence forced scientists to enhance their researches and in addition to the group being led and the exchange relationship, pay special attention to the situational or contextual aspects of leadership. (Gordon, 2011, p.196) In doing so, as Luthans states “social psychologists began the search for situational variables that affect leadership roles, skills, behaviour, and followers’ performance and satisfaction”. (Luthans, 2011, p.423) Broadly, proposing that a rational understanding of the situation and a suitable response is required for effective leadership, contingency theories opposed the traditional understanding based on a charismatic leader with a large group of dedicated followers (McCleskey, 2014, p.118).

2.1.3.3.1. Fred Fiedler’s Contingency Leadership Model

Fred Fiedler's Contingency Approach is the first of the most well-known contingency approaches. That said, firstly, it is important to note that this theory simply argued that for a leader to be effective, he or she must have ability to adjust his or her leadership style to meet the changing necessities of diverse situations. (Luthans, 2011, p.419) Putting differently, there is no ‘one size fits all’ type leadership to address every situation. Therefore, the most effective way to lead is the one that aligns best with the situation at hand. Fiedler’s theory assumes that group effectiveness will increase through a prior comparison between leadership styles and the requirements of the situation before moving to look for the necessary leadership style for the situation. According to him, all needed is a comparison with the leadership style and the situation at hand. Building on this idea, this approach ascertains that there are three types of situational variables that affect the behaviour of leaders. These are: relationships between leader and subordinates, the degree of task structure, and leader's position power. (Luthans, 2011, p.424)

Relationships Between Leader and Subordinates expresses the degree of acceptance of the leader by the subordinates. These relationships can be in the form of "friendly - hostile", "soft - tense" and "supportive - threatening". The degree of the task structure expresses whether the purpose, decision and solutions to the problems are clearly determined in relation to the job to be performed. Authority Given by the Leader's Position expresses the degree of authority that the leader has in issues such as rewarding, punishing, terminating work, promoting. In some organizations, such powers of the leader are more, while in others they may be less. The situation where such authorizations are high indicates a positive environment for the leadership, while the situation where they are less indicates a negative environment (Koçel, 2007, p. 458; Luthans, 2011, p. 424).

2.1.3.3.2. House's Path-Goal Theory

Another well-known theoretical approach from contingency model is the path-goal theory by Robert House. Similar to that of Fiedler's, House's theory concerns the relationship between leadership styles and situations. In his study shortly after the publication of Fred Fiedler's theory, House suggested that in the absence of motives, through clarification of expectations and taking action to improve the environment, leaders play a crucial role in discovering ways toward individual and group goals. (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p.20) That said, path-goal theory is built on the premise that leaders' behaviour is contingent upon the satisfaction, motivation, and performance of their subordinates. (Luthans, 2011, p.426) Therefore, House put that apart from understanding the organization's goals, identification of the followers' personal goals is necessary for leaders to find the path that will best help them achieve both. Robert House provides four major types or styles of leadership which are namely; directive leadership, supportive leadership, participative leadership and achievement-oriented

leadership.(Luthans, 2011, p.426) Directive leadership refers to an authoritarian type leadership style that leader takes decisions, unilaterally; without any participation from subordinates; supportive leadership that refers friendly and approachable leaders who show a genuine concern for associates; participative leadership reminding organisations whereby leader asks for and uses suggestions from associates but still is the final decision maker; and last but not least, achievement oriented leadership representing leaders who set challenging goals for associates and shows confidence that they will do their best. Having said these, path-goal theory differs from Fiedler's contingency model at one point that path goal theory suggests that these various styles can be and actually are used by the same leader in different situations. (Luthans, 2011, p.426)

2.1.3.3.3. Decision Making Model of Vroom and Yetton

Similar to other process theories, Vroom and Yetton's decision-making model helps to find out the ideal style of decision-making that is best suited for the situation at hand. Key questions are finding the circumstances to allow employees to participate in the decision-making and deciding to the extent that the employees are involved in making decisions. In this model, through a series of questions specifically designed to analyse decision quality, employee commitment and time constraints, via the use of a decision tree manager tries to thoroughly assess the factors needed for decision making and makes the right choice among different forms of decision making. (Simsek et al., 2005, p.266).

This model proposes that there are essentially five different ways in which a manager can make decisions and these are known as; A1 and A2 autocratic decision making,

C1 and C2 consultative decision making and lastly, G2 collaborative decision-making styles. (Yukl, 2013, p.140)

A1 and A2 are called autocratic decision-making styles. In both cases, the leader makes the decision by him or herself without employees' any direct conscious input. Autocratic style A1 refers to the decision making where the manager just makes the decision based relying on his or her own information, without consulting with the employees in any way. Autocratic style A2 refers to the decision-making process whereby manager goes around for getting information from subordinates, without mentioning the problem, without telling them specifically what he or she is about and then still similar to A1, takes the decision alone. So in both of these cases, the manager is decides alone, but in A2 they're getting a little bit more information than they had when they started.

Decision-making Styles, C1 and C2 are known as consultative styles. C1 refers to the decision-making process whereby manager goes around and shares, the problem with each subordinate individually. There is a separate individual conversation with each employee, that manager gets input from every single member of the group and then makes a decision based upon what he or she learned from the conversations.

In C2 which is also consultative similar to the process of C1 manager shares the problems with the subordinates, but now but conversations are being held as a group. So, there is a different dynamic whereby manager gets the input in group setting. Similar to those of the other previous decision-making processes, after learning, whatever there is to learn from, the manager makes the decision alone.

The last decision-making style offered by Vroom-Yetton is G2. G2 is a group decision making model. In this case. The group decides what will done, and the

manager is merely acts as a chairman or as a moderator of the group decision, remains neutral and leaves the decision to the group.

2.1.3.3.4. Hersey and Blanchard Contingency Leadership Model

The study conducted by two Ohio University researchers, Paul Hersey and Kenneth Blanchard is considered as a one of the two early theoretical groundworks¹ that laid the foundations of situational leadership. (Zel, 2001, p.102). The model proposed by Hersey and Blanchard is based on the denial of the idea that any one of the leadership styles is better than another. Further to this, Therefore, instead of purely focusing on task related factors and following a static leadership style in workplace, two scholars suggested leaders' adaptation of their management styles according to the personal characteristics and the readiness, willingness of the followers. (McCleskey, 2014, p.118)

Situational leadership model of Hersey and Blanchard provided a basis for understanding how each power base generates influence in workplace. (Hersey et al., 1979, p.420) The model proposed by two scholars indicated that the maturity level of the followers is crucial for being able to choose the power base to be employed and the right style of leadership with highest probability of success. (Hersey et al, 1979, p.420-421) Putting differently, leaders' style or approach in workplace are related to the maturity of the subordinates. (McCleskey, 2014, p.118)

Considering the continuum proposed by contingency approach on leaders' behaviours as either task or people focused, a deeper look at leadership styles is required to obtain an applicable framework allowing to measure the relationship between leadership and motivation.

¹The other one is Blake and Mouton's Management Style Matrix.

2.1.4. Leadership Styles

The way that leaders prefer to demonstrate their power and authority is broadly known as leadership style. In this sense, leadership styles are related with the behavioural attitudes of leaders whereby functions of leadership are carried out. Taking a closer look at early attempts to leadership styles, allows one to witness that Lewin, Lippitt and White's study of 'social climates' is regarded as a classic by scholars in the field of social psychology. Referred to by some, as the father of modern psychology, Kurt Lewin's view is one of the earliest and biggest contributions to leadership studies in understanding the differing underlying patterns of group behaviour towards authority. In a period that leadership studies were under the domination of trait approach, after running experiments with children that were aimed to see their responses to behaviours, results generated made Lewin take aforementioned decision. In their study published in 1939, Lewin, Lippitt and White identified three major leadership-styles: Autocratic Leadership, Democratic Leadership and Laissez-faire Leadership. (Fiaz et al., 2015, p.145) Through their work on three different leadership patterns three scholars established a starting point on different leadership styles and for decades remained influential among scholars and researchers. Yet in course of time further research has yielded more leadership styles and some additional leadership styles were proposed. Among those, Transactional leadership and Transformational Leadership have become the most cited leadership styles over the course of the past few decades. Due to the absence of a universally accepted definition of leadership in the literature addressing leadership styles is required for a thorough understanding of a leader's role with respect to motivation. Still, due to space constraints, among the diverse leadership styles

available in the literature, those with substantial contributions and related to motivation were selected.

2.1.4.1. Autocratic Leadership

One of the prominent among traditional leadership styles is the autocratic leadership style. As the name suggests, leaders who adopt such a style prefer to hold full authority and therefore, do not support participation. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.97) Resonating the extreme point of the product-oriented leadership proposed by contingency theories, autocratic leadership style is the type in which all management power is in the hands of leader. (Fiaz et al. 2015, p.146) In this style authoritarian decision-making is essential whereby leader makes all the major group decisions and demands compliance from the group members. Such leaders motivate their subordinates through command and orders and criticizing their mistakes. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.97) It is important to know that this leadership style conforms to the expectations of followers who have grown up and educated in autocratic and bureaucratic societies. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.98; Fiaz et al. 2015, p.146) More to the point, in societies where tradition of elder respect is deeply rooted and in daily life decisions are taken by elderly and autocratic relations are prevalent, leaders are expected to use full authority and autocratic leaders usually prevail. That said, it is important to know that the cultural structures of societies are determinative in the leadership styles.

Most people hold negative views of an autocratic leader, often describing them as bossy or a dictator. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.98). Yet, it's a known fact that in need of urgent decisions authoritative leadership style becomes more effective compared to its counterparts. More to the point, in emergency situations that require quick decisions,

in cases that it's important to know who is in charge, in times that group is no more productive, necessitating someone to step forward, take charge and put an end to the longsome processes usually ending with poor decisions authoritative leadership is known to be an effective style. It is important to add that since they have a style that suits the expectations of group members in autocratic and bureaucratic societies, autocratic leaders in those societies enjoy the belief and confidence to act independently and this fact enables them to be more effective, through faster decision-making and implementation. Since the fact that such leaderships are based on purely formal structures whereby group members have limited rights to speak, among the disadvantages of this leadership style, the risk of being exposed to a leader's excessive selfish behaviour is the most frequently observed situation. That said, such a risk usually causes job alienation or employee dissatisfaction that either result with a solid reduction in the creativity of group members or make them lose their desire to do their job. In addition to all these it is important to note that in organisations headed by an autocratic leader who suffer from extreme selfishness, the beliefs and feelings of the group members are not taken into account, and in course of time this usually manifests itself in the form of hatred, demoralization, intra-group conflicts and disagreements that in the end result with leaders' loss of his or her authority. Having said these, despite its drawbacks, it should be kept in mind that the autocratic leadership style is one of the most effective leadership styles, especially in extraordinary situations, when a leader to take decision and immediate implement of decisions is urgently needed.

2.1.4.2. Democratic Leadership

Democratic leadership is a neoclassical approach which attributes importance to individual relations in management. (Fiaz et al. 2015, p.146) Unlike autocratic

leaders, instead of taking decisions merely based on their choices and beliefs, democratic leaders rely on input from employees to make decisions on the application of tasks. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.98) Since they believe in the critical role of internal factors in group members' motivation such leaders exhibit positive attitude towards employees, like recognising and praising good work, and tend to focus on group equality and the free flow of ideas. (Fiaz et al. 2015, p.146-147) That being said, such leaders believe in the principle of participation in practices related to the planning, supervision and management of group activities and usually prefer to share management authority with group members. Putting differently, democratic leaders ensure an open framework for all group members and since they adopt democratic decision making as a principle, such leaders encourage group discussion and believe in decision making through consensus. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.99) So, despite being the final decision maker like their autocratic counterparts, they usually do so only after carefully considering other group members' thoughts, suggestions and ideas. Following this kind of a leadership usually paves way to an organisational climate whereby group members take initiative and risk and at the end of the day feel comfortable with colleagues in similar positions. Through getting help from leaders, group members also become familiar with critical organisational issues like the key importance of balance in workplace and become work-oriented. In so doing employees thoroughly understand their key contribution through participation in decision making processes. In the light of these, it is important to note that democratic leaders usually take role in the activities like other group members, guide and help in the formation of decisions and take action to prevent problems that might arise within group and therefore this type of leadership in general leads to the establishment of a climate

characterised by increased cooperation, positive relationships between the manager and workers, high motivation and sincere satisfaction.

2.1.4.3 Laissez Faire Leadership

Laissez Faire Leadership is a delegative leadership style whereby leader allows members to exercise full freedom, leaving the authority entirely to the initiative of the group members. Laissez-faire leaders' tendency is always towards trust and reliance on their employees. Therefore, unless necessary, such leaders refrain from too much instruction or guidance. (Sudha et al., 2016. p.122) As directing the activities of followers is at minimum level in this type of leadership, a laissez faire leader usually reminds an inactive and ineffective leader figure who is reluctant to lead. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.99) That being said, identifying laissez faire style as avoidance of leadership some scholars define leaders following this line of leadership as "leaders who avoid making decisions, hesitate in taking action, and are absent when needed"(Judge & Piccolo, 2004, p.756) Since instead of a single person taking all decisions, stance of leaders who are committed to laissez faire leadership principles are very hands off, more to the point, inclined to leave management of tasks to followers, this type of leadership is regarded as direct opposite of the autocratic leadership. (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016, p.192)

Having said these, it is important to keep in mind that similar to other leadership styles, application of this leadership style generates some benefits and pitfalls. Laissez Faire leadership is considered by some as a positive leadership style when group members have high levels of expertise and education. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.99) Still, in organizations where laissez faire leadership exist, the group is unstable, not much

results are obtained from the activities. What majority of the relevant literature tells us is that Laisses Faire Leadership generally leads to the lowest productivity among group members. (Anbazhagan & Kotur, 2014) Instead of setting goals, and making decisions, such leaders tend to be a good friend of employee and when needed for better results, they can check in on work performance and provide regular feedback. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.99) That is to say leader provides all training, support and follows an open policy for consultation but decisions are usually left to employees. In some cases, leader might take a prominent role to provide direction at the beginning of a project, but then delegates the work to group members with little oversight. Still, it is important to note that leader is accountable, to the actions and decisions made by employee.

2.1.4.4. Transactional Leadership

Transactional leadership theory was first described by Max Weber and further explored by Bernard M. Bass in the early 1980s. Transactional leaders are known with their role of supervision, organization, and group performance. (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016, p.192) This type of leaders believes in the decisiveness and clarity of chain of command, and therefore, usually tends to measure success according to organization's system of rewards and penalties. That said, basic routine of a transactional leader is to give specific tasks and use rewards and punishments to motivate group members. In organizations lead by transactional leadership, compliance with the instructions and commands of the leader is on the top of the list for group members. Transactional leaders abstain from taking risks and place emphasis on the effective execution of existing businesses rather than change and innovation. (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016, p.192-193) Burns (1978) defined transactional leadership as an exchange between the subordinates and the leader. (Burns, 1978, p.13-

14) Using Maslow's hierarchy of needs to explain two approaches, in his book Burns contrasted transformational leadership with transactional leadership. (Luthans, 2011, p. 430) According to him, transactional leaders are those who are mainly concerned with helping followers meet their lower-level needs at the bottom of Maslow's hierarchy. In this context in organisations led by transactional leadership there is a transaction whereby followers' psychological safety and belonging needs are met in exchange for their hard work.

In this context, employees have some expectations from the leader such as wages and benefits and accordingly the leader also has some expectations from the employees, such as performance. In businesses managed by transactional leaders there is a relationship based on reward and punishment according to the mutual realization of aforementioned expectations. (Sudha et al, 2016, p.112) In this context upon transactional leader's consideration the situation and illustration of the failures, subordinates improve their work performance as desired by the leader, the leader then responds to the subordinate's expectation. When the opposite of what leader expects happens, aforementioned exchange between the leader and the subordinates will become a relationship that rewards and benefits are replaced by pressure and punishment.

Building on these, it is important to note that transactional leaders do not only deliver outstanding performance in constantly developing programs, providing communication, determining purposeful goals, solving problems, but they also provide guidance through extraordinary negotiation skills in decision-making, development and advancement of employees (Celik, 2016, p.147). Transactional leaders, are mostly characterised with their managerial skills and in doing their job

they usually tend to recognise and reward their employees and reinforce their success. (Simsek & Fidan, 2005, p.65).

2.1.4.5. Transformational Leadership

Since the early 1980s, transformational leadership has been a focus of attention among scholars and researchers as part of the new leadership paradigm such that according to an analysis by Love and Gardner (2001) almost one third of the leadership researches since first appearance of the model, discussed transformational leadership. (Northouse, 2019, p.161) According to Bass and Riggio (2006) this model's emphasis on intrinsic motivation and follower development is the main reason behind the unrivalled popularity of Transformational Leaders because such an approach truly conforms with what needed in today's business. (Northouse, 2019, p.161) Taking a closer look at literature enables one to discover numerous definitions usually praising the Transformational Leadership. Northouse vividly puts; transformational leadership is a process that changes and transforms people. It is concerned with emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. It includes assessing followers' motives, satisfying their needs, and treating them as full human beings. (Northouse, 2019, p.161)

Leaders who fall under this model usually take a comprehensive, visionary, compelling leadership role enabling followers to deliver an unusual performance such that they don't just meet expectations but exceed them. (Northouse, 2019, p.161-162) Transformational leaders are characterised by their transforming role and power on organisations and groups. Through their vision such leaders have ability to bring about renewal and differentiation in the institutional structure. (Simsek & Fidan, 2005, p.65). In their seminal book on transformational leadership (2006) Bass and

Riggio defines transformational leaders as those who stimulate and inspire followers to both achieve extraordinary outcomes and, in the process, develop their own leadership capacity. Transformational leaders help followers grow and develop into leaders by responding to individual followers' needs by empowering them and by aligning the objectives and goals of the individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization. (p.3) According to Bass and Riggio, through the provision of support and motivation transformational leaders bring synergy to organization.

A brief level review of Transformational Leadership literature reveals significant findings illustrating the different contributory aspects of transformational leadership. Researchers found transformational leadership significantly influences organisational commitment, employee performance and job satisfaction. (Atmojo, 2012; Celik et al., 2016) Furthermore, groups led by transformational leaders portray higher levels of performance and satisfaction than groups led by other types of leaders. Such leaders create an inspiring vision of future. In this context starting from company's mission and vision, transactional leaders explore ways in which group members are allowed to make direct contribution to the company. (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016, p.196) Since such leaders believe that nothing can be gained without making group members inspired to deliver their best, a transformational leader makes sure what the right ways are to encourage employee, or to be more precise, motivate staff, and use these to inspire your people to deliver their best. Thus, transformational leaders make group members more committed such that for the sake of common good, followers reassess and transcend their own interests. Having said these, as noted by many scholars, transformational leadership can be summarized as “a high-quality leadership performance that increases the awareness of the group in terms of its duties and purposes, ensures the development of the group, expands the interests of the

followers” (Bass & Riggio, 2006) In this context, what Bass and Riggio tell us is that to be able to regard a leader within the scope of transformational leadership one has to consider his or her impact on followers. As two scholars conclude, it is proven via empirical evidence that through their style usually making followers more creative, more resistant to stress, more flexible and open to change and consequently better contributors to the group effort, transformational leaders cause an observable increase in group performance, regardless of whether performance is measured subjectively or by more objective means. (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p.57) In this context, as Bass and Riggio suggest, through its emphasis on intrinsic motivation, transformational leadership represents a more attractive framework compared to the seemingly “cold,” social exchange process of transactional leadership. (Bass & Riggio, 2006)

Bass and Riggio provide us four main components of Transformational Leadership which are Idealised Influence (II), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS) and Individualised Consideration (IC) Here, Individual Consideration refers to the leader’s recognition of individual differences in terms of needs and desires, individualised interaction between leader and followers which after all leads to the creation of a more supportive climate. (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p.7) Idealised Influence refers to transformational leaders’ extraordinary capabilities, persistence, and determination which consequently creates deep respect and a great deal of trust in followers towards their leader. Intellectual Stimulation refers to transformational leaders’ ability to take risks for organisational goals and in in so doing, their recognition of followers through stimulation, creativity and innovation. Lastly, Inspirational Motivation refers to transformational leaders’ behaviour motivating and inspiring those around them beyond expectations. Transformational leaders usually do that by providing purpose, meaning and challenge to their followers’ work. (Bass

& Riggio, 2006) To conclude for this section, transformational Leadership is described as a kind of leading that causes expansion in each of employee's personal capacity. Through setting challenging expectations that require higher performances, and motivating employees to perform above usual expectations, even beyond their presumed potentials, true transformational leaders usually pursue and achieve better results as compared to other leadership styles. In this sense, "transformational leadership is an expansion of transactional leadership". (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p.1)

Transactional exchange relationship based on the conditions set by leader in places under the dictate of transactional leadership, is replaced by a climate that followers are converted into leaders under transformational leadership. According to Avolio and Bass, (2002) through addressing each followers' sense of self-worth, transformational leaders go beyond the limits of transactional leaders in building commitment to organisations and their objectives. They usually manage to do so by employing one or more of the four factors of transformational leadership, which namely are; idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualized consideration. (Avolio & Bass, 2002, p.2)

2.2. The Concept of Motivation and Motivation Theories

Despite long standing interest of scholars in the idea of motivation, taking a brief level look in the relevant literature reveals that apart from a few recently introduced models, nearly all of the models and frameworks of motivation that have been published thus far ground on first real models studied between 1940s and 1950s; and furthermore, they fall into two main categories known as content theories and process theories. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.101)

Among two main schools, content theories are known to be the first real models of human motivation that still attract widespread attention from scholars. Main focus of content theories is to understand what really motivates human beings, what drives individuals to behave in a certain way. For this reason, main premise of these theories is that individuals' behaviour is driven by their changing needs and desires. (Fisher, 2009, p.348)

Considering motivation as a rational process, in process theories on the other hand, concentrate to understand the mental processes by which individuals' behaviour is driven towards a particular direction. In this context to gain an understanding on how certain actions, interactions and contexts motivate individuals' behaviours process theories' focus of attention is towards the interactions between needs, behaviours, and rewards, process theories (Fisher, 2009, p.348) In this context, opposing to one size fits all type approach towards individuals, researchers who hold to process theories highlighted individual differences. According to these theorists, individuals usually analyse their environment and then develop thoughts and feelings and decide on a reaction in specific ways. Therefore these theories attempt to provide explanations on how people make their calculations before being motivated.

2.2.1. Human Nature and The Concept of Motivation

Motivation is described as the sum of efforts to influence the mind and hopes of one or more people in line with a certain goal (Yeşil, 2016, p.158-159). More to the point, motivation is the reason for our actions, willingness and goals. In this sense, when there is motivation, there is enthusiasm. So, motivation is an internal phenomenon. In other words. It is within us. Motivational factors, help us push ourselves to reach goals or objectives.

In the business world, motivation is the process by which workers are encouraged by being convinced that if they work more efficiently and ambitiously, they are likely to be rewarded for their efforts. In other words, the motivation is the power that influences people movement within certain goals with help of incentives. One of the main motivating factors for people is to find a job where they can maintain their living. Also, they need to be safe in the job they found and to earn an adequate wage. Since the post-industrialization period that emerged at the beginning of the 19th century, various and additional consumption needs emerged as a result of which individuals had to earn and spend more. Along with this process, uneasiness, dissatisfaction and reluctance towards work emerged in the working sector in the first years of industrialization, as other factors such as division of labour and specialization, technology developments, mechanization and automation gained importance. This lack of willingness ensured individuals' need for a more effective motivation. In this context, the phenomenon of motivation, which is of great importance, has examined the real motives of willingly engaging employees to their jobs. Generally, it can be defined as the encouragement of employees' incentives for work by meeting their physiological, safety, social, self and development needs. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.100)

In order to increase personnel productivity, enterprises need to investigate the motivations that stimulate their personnel needs. Misdiagnosing the motives causes the majority of the personnel in the enterprises to be inefficient. In order to fully understand the motivation needs of their staff, managers need to know the different needs of their employees, observe their behaviour and be aware that not everyone is alike in their needs. For example, not every worker would be motivated by similar incentives and incentives, such as fear or monetary rewards. Similarly, employees

need to know their environment in order to understand the movements and behaviours of those around them. In doing so, they can establish better relations with their colleagues and managers.

A rational motivation system will contribute to meeting the basic economic and social needs of the employees, increasing their satisfaction from the business, improving their productivity and abilities, and maintaining a healthy competition among each worker. The outward expression of human needs is explained by concepts such as id (lower self), ego (I), and superego (superego). It is the motives that are expected to be met regarding the physiological needs within the personality of the individual and that mobilize pressure on the ego in this regard. Ego is the realistic element of the personality that emerges as a result of the relationship of individuals with the people around them. Inner desires are satisfied with the realistic approaches of the ego. Superego is the element that decides which of the id requests coming through the ego will be brought to the conscious level and which will be reduced to the subconscious.

2.2.2. Motivation Theories

Throughout history, various theories and models on motivation have been developed to be used by managers. The basic idea behind these were to provide a guide to help managers understand the factors that motivate people; and through the use of these factors, enabling managers ensure the maintenance of motivation in the workplace. Yet, despite long standing interest of scholars in the idea of motivation, taking a brief level look in the relevant literature reveals that apart from a few recently introduced models, nearly all of the models and frameworks of motivation that have been published thus far ground on first real models studied between 1940s and 1950s; and furthermore, they fall into two main categories known as content theories and

process theories. (Brooks, 2009, p.81) Among two main schools, content theories are known to be the first real models of human motivation that still attract widespread attention from scholars. Main focus of content theories is to understand what really motivates human beings, what drives individuals to behave in a certain way. (Brooks, 2009, p.81) For this reason, main premise of these theories is that individuals' behaviour is driven by their changing needs and desires. On the other hand, considering motivation as a rational process, process theories' focus is to understand the mental processes by which individuals' behaviour is driven towards a particular direction. (Tosi & Mero, 2003, p.72; Brooks, 2009, p.81) In this context, opposing to one size fits all type approach towards individuals, researchers who hold to process theories highlighted individual differences. According to these theorists, individuals' behaviour is a result of the thoughts and feelings developed after examining the environment. Therefore these theories attempt to provide explanations on how people make their calculations before being motivated.

2.2.2.1. Content Theories of Motivation

A brief level reading of the motivation theories allows us to see that early theories of motivation are generally based on the motives which mainly are the expression of the needs and desires of people. (Fisher, 2009, p.348) These theories are generally called content theories in motivation studies. Among them, the most well-known models are Hierarchy of Needs Approach developed by Abraham Maslow, Two Factor Theory developed by Frederick Herzberg, Need for Achievement Theory developed by David McClelland and VIG Approach of Clayton Alderfer.

2.2.2.1.1. Maslow's Theory of Need Hierarchy

Among content theories Maslow's Theory of Need Hierarchy (1943) is perhaps the most well-known theoretical study. Maslow's model is built on the idea that the most important factors directing human behaviour are needs. (Luthans, 2011, p.163) In this context, understanding the needs of their employees has to be a priority for managers in order to gain insights about their motives. According to theory, only through paying attention to the needs of his or her followers, a manager can be able to create an environment to satisfy followers' needs and in so doing, thoroughly be able to direct them behave in a certain way. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.102) Taking a deeper look enables us to see that Theory of Need Hierarchy is based on the idea that individuals' behaviour is under the dictate of five basic human needs; and in order to understand the behaviour of an individual at a specific moment in time, particular attention has to be paid towards that individual's strongest need. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.102-103) Key claim of Maslow here is that, firstly, humans are compelled to satisfy their basic needs. But as soon as their basic needs are met, they usually stop seeking for basic needs and tend to pursue higher level needs. (Maslow, 1943) As stated earlier, in the first phase of his research in 1943 Maslow stated that individuals seek to satisfy lower-level deficit needs before passing to next level in the hierarchy, more to the point, before seeking higher level needs. (Landy, 1978, p.534; Luthans, 2011, p.163) Yet, here it is important to note that through an article published in 1987, Maslow clarified that satisfaction of a need should not be taken as 100 percent satisfaction and added that as soon as an individual feels more or less satisfied about a set of needs, he/she starts feeling other needs and habitually changes direction towards meeting the next set of needs. Maslow puts that our most basic needs are the ones related to our physical survival, and therefore this group will be the first among

all that will motivate us most and shape our behaviour. Once the first level is fulfilled, the needs next level up is what motivates us, and so on. In this context focus of attention by managers must be on employees' unmet needs. (Fisher, 2009, p.351) Stating that people have a natural, inborn desire to meet their needs, Maslow provided a pyramid shaped hierarchy whereby peoples' needs are ranked according to their importance, with the most basic needs at the bottom. (Luthans, 2011, p.163) Namely, fundamental motives from the bottom to the top are physiological needs, safety needs, social needs, esteem (self-expression) needs, and self-completion needs.

Figure 3

Maslow's hierarchy of needs.



Note. (Maslow, 1954)

According to Maslow, the starting point of motivation is the physiological needs which stand at the lowest level of the need hierarchy. (Maslow, 1943, p.372) Needs like food, water, clothing, shelter and sleep are known as 'Survival Needs' and falls in this category. According to Maslow, psychological needs are the most "prepotent"

among all needs, therefore in the absence of these, no other needs will function as a motive for human beings. (Maslow, 1943, p.373) Until survival needs are properly satisfied, other motivators that exist in upper levels of the pyramid will remain to be out of concern for individuals. (Fisher, 2009, p.351) Therefore, through proper salary and wages managers firstly have to concentrate on the satisfaction of the psychological needs in the work place. As soon as individual's physiological needs are satisfied safety needs, more to the point, physical, financial and emotional safety needs will be the next motivators of individuals. (Maslow, 1943, p.376) That said, personal security, financial security, health security and well-being security are known to be the most expressed safety needs. (Maslow, 1943, p.379) According to Maslow, social needs constitute the next rank of the hierarchy. After psychological and safety needs fulfilled being a social being, make individuals seek relationships with others like belonging to a group, love, affection, etc. (Maslow, 1943, p.380-381) Since at this level the need for emotional relationships drives human behaviour positive relationships between employee and management in an organization becomes very significant in increasing the motivation of employees. That said, fourth level in Maslow's hierarchy refers to human need for respect, self-esteem, and self-confidence. Esteem or ego needs that comprise things like confidence, strength, self-belief, personal and social acceptance, and respect from others. (Luthans, 2011, p.163) To motivate employees with esteem needs, managers need to construct an organisational climate of trust, including praise and recognition from managers and others. Self-actualization needs of human is the top and final stage of Maslow's pyramid and refer to the needs that one can realize his/her real potential and achieve the objectives making him or her ultimately happy. (Maslow, 1943, p.382) That said,

self-actualization needs include the realization of full potential, looking for ultimate experiences, shortly, realisation of self. (Luthans, 2011, p.163)

2.2.2.1.2. Frederick Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

The Double Factor Theory developed by Frederick Herzberg argued that employee satisfaction has two dimensions built on two key factor groups, namely known as motivating factors and hygiene factors. (Luthans, 2011, p.165) Psychologist Frederic Herzberg, in his motivation study on a group of 200 people, concluded that some factors do not significantly influence human attitudes, but that in the absence of these factors, they cause reactions or apathy. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.104-105) Putting differently, according to Herzberg's theory, the development of hygiene factors does not create satisfaction, yet, through eliminating dissatisfaction components of this group lay the groundwork for motivation. (Brooks, 2009, p.94) Therefore, to ensure satisfaction, next step is the application of motivating factors that are primarily associated with the content of the job performance. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.105) As reported by Herzberg, without both, employees will not be truly satisfied and gain the ability to perform well. Having said these, hygiene factors can be broadly defined as the factors that characterize the context or environment of a person's work that their absence might lead to dissatisfaction. (Luthans, 2011, p.165-166) Wage, working conditions, job security, supervision style, the level of relationships in the workplace etc can be regarded as typical examples of hygiene factors. (Fisher, 2009, p.351) Motivating factors on the other hand are primarily intrinsic job elements that directly provide employees a sense of satisfaction, (Fisher, 2009, p.351) such as, achievement, recognition, the nature of work itself, responsibility, advancement at work etc. (Luthans, 2011, p.166)

2.2.2.1.3 David McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory

In an attempt to explain why certain individuals are more motivated to achieve than others, David McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory provided a framework drawing on an argument that individuals have three types of needs to be motivated which namely are; the need to establish relationships or the need for affiliation, the need to gain power, and the need to achieve. (Brooks, 2009, p.90; Fisher, 2009, p.352) The need for achievement refers individuals' need for a sense of accomplishment. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.105) In this context, striving to achieve personal goals or pursuing advancement are typical illustrations of the need for achievement. On the other hand, individuals' need for interaction with others, their need for friendship and their need to be liked are all regarded as affiliation needs. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.105) Lastly, the need to gain power refers individuals 'constant seek to lead, their need to increase personal prestige or status are typical illustrations portraying their need for power. According to McClelland's theory, aforementioned three needs are the principal factors that motivate people, and without their activation, employees never become motivated. (Rybníček et al, 2019, p.444) These needs determine the way in which a person is motivated. (Fisher, 2009, p.352) Still, since all three motivators are not inherent but they are developed through culture and life experiences, each of the individuals has three needs in a different balance. In this context, among three motivators, one of them usually works better than the other two. (Fisher, 2009, p.352) Therefore, managers' main job is to create appropriate work environments through analysing both their own and others' needs for relationship, power, and achievement. (Brooks, 2009, p.93) Recognizing the dominant need in any person helps us to understand how that person is motivated. (Fisher, 2009, p.352)

2.2.2.1.4. Alderfer's ERG Approach

At first glance, Alderfer's ERG Approach seems like a simplified version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Similar to that of Maslow, Alderfer proposed a categorisation of needs. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.103) Following the footsteps of Maslow's hierarchy, condensing five human needs into three Claydon Alderfer proposed 3 groups of needs which from the bottom to the top consists existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs. According to his theory these three needs are basic needs that employees will try to satisfy. (Brooks, 2009, p.89-90)

Existence needs in Alderfer's model involve psychological and safety needs that before him proposed by Maslow's hierarchy at first two levels. Therefore, existence in this theory refers to our basic survival needs as humans. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.103-104) In this category are food and water shelter, good health, and feeling safe. So, according to theory, without satisfaction of basic survival needs, then it's impossible for an individual to focus on other higher needs. Relatedness, refers to individuals' need to relate to other people, more to the point it refers to the relationships. Growth refers to individuals' need for personal development, to be creative, to perform meaningful work. Growth allows one to explore what his or her potential might be within a particular environment. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p. 104)

Apart from his 3 blocked categorisation of needs, rather than a hierarchy as Maslow, Claydon Alderfer proposed three relationships, among the different categories which namely are; Satisfaction-progression, Frustration-regression and Satisfaction-strengthening. Taking a closer look at satisfaction-progression principle allows us to understand that in complete contrast to Maslow's theory, according to Alderfer, an individual's attempt to satisfy one of his or needs does not imply satisfaction of other

needs. (Brooks, 2009, p.90) According to frustration-regression principle, if a higher-level need fails to be filled, then a person may regress and seek to fulfil further lower-level needs instead. In case an ambitious, employees lack growth opportunities, they may become frustrated and in turn tend to seek out more relatedness needs. So, for example, they may start socializing with other members of the team more frequently. And finally, if they're unable to satisfy those relatedness needs too, they will regress again may tend to further satisfy his or her existence needs. (Brooks, 2009, p.90) Lastly satisfaction-strengthening principle refers to an individual's constant seek for satisfaction of an already satisfied need as a result of his or her failure to satisfy another group of needs. In this context, perhaps, the most important difference of the Alderfer's ERG Approach from Maslow's theory, according to Alderfer, is that an individual who wants to meet a high-level need can return to the previous level if he or she fails.

Unlike Maslow's Theory that needs must be satisfied in sequence, starting from the bottom of the pyramid to the top one at a time, according to ERG Theory, different levels of needs can be satisfied at any time. (Brooks, 2009, p.90) Further to this, according to ERG theory without simultaneous satisfaction of existence, relatedness and growth needs, an individual never feels truly motivated. Therefore, to boost motivation managers should look to promote all the elements of ERG theory simultaneously. If a manager limits his or her focus to just one or two aspects of the theory, putting differently if manager ignores one of the need groups, then he or she will fail to motivate employees effectively.

2.2.2.2. Process Theories of Motivation

While content theories' central focus was to explain what motivation is, process theories concentrated on describing how motivation occurs. (Tosi & Mero, 2003, p.72) A closer look at the scope of the motivation theories reveals that while in addressing the practical question of what motivates people, content theories centre on job satisfaction and prescribe the needs and values that must be fulfilled in the job in order to have positive job satisfaction, process theories mainly deal with effort and performance results and attempt to explain cognitive processes of motivated individuals. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.106)

2.2.2.2.1 Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's theory is built on three components which are valence, instrumentality, and expectancy, shortly known as VIE. According to Vroom, motivation is a function of valence, instrumentality and expectancy. (Erez & Isen, 2002, p.1056) Valence is the value given by an individual for a specific action; whether it's worth it or not. (Vroom, 1964, p.576) Putting differently, it's the unique value set by an individual after considering his or her own needs, wants, expectations etc. for a specific outcome. Broadly speaking, valence refers to the price of the outcome in cognitive world of individuals. The value placed by employees on the rewards of an outcome has to be adequate to behave in a certain way. (Brooks, 2009, p.83) On the other hand, instrumentality is the perception of individuals whether the reward will be delivered and their expectations will be actually met. In this sense, instrumentality refers employees' confidence that if they accomplish a specific task, they will be able to reap the outcome. The desired outcome may be a payment, promotion, recognition etc. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.107)

Third and last pillar of Vroom's theory is Expectancy. Expectancy refers to the belief of an individual that his/her effort will help to achieve the targeted results. (Erez & Isen, 2002, p.1055) In this context, apart from past experiences and self-confidence of individuals, their perception about the difficulty of the targeted goal are the main factors that shape the beliefs and thoughts of individuals and determine expectancy. (Landy, 1978, p.534)

As Suciú et al vividly put it, "people will be motivated when they believe that effort will lead to performance, they can see a clear link between performance and certain results and the results are important for them". (Suciú et al, 2013, p.184) According to Vroom, absence of any of the three factors might lead to a decrease in individuals' motivation.

2.2.2.2.2 Porter and Lawler' Expectancy Theory

Drawing on Vroom's model, Porter and Lawler further developed expectancy theory through emphasizing the relationship between performance and satisfaction. (Brooks, 2009, p.85) Similar to Vroom's model, two scholars agreed that if individuals believe that their increased effort will lead to better performance and better performance will then, lead to satisfaction, they will be motivated. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.107) Still, according to Porter and Lawler, performance of an employee is not a phenomenon driven merely by effort. (Luthans, 2011, p.167) In this context, several factors such as personal ability, skills, character, knowledge, role perception play a determinative role in an individual's role to perform a task. According to two scholars, no matter how much effort is expended, performance will not be sufficiently high without appropriate qualifications. (Brooks, 2009, p.85)

Considering the improvement of certain organisational conditions Porter and Lawler aimed to form a sound theoretical underpinning to Vroom, and to provide a ground basis for his model. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.107)

2.2.2.2.3 Equity Theory

According to equity theory, in order to understand the forces behind peoples' actions a closer look at the value aspects of motivation is required. Through his theory in 1963, John Stacey Adams proposed a framework attaching importance to two key components, which are perception of fairness and equity. (Brooks, 2009, p.97) According to equity theory, employees become motivated on the basis of a comparison of their own efforts to both internal standards and others' standards. (Fisher, 2009, p.353) Since people value these two principles, to maintain a dynamic relationship, they constantly compare their contributions to their job with the rewards they received for their contributions. To ensure they are fairly compensated compared to their peers, in doing this calculation, individuals usually take into account the inputs and outputs of their colleagues as well. (Luthans, 2011, p.171) That being said, central focus of Adams' theory is perception of justice, or putting differently, the distribution of resources whether distribution is fair for all relational partners or not. (Küçüközkan, 2015, p.107)

Equity theory indicates that individuals inherently do a calculation between inputs like hard work, knowledge, skills etc. and outputs like pay increase, promotion, recognition etc. More to the point, in an attempt to understand whether the distribution of resources is fair employees usually calculate what they gave and what they received in return comparing to their peers.(Landy, 1978, p.534) In case that individuals feel they are not fairly rewarded for their contribution or unfairly treated

in comparison to others, they feel distressed and alter their inputs to restore equity. (Brooks, 2009, p.97) In this context, according to this theory, it is impossible to achieve a strong and productive relationship with the employees and therefore, create an organisational climate in the workplace motivating employees without achieving aforementioned fair balance.

Figure 4

Schematical Representation of Equity Theory

	$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} < \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other's inputs}}$
	$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} > \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other's inputs}}$
Equity occurs when	$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} = \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other's inputs}}$

Note. (Luthans, 2011, p.170)

2.2.2.3 Self Determination Theory (SDT)

By mid-1980's a novel approach that rather than explaining human behaviour through a disturbed balance of needs and instrumental conditioning, taking overall motivation as result of a complex interactive process between external and internal control was introduced by scholars Edward Deci and Richard Ryan under the name "Self Determination Theory" simply known as SDT. (Pinkas, 2020, p.326) According to SDT, to be motivated satisfaction the three basic psychological needs of individuals are necessary. These are autonomy, competence and relatedness needs. Satisfaction of autonomy, competence and relatedness needs makes individuals

motivated and outperforming in their workplace. (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017, p.4)

Through illustrating individual's motivation on a continuum composed of three main types of motivation, namely, amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation Deci and Ryan followed a path casting some similarities with traditional approaches to motivation. Yet, two scholars went much further through integrating various regulatory styles to their theory. Instead of treating motivation as a unitary concept, focusing on individual's motivation Deci and Ryan provided a much more comprehensive theory based on differentiation of the types of motivation. Leaving classic early conceptualisation of motivation based on intrinsic and extrinsic motivation Deci and Ryan a more detailed comprehensive and empirical model involving sub motivational drives under Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation and absence of any motivational drive. Since then, SDT has become an integral part of the motivation literature gaining much appreciation of scholars, accordingly, SDT applications in motivational research studies have significantly increased. (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017, p.97)

As Pinkas vividly puts, through SDT two scholars provided an illustration of motivation as “a continuum that begins with *amotivation*, goes through different levels of extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation) and finally ends with intrinsic motivation (internal regulation)”. (Pinkas, 2020, p.327)

A closer look towards SDT enables us to see those two scholars simply defined amotivation as the absence of any motivation. (Deci & Ryan, 2008, p.182) In this sense, amotivation refers lack of self-determination of individuals in their actions. On the other hand, the term intrinsic motivation was defined as performing an activity

mainly due to its inherent satisfactions. Completely controlled by internal sources, intrinsically motivated individuals behave in a way to pursue inherent satisfaction, be it a search for novelty, extension of capacity and so on and so forth. In this context, Deci and Ryan regard intrinsically motivated employees as consciously acting individuals seeking pleasure from challenges. (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017, p.4)

Deci and Ryan defined extrinsic motivation as individuals' motivation that is controlled and regulated by the external circumstances that are non-related with the activity itself. (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017, p.5) According to SDT Extrinsic Motivation is composed up of three sub-motivation drives known as; External Regulation, Introjected Regulation and Identified Regulation. External regulation broadly refers motivation due rewards, punishments or constraints. In this context, it is important to know that in contrast to their intrinsically motivated colleagues, externally regulated employees do not feel any kind of attachment to the activity itself. The reason behind their motivation is their evaluation of the tangible consequences; more to the point, their evaluation on the rewards, punishments and constraints. (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017, p.99) Introjected regulation refers individuals' internalisation of the idea that the task is important. Putting differently, according to introjected motivation dimension, employees' motivation relies on their own internalisation of the rules and demands; accordingly, they seek to avoid a sense of guilt for harming their environment. In this context, individuals who find their environment controlling and feel the pressure to do the tasks given fall into this category. (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017, p.99) Lastly, identified regulation dimension refers individuals' motivation due to their understanding the rationale of the tasks.

Purpose of the research

The results to be obtained through this research are expected to be a contribution to the existing body of knowledge illustrating the linkages between leadership styles and motivation. That being said, through demonstrating the role of leadership styles in making employees more motivated and committed to their organizations, research might be a helpful contribution for managers seeking to increase the sense of trust and loyalty in their organizations and enable them to exploit full potential of their workforce. Since, main purpose of this research is to discover the possible relationships between leadership styles and employee motivation and to determine the effect of leadership styles on employees' motivation, problem questions and accordingly, research hypotheses that have been developed for the research are as follows;

This research was conducted at five different five-star hotels operating in Kyrenia, Turkish Republic of Northern Cyprus. The target population of the study was chosen as the full-time employees working at the five-star hotels.

Problem questions:

What are the relationships between leadership styles and employees' multidimensional work motivations?

Sub-problems:

1. Is there a significant difference between Leadership Style perceptions according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the hotel employees?
2. Is there a significant difference between Leadership Style perceptions according to the professional characteristics of the hotel employees?
3. Is there a significant difference between hotel employees' motivations according to their socio-demographic characteristics?
4. Is there a significant difference between hotel employees' motivations according to their professional characteristics?
5. Is there a significant relationship between Leadership Styles and Motivation?
6. Do leadership styles have an impact in predicting employee motivation?

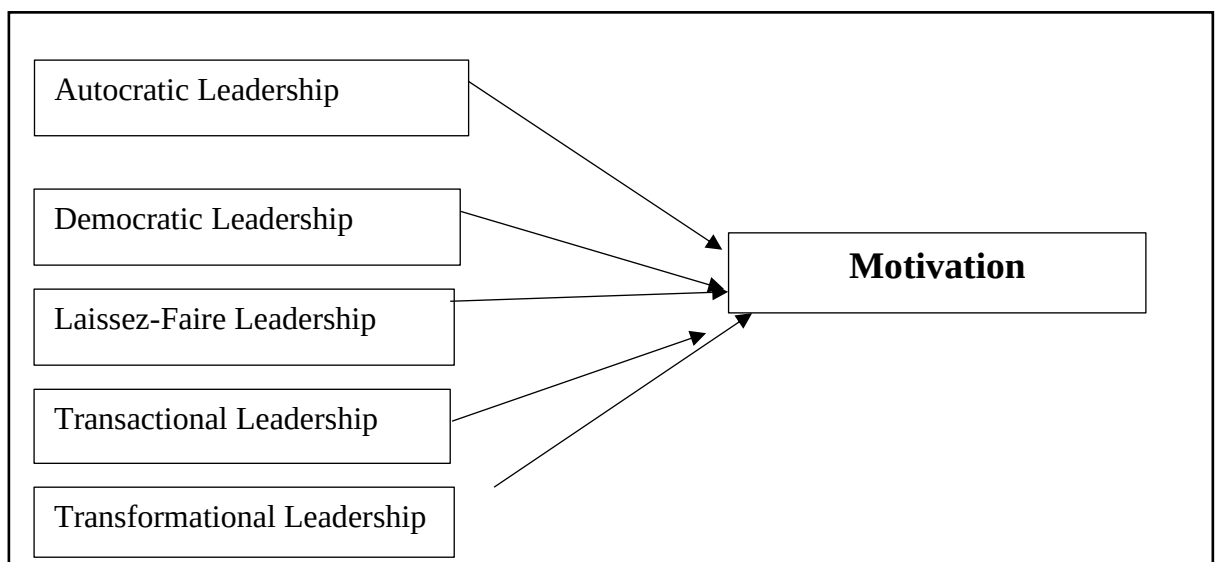
3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Model and Hypotheses

This research utilizes from quantitative research methods to examine the relationship between the leadership styles perceived by the hotel employees and their work motivation; accordingly correlational survey was used in the research. Correlational survey model is a screening approach that aims to determine the existence of co-variation between two or more variables. Within the scope of the research, leadership and leadership styles are taken as independent variables and employee motivation sub-dimensions are taken as dependent variables. To test the hypotheses developed, the following research model is proposed (Figure 5).

Figure 5

Proposed Research Model of the Study



The relation between leadership styles and employee motivation was evaluated through standard regression analysis consisting five main leadership styles (autocratic, democratic, transformational, transactional and laissez-faire style) as independent variables and six dimensions of employee motivation, namely; Intrinsic Motivation, Identified Regulation, Introjected Regulation, External Regulation-Social, External Regulation-Material and Amotivation as dependent variables.

The following main hypotheses were established within the scope of the research model:

Ha1: There is a significant difference between employees' motivation according to the socio-demographic and professional characteristics of the hotel employees

Ha2: There is a significant difference between Leadership Style perceptions according to the sociodemographic and professional characteristics of the hotel employees.

Ha3: There is a significant relationship between Leadership Styles and Motivation

Ha4: Leadership Style is a significant predictor of Motivation

3.2. Population and Sample

The population of this research are 3500 people working in 5-star hotel enterprises located in the district of Kyrenia, TRNC. As it would be difficult in terms of time, cost and control to reach all the participants of this research, using the random sampling method, with a 95% confidence level and 5% sampling error, it was deemed appropriate to interview 346 of 3500 participants. Details of the research sample are as follows:

Sample size;

N: Number of people in the Work Universe

n: Number of individuals to be sampled

p: Occurrence of the investigated event (probability of occurrence)

q: Frequency of non-occurrence of the investigated event (probability of not occurring)

t: At a certain level of significance, the theoretical value found according to the t-table

d: It is the sampling error accepted according to the incidence of the event.

$$n = \frac{N * t^2 * p * q}{(N - 1)d^2 + t^2 * p * q} \quad n = \frac{3500 * (1.96)^2 * 0.50 * 0.50}{(3499)(0.05)^2 + (1.96)^2 * 0.50 * 0.50} = 346$$

The sample size determined was exceeded and, in the end, 429 face to face administered questionnaires were distributed.

Some descriptive characteristics of the sample are given in the tables below:

Table 1

Sociodemographic and occupational characteristics of participants (N=429)

	Number (n)	Percentage (%)
Sex		
Female	165	38,46
Male	264	61,54
Age group ($\bar{x}\pm s=31,79\pm 7,02$)		
19-28	164	38,23
29-38	182	42,42
39 and above	83	19,35
Education level		
Primary	56	13,05
Secondary	156	36,36
Associate degree	81	18,88
Bachelors and above	136	31,70
Nationality		
TRNC	44	10,26
TR	301	70,16
TRNC+TR	84	19,58
Position		
Manager	34	7,93
Chef	99	23,08
Personnel	296	69,00
Department		
Front office	66	15,38
Accounting	62	14,45
Administrative affairs	67	15,62
Service	103	24,01
Kitchen	75	17,48
Housekeeping	56	13,05
Length of employment ($\bar{x}\pm s=3,40\pm 2,57$)		
1-2 years	193	44,99
3-4 years	131	30,54
5 years and more	105	24,48
Professional seniority ($\bar{x}\pm s=8,37\pm 6,27$)		
1-3 years	104	24,24

4-6 years	112	26,11
7-9 years	89	20,75
10 years and more	124	28,90
Monthly income		
3000 TL less	41	9,56
3000-3999 TL	158	36,83
4000-4999 TL	136	31,70
5000 TL and more	94	21,91

Table 1 shows the distribution of hotel employees that participated in the study, according to their socio-demographic and occupational characteristics.

When Table 1. is examined, 38.46% of the participants are female and 61.54% are male, 38.23% are 19-28 years old, 42.42% are 29-38 years old, 19.35% of the respondents were in the 39 and over age group, the mean age was 31.79 ± 7.02 , 13.05% were primary school graduates, 36.36% were high school students, 18.88% were associate degree holders and 31.70% were respondents with a bachelor's degree or higher. 10.26% of the participants were TRNC, 70.16% TR and 19.58% TRNC+TR nationals. Among 429 participants 34 (7.93%) were managers, 99 (23.08%) were chiefs and 296 (69.0%) were other staff.

According to their department, 15.38% of the total respondents were front desk workers.

14.45% of the respondents were from accounting department, 15.62% of them were from administrative affairs, 24.01% of them were from service departments, 17.48% of them were from kitchen and 13.05% of them were housekeeping personnel. The average length

of employment was found 3.40 ± 2.57 years, and the average professional seniority was found 8.37 ± 6.27 years. It was determined that 36.83% of the participants had a monthly income between 3000-3999 TL, 31.70% of them were 4000-4999 TL, and 21.91% of them received a salary of 5000 TL or more.

3.3. Measurement Scales

Measurement Scales of this study used in previous research has showed a single factor and a high reliability. Therefore, in this thesis we did not run factor analysis, first checked the reliabilities and they also proved very high Alpa values. So, we may say that we took the factors as pre-determined and the items have been used in many previous works, leading to a common conclusion that the items fit satisfactorily into their known factors/components. Through a validation study on the multidimensional work motivation scale conducted across seven languages and nine countries and a group of academics led by Gagne (2015) found the scale to have the same factors structure across all countries and languages investigated.

Thus, confirming the robustness, validity and reliability of the scale for use across future studies. (Gagne et al., 2015)

Through their study to elicit leadership approaches of school principals to whom new Primary education program was applied Taş, Çelik, & Tomul tested and validated the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale. (Taş et al., 2007)

In their study entitled “An Updated and Expanded assessment of PLS-SEM in information systems research”, a group of academics led by Joe Hair reported allowance for the use of the validity and reliability scores of previously validated scales. (Hair et al, 2017)

3.3.2. Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS)

Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale developed by Gagné et al. in 2010 was used to determine the work motivation of the participants. The Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale is a Likert-type scale consisting of 19 items. The answer for each item is as; not at all appropriate (1), mostly unsuitable (2), not appropriate (3), moderate (4), appropriate (5), quite appropriate (6) and completely appropriate (7). The Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale consists of six subscales. These subscales are amotivation, extrinsic regulation social, extrinsic regulation material, introjected regulation, identified regulation and intrinsic motivation. (Gagné et al. 2010)

In this study, within the scope of the reliability study of the scale, the Cronbach Alpha test was applied to examine the internal consistency of the responses of the participants to the scale, and the findings are presented below (Table 2).

Table 2*Multi Dimensional Work Motivation Cronbach Alfa Test*

	Alfa
Identified Regulation	0,802
External Regulation-Material	0,767
External Regulation-Social	0,784
Amotivation	0,789
Introjected Regulation	0,832
Intrinsic Motivation	0,747
Overall Scale	0,830

Accordingly, Cronbach Alpha values of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and the sub-dimensions ranged between 0.747 and 0.832, all exceeding 0.70.

3.3.3. Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (LSBS)

The Leadership Style Behaviour Scale developed by Taş, Çelik and Tomul (2007) was used to determine the leadership styles perceived by hotel staff members included in the study about their managers. The Leadership Style Behaviour Scale consists of 59 items developed in Likert type. Responses to the positive items in the scale are scored as "never = 1, rarely = 2, occasionally = 3, mostly = 4, always = 5". Negative items in the scale are scored in reverse. According to the validity-reliability study results of Taş, Çelik, and Tomul (2007), it was determined that the scale consists of 5 factors: autocratic leadership, democratic leadership, laisses-faire, transformational leadership and transactional leadership. The reliability of the scale was carried out through conducting

Cronbach alpha test, which is an internal consistency test, and the findings are shown below.

Table 3

Leadership Style Behavior Scale Cronbach Alfa Test

	Alfa
Autocratic	0,764
Democratic	0,908
Laissez-faire	0,772
Transformational	0,946
Transactional	0,784
Leadership Style Behaviour Scale	0,918

When the Cronbach alpha test results obtained were examined, it was determined that the Cronbach Alpha values taken from the overall scale and its sub-dimensions were above 0.70.

3.4. Data Collection

The questionnaire forms prepared in accordance with the scope of the research were applied between 15 December 2020 and 15 January 2021 in 5-star hotels in Kyrenia district of TRNC. Participants were informed about the study. To make respondents feel safe and provide honest, unbiased feedback, anonymity was integrated to the data collection process. In this context, respondents were informed to fill out the questionnaire forms without their names and return them in sealed envelopes.

3.5. Analysis of The Data

Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) 25.0 software was used for statistical analysis of the research data. The distribution of individuals included in the study according to their socio-demographic characteristics was determined by frequency analysis, and descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, minimum and maximum values were given for the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale.

In order to determine the hypothesis tests to be used in the research hypotheses, the normal distribution of the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale were examined with the Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and the test results found are as follows (Table 4).

Table 4

Multi Dimensional Work Motivation and Leadership Style Behavior Scale Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

	Kolmogorov-Smirnov		
	Statistic	Df	P
Identified Regulation	0,120	428	0,000
External Regulation-Material	0,100	428	0,000
External Regulation-Social	0,078	428	0,000
Amotivation	0,242	428	0,000
Introjected Regulation	0,163	428	0,000
Intrinsic Motivation	0,087	428	0,000
Autocratic	0,076	428	0,000
Democratic	0,086	428	0,000
Laissez – faire	0,055	428	0,004

Transformational	0,078	428	0,000
Transactional	0,082	428	0,000

Since according to the results obtained from Kolmogorov-Smirnov test Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (MWMS) and Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (LSBS) have Shown non-normal distribution, nonparametric hypothesis tests were used in the study. Accordingly, since independent variable consists two categories, comparison of the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to the gender of the participants, was made utilising the Mann-Whitney U test. Since the independent variables were consisted of 3 or more categories, The Kruskal-Wallis H test was applied to compare the scores of the MWMS and LSBS according to participants' education level, position, department and monthly income of the participants. In case of a difference between groups as a result, the Mann-Whitney U test was applied using the Bonferroni correction to determine which the origin categories that caused the difference. To examine the correlations between the ages of the participants, their length of employment in the workplace, their professional seniority and the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale the Spearman tests were applied.

The Spearman test was utilised to discover the correlations between the MWMS and the LSBS of the participants. The predictive status of the LSBS scores of the participants in the MWMS was examined by multivariate linear regression analysis.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Findings Concerning Employee Motivation

In this part of the study, the scores obtained by the hospitality sector employees from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale and the findings related to the comparison of these scores according to their socio-demographic characteristics are given (Table 5).

Table 5

Scores of the Participants from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (N=429)

	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	Min	Max
Amotivation	429	6,11	3,85	4,00	3,00	20,00
Intrinsic Motivation	429	13,30	4,71	13,00	3,00	21,00
Extrinsic Regulation-Social	429	11,15	5,30	12,00	3,00	21,00
Identified Regulation	429	15,69	4,45	16,00	3,00	21,00
Extrinsic Regulation-Material	429	14,18	4,54	15,00	3,00	21,00
Introjected Regulation	429	16,79	4,27	18,00	3,00	21,00

In Table 5, descriptive statistics such as mean, standard deviation, median, minimum and maximum value regarding the scores of the participants from the Multi-Dimensional Work Motivation Scale are given.

When Table 5. is examined participants results that obtained were found as $\bar{x}=6.11\pm3.85$ points in the amotivation sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=13.30\pm4.71$ points in the intrinsic motivation sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=11.15\pm5.30$ points in the external regulation -social sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=15.69\pm4.45$ points in personal regulation sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=14.18\pm4.54$ points in the external regulation-material sub-dimension and $\bar{x}=16.79\pm4.27$ points in the introjected regulation sub-dimension.

Table 6

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to the Gender of the Participants (N=429)

	Sex	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	Z	P
Amotivation	Female	165	6,08	3,78	4,00	215,08	-0,012	0,991
	Male	264	6,13	3,91	4,00	214,95		
Intrinsic Motivation	Female	165	13,73	4,74	14,00	228,72	-1,818	0,069
	Male	264	13,03	4,67	13,00	206,42		
Ext. Regulation-Social	Female	165	10,85	5,42	11,00	207,62	-0,977	0,328
	Male	264	11,33	5,23	12,00	219,61		
Identified Regulation	Female	165	15,51	4,26	15,00	206,70	-1,103	0,270
	Male	264	15,81	4,57	16,00	220,19		
Ext. Regulation-Material	Female	165	14,07	4,58	14,00	210,02	-0,659	0,510
	Male	264	14,25	4,53	15,00	218,11		
Introjected Regulation	Female	165	16,75	4,18	18,00	211,65	-0,448	0,654
	Male	264	16,82	4,33	18,00	217,09		

(Z: Mann-Whitney U test, M=Median, SO=MeanRank)

Table 6. shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U test, utilised to compare participants' scores from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale according to their gender.

Table 6 reported no statistically significant difference between participants' scores from amotivation, internal motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation dimensions of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. ($p > 0,05$). The scores of the female and male participants in the sub-dimensions of amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, personal regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation were similar. So, findings indicated no relationship between gender and motivation.

Table 7

Correlations Between the Ages of the Participants and Their Scores on the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (N=429)

			Age
Amotivation	Rho		-0,113
	P		0,019*
Intrinsic Motivation	Rho		-0,013
	P		0,781
Extrinsic Regulation-Social	Rho		-0,013
	P		0,794
Identified Regulation	Rho		0,141
	P		0,003**
Extrinsic Regulation-Material	Rho		0,063
	P		0,195
Introjected Regulation	Rho		0,125
	P		0,010*

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$ (rho: Spearman test)

Table 7 shows the results of the Spearman test utilised to examine the correlations between the ages of the participants and their scores from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale.

As can be seen in Table 7, the participants' ages and their score from the amotivation dimension in the MWMS was found negative. On the other hand, positive and statistically significant correlations were found between participants' age and the scores obtained from the identified regulation and introjected Regulation dimensions. ($p < 0,05$). So, table reported a negative correlation where by increase in the age of the participants associates with a decrease in their scores from the amotivation dimension in the multidimensional

work motivation scale. By contrast, table shows that increase in age variable is associated with an increase in identified regulation and introjected regulation dimensions.

Table 8

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to the Education Level of the Participants (N=429)

	Education level	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	p	Fark
Amotivation	Primary	56	6,38	3,92	6,00	222,75	0,559	0,906	
	Secondary	156	6,14	3,78	5,00	217,61			
	Associate	81	6,10	4,00	4,00	211,99			
	Bachelors	136	5,98	3,86	4,00	210,61			
Intrinsic Motivation	Primary	56	14,11	4,87	15,00	233,69	6,076	0,108	
	Secondary	156	12,97	4,59	13,00	205,13			
	Associate	81	14,14	4,71	15,00	238,26			
	Bachelors	136	12,84	4,70	13,00	204,77			
External Motivation-Social	Primary	56	12,11	6,09	11,50	234,68	7,340	0,062	
	Secondary	156	11,72	5,14	13,00	230,07			
	Associate	81	10,51	5,58	10,00	199,23			
	Bachelors	136	10,47	4,88	10,00	199,00			
Identified Regulation	Primary	56	16,54	4,66	18,00	245,29	5,867	0,118	
	Secondary	156	16,05	3,94	16,00	220,49			
	Associate	81	15,65	3,95	16,00	208,08			
	Bachelors	136	14,96	5,07	15,00	200,35			
External Regulation-Material	Primary ¹	56	15,07	5,27	15,50	245,95	22,113	0,000**	1-3
	Secondary ²	156	15,21	4,36	15,00	242,43			1-4
	Associate ³	81	13,36	4,25	14,00	187,81			2-3
	Bachelors ⁴	136	13,14	4,32	14,00	186,99			2-4
Introjected Regulation	Primary	56	17,13	4,95	19,00	236,67	3,476	0,324	
	Secondary	156	17,13	3,72	18,00	219,65			
	Associate	81	16,83	4,09	18,00	212,37			
	Bachelors	136	16,26	4,63	17,00	202,31			

** $p < 0,01$ (χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

As shown in Table 8, Kruskal-Wallis H test, that was utilised to compare the scores obtained from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale according to the education level of the participants.

As shown in Table 8, no statistically significant relationship was found between the scores of the participants' education level and the dimensions of amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation and introjected regulation. ($p > 0,05$).

Motivation dimensions of employees primary and secondary school graduates differ from others. A statistically significant relationship between the scores of the participants in the external regulation-material sub-dimension of the MWMS was found ($p < 0,01$). The scores of associates and bachelors with respect to the external regulation-material sub-dimension were found to be lower than those of primary and secondary school graduates.

Table 9

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to the Nationality of the Participants (N=429)

	Nationality	n	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	P
Amotivation	TRNC	44	6,43	3,87	5,50	224,90	0,469	0,791
	TR	301	6,07	3,92	4,00	212,75		
	TRNC+TR	84	6,10	3,63	5,00	217,89		
Intrinsic Motivation	TRNC	44	13,52	4,87	14,00	220,41	0,668	0,716
	TR	301	13,19	4,66	13,00	211,86		
	TRNC+TR	84	13,58	4,81	13,00	223,42		
External Regulation -Social	TRNC	44	11,59	5,02	12,00	224,68	0,739	0,691
	TR	301	11,01	5,44	11,00	211,69		
	TRNC+TR	84	11,39	4,95	12,00	221,78		
Identified Regulation	TRNC	44	15,45	4,04	15,00	202,24	2,467	0,291
	TR	301	15,86	4,51	17,00	221,08		
	TRNC+TR	84	15,21	4,45	15,00	199,89		
External Regulation -Material	TRNC	44	14,16	4,96	14,00	212,91	0,023	0,989
	TR	301	14,18	4,56	14,00	214,93		
	TRNC+TR	84	14,23	4,29	15,00	216,36		
Introjected Regulation	TRNC	44	16,18	4,14	15,00	193,52	1,527	0,466
	TR	301	16,87	4,29	18,00	217,91		
	TRNC+TR	84	16,86	4,27	18,00	215,84		

(χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 9 shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U test for utilised to compare participant scores from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale according to their nationality.

When Table 9 was examined, no statistically significant differences was found in any of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale dimensions according to nationality variable.

($p>0,05$). So obtained results demonstrated no significant difference among TR, TRNC or

TR+TRNC nationals in amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation -material, introjected regulation sub dimensions.

Table 10

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to Their Position in Workplace. (N=429)

	Position	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	P
Amotivation	Manager	34	5,35	3,76	3,00	180,22	3,457	0,178
	Chief	99	5,82	3,40	4,00	212,87		
	Personnel	296	6,30	4,00	5,00	219,71		
Intrinsic Motivation	Manager	34	14,74	5,02	15,00	253,81	3,642	0,162
	Chief	99	13,22	4,86	13,00	211,93		
	Personnel	296	13,16	4,60	13,00	211,57		
External Regulation -Social	Manager	34	11,29	5,17	11,50	216,84	0,039	0,981
	Chief	99	11,20	5,49	12,00	216,73		
	Personnel	296	11,11	5,27	12,00	214,21		
Identified Regulation	Manager	34	17,18	4,14	18,00	262,46	5,734	0,057
	Chief	99	15,79	4,27	15,00	216,39		
	Personnel	296	15,49	4,52	15,00	209,08		
External Regulation -Material	Manager	34	14,21	4,67	15,00	220,29	1,063	0,588
	Chief	99	13,80	4,43	14,00	203,82		
	Personnel	296	14,31	4,58	15,00	218,13		
Introjected Regulation	Manager	34	17,44	4,46	19,00	241,12	1,971	0,373
	Chief	99	17,12	3,76	18,00	218,50		
	Personnel	296	16,61	4,40	18,00	210,83		

(χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

As shown in Table 10, Kruskal-Wallis H test was applied for the comparison of the scores of the participants from the MWMS according to their position at workplace. According to results obtained, no statistically significant difference was found between the scores

obtained from the sub dimensions of motivation. ($p>0,05$). So, no meaningful relationship was found between employee position and motivation subdimensions.

Table 11

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to the Department They Work. (N=429)

	Department	n	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	p	Fark
Amotivation	Front office	66	5,71	3,36	4,00	206,22	3,513	0,621	
	Accounting	62	6,08	4,07	4,50	214,64			
	Admin. Affairs	67	5,66	3,52	3,00	198,44			
	Service	103	6,53	4,34	5,00	225,47			
	Kitchen	75	5,80	3,35	4,00	211,88			
	Housekeeping	56	6,80	4,19	6,50	230,49			
Intrinsic Motivation	Front office	66	12,67	4,67	13,00	199,42	7,280	0,201	
	Accounting	62	12,77	5,24	12,50	202,67			
	Adm. Affairs	67	13,90	4,76	14,00	231,80			
	Service	103	13,25	4,22	13,00	210,60			
	Kitchen	75	14,19	4,87	15,00	241,30			
	Housekeeping	56	12,80	4,63	13,00	199,78			
External Regulation -Social	Front office	66	10,41	4,95	10,50	196,43	6,808	0,235	
	Accounting	62	10,19	5,00	10,00	193,53			
	Admin. Affairs	67	10,85	5,29	11,00	207,16			
	Service	103	11,43	5,00	12,00	221,98			
	Kitchen	75	12,03	5,75	13,00	235,25			
	Housekeeping	56	11,73	5,86	13,00	230,08			
Identified Regulation	Front office ¹	66	15,05	4,42	15,00	193,56	18,038	0,003**	1-5
	Accounting ²	62	14,52	4,77	15,00	184,39			
	Adm.affairs ³	67	15,85	4,62	16,00	222,41			2-5
	Service ⁴	103	15,49	4,50	15,00	208,18			
	Kitchen ⁵	75	17,48	3,31	18,00	263,57			
	Housekeeping ⁶	56	15,55	4,60	15,00	212,79			
External Regulation -Material	Front office	66	14,38	4,29	14,50	216,70	6,095	0,297	
	Accounting	62	13,00	4,81	14,00	184,47			
	Adm.affairs	67	13,76	4,66	14,00	204,96			
	Service	103	14,51	4,31	15,00	221,78			
	Kitchen	75	14,65	4,66	15,00	228,84			
	Housekeeping	56	14,54	4,59	15,00	227,82			
Introjected Regulation	Front office	66	17,42	3,98	18,00	234,86	4,409	0,492	
	Accounting	62	16,08	4,46	16,50	193,70			

Adm.affairs	67	16,66	4,36	18,00	211,36
Service	103	16,63	4,44	18,00	211,14
Kitchen	75	17,29	3,81	18,00	225,95
Housekeeping	56	16,64	4,53	17,00	211,97

****** $p < 0,01$ (χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 11 illustrates the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test, which was used to compare the scores of the participants from the MWMS according to the department they work.

As can be seen in Table 11, no statistically significant difference in participants' scores in amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions of the MWMS was found. ($p > 0,05$). Yet, a statistically significant difference participants' identified regulation sub-dimension scores was found. ($p < 0,05$). The scores that the kitchen department employees got from the identified regulation sub-dimension were found to be higher than the participants' scores of the front office and accounting positions.

Table 12

Correlations Between Participants' Length of Employment in Their Current Workplace and Their Scores from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (N=429)

		Length of employment in workplace
Amotivation	rho	-0,038
	P	0,437
Intrinsic Motivation	rho	0,000
	P	1,000
External Regulation-Social	rho	-0,047
	P	0,336
Identified Regulation	rho	0,058
	P	0,233
Extrinsic Regulation-Material	rho	0,027
	P	0,572
Introjected Regulation	rho	0,005
	P	0,924

(rho: Spearman test)

Table 12 contains the results of the Spearman test, utilised to examine the correlations between participants' length of employment in workplace and their scores obtained from MWMS. Examining the scores of the participants according to the length of employment in the workplace provided that no statistically significant correlations in amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation dimensions exist. ($p > 0,05$).

Table 13

Correlations Between Participants' Professional Seniority and Their Scores From the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale (N=429)

		Professional Seniority
Amotivation	R	-0,042
	P	0,389
Intrinsic Motivation	R	-0,069
	P	0,153
External Regulation	R	0,005
	P	0,918
-Social Identified Regulation	R	0,056
	P	0,250
External Regulation-Material	R	0,050
	P	0,301
Introjected Regulation	R	0,031
	P	0,517

(rho: Spearman test)

In Table 13, Spearman test results regarding the correlations between the professional seniority of the individuals participated in the study and their scores in the MWMS are given.

As shown, no statistically significant correlations were found between the professional seniority of the participants and their scores they got from amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions of the MWMS. ($p>0,05$).

Table 14

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale According to Their Monthly Income (N=429)

	Monthly income	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	p	Fark
Amotivation	Below 3000 TL	41	6,41	3,74	6,00	226,79	3,406	0,333	
	3000-3999 TL	158	6,27	3,69	5,00	224,17			
	4000-4999 TL	136	6,27	4,37	4,00	212,66			
	5000 TL & more	94	5,48	3,33	3,00	197,84			
Intrinsic Motivation	Below 3000 TL	41	13,05	4,24	13,00	206,24	6,988	0,072	
	3000-3999 TL	158	13,43	4,49	14,00	218,87			
	4000-4999 TL	136	12,60	4,85	12,50	196,49			
	5000 TL & more	94	14,19	4,93	15,00	239,10			
External Regulation-Social	Below 3000 TL	41	12,41	5,59	12,00	241,83	2,426	0,489	
	3000-3999 TL	158	10,93	5,06	11,00	210,08			
	4000-4999 TL	136	11,18	5,46	12,00	216,72			
	5000 TL & more	94	10,91	5,35	11,50	209,07			
Identified Regulation	Below 3000 TL ¹	41	16,71	4,29	18,00	245,59	10,632	0,014*	1-2
	3000-3999 TL ²	158	14,94	4,48	15,00	191,42			2-4
	4000-4999 TL ³	136	15,73	4,79	17,00	220,61			
	5000 TL & more ⁴	94	16,47	3,73	17,00	233,18			
External Regulation-Material	Below 3000 TL	41	14,37	4,80	14,00	218,89	1,517	0,678	
	3000-3999 TL	158	14,59	4,18	15,00	223,77			
	4000-4999 TL	136	13,84	5,06	14,00	208,07			
	5000 TL & more	94	13,93	4,25	15,00	208,59			
Introjected Regulation	Below 3000 TL	41	17,29	4,48	19,00	236,32	2,601	0,457	
	3000-3999 TL	158	16,67	3,84	17,00	204,70			
	4000-4999 TL	136	16,70	4,85	18,00	220,13			
	5000 TL & more	94	16,93	4,00	18,00	215,60			

* $p < 0,05$ (χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 14 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test, that was utilised to compare the scores of the participants from the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale according to monthly income of the participants.

When table 14 is examined, no statistically significant difference between the scores of the amotivation, intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, external regulation-material and introjected regulation dimensions of the MWMS was found according to the monthly income of the participants. ($p>0,05$).

A statistically significant difference was found between the scores that the participants obtained from the identified regulation dimension of the MWMS according to monthly income. ($p<0,05$) Accordingly, scores of the employees with a monthly income of 3000-3999 TL was found to be lower in the identified regulation sub-dimension than those with a monthly income below 3000 TL and those earning 5000 TL and more.

4.2. Findings Concerning Leadership Styles

In this part of the study, the results of the participants' scores from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the comparison of the scores obtained from the scale according to the socio-demographic characteristics of the participants are demonstrated.

Table 15

Scores of the Participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (N=429)

	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	Min	Max
Autocratic	429	2,74	0,76	2,60	1,00	5,00
Democratic	429	3,63	0,86	3,77	1,00	5,00
Laissez – Faire	429	3,25	0,44	3,27	2,00	4,64
Transformational	429	3,70	0,91	3,87	1,00	5,00
Transactional	429	3,24	0,77	3,20	1,00	5,00

In table 15, descriptive statistics of the scores of the participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale are shown. According to results obtained, the individuals included in the study got $\bar{x}=2.74\pm0.76$ points from the Autocratic leadership sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=3.63\pm0.86$ points from the Democratic leadership sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=3.25\pm0.44$ points from Laissez-faire leadership sub-dimension, $\bar{x}=3.70\pm0.91$ points from the Transformational leadership sub-dimension, and $\bar{x}=3.24\pm0.77$ points from the Transactional leadership sub-dimension of the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale.

Table 16

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to Their Gender (N=429)

	Gender	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	Z	P
Autocratic	Female	165	2,66	0,76	2,60	203,54	-1,515	0,130
	Male	264	2,79	0,76	2,80	222,16		
Democratic	Female	165	3,71	0,85	3,85	228,59	-1,796	0,072
	Male	264	3,58	0,86	3,69	206,50		
Laissez - Faire	Female	165	3,30	0,43	3,27	228,64	-1,806	0,071
	Male	264	3,22	0,45	3,18	206,47		
Transformational	Female	165	3,84	0,81	3,93	231,48	-2,178	0,029*
	Male	264	3,61	0,96	3,80	204,70		
Transactional	Female	165	3,37	0,74	3,30	235,62	-2,726	0,006**
	Male	264	3,16	0,79	3,20	202,11		

* $p < 0,05$ ** $p < 0,01$ (Z: Mann-Whitney U test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 16 shows the results of the Mann-Whitney U test for the comparison of the scores obtained from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to the gender of the participants.

When Table 16 is examined, no statistically significant difference between participant scores in autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire dimensions of the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale was found according to gender. ($p > 0,05$). On the other hand, it was determined that there is a statistically significant difference between participants' scores in the transformational and transactional dimensions of the LSBS according to gender variable. ($p < 0,05$). The scores of the female participants in transformational and

transactional sub-dimensions were found to be higher than the male participants.

Table 17

Correlations Between the Ages of the Participants and Their Scores on the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (N=429)

			Age
Autocratic	Rho		-0,030
	P		0,534
Democratic	Rho		0,087
	P		0,073
Laissez – Faire	Rho		0,110
	P		0,023
Transformational	Rho		0,112
	P		0,020*
Transactional	Rho		0,095
	P		0,049*

* $p < 0,05$ (rho: Spearman test)

Table 17 shows the findings obtained from the Spearman test on the correlations between the ages of the participants and their scores in the dimensions of Leadership Style Behaviour Scale.

As shown in Table 17, no statistically significant correlations were found in participants' scores in the autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire sub-dimensions of the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to gender. ($p > 0,05$). On the other hand, statistically significant and positive correlations were found between the ages of the participants and their scores in the transformational and transactional leadership dimensions of the

Leadership Style Behaviour Scale. ($p < 0,05$).

According to this, as the ages of the participants increase, their scores on the transformational and transactional leadership dimensions in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale also increase.



Table 18

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to the Education Level of the Participants (N=429)

	Education level	n	$\bar{x}$	s	M	SO	χ^2	P
Autocratic	Primary	56	2,80	0,78	2,85	229,29	0,997	0,802
	Secondary	156	2,73	0,79	2,70	215,62		
	Associate degree	81	2,71	0,68	2,60	210,07		
	Bachelors and more	136	2,75	0,77	2,60	211,34		
Democratic	Primary	56	3,54	1,03	3,69	207,18	1,622	0,654
	Secondary	156	3,60	0,85	3,69	209,70		
	Associate degree	81	3,66	0,69	3,77	212,16		
	Bachelors and more	136	3,68	0,88	3,85	226,00		
Laissez – Faire	Primary	56	3,33	0,54	3,41	238,17	2,509	0,474
	Secondary	156	3,26	0,42	3,18	214,49		
	Associate degree	81	3,23	0,43	3,18	206,04		
	Bachelors and more	136	3,22	0,43	3,27	211,38		
Transformational	Primary	56	3,57	1,14	3,73	208,37	0,490	0,921
	Secondary	156	3,73	0,87	3,83	216,05		
	Associate degree	81	3,71	0,79	3,80	209,93		
	Bachelors and more	136	3,72	0,93	3,93	219,54		
Transactional	Primary	56	3,27	1,02	3,40	230,13	1,096	0,778
	Secondary	156	3,25	0,74	3,30	213,76		
	Associate degree	81	3,27	0,72	3,20	215,69		
	Bachelors and more	136	3,21	0,74	3,20	209,78		

(χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 18 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test regarding the comparison of the scores of the participants of the study from the LSBS according to their education level.

As shown in table 18, no statistically significant difference was found between the scores

of the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS according to the education level of the participants. ($p>0,05$).

Table 19

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to the Nationality of the Participants (N=429)

	Nationality	n	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	p
Autocratic	TRNC	44	2,72	0,75	2,70	215,91	0,055	0,973
	TR	301	2,74	0,73	2,60	214,14		
	TRNC+TR	84	2,76	0,87	2,70	217,62		
Democratic	TRNC	44	3,62	0,72	3,62	204,17	0,418	0,811
	TR	301	3,61	0,89	3,77	215,54		
	TRNC+TR	84	3,69	0,81	3,69	218,74		
Laissez – Faire	TRNC	44	3,25	0,44	3,18	210,31	0,150	0,928
	TR	301	3,26	0,44	3,27	216,48		
	TRNC+TR	84	3,23	0,44	3,27	212,17		
Transformational	TRNC	44	3,81	0,77	3,80	222,52	4,214	0,122
	TR	301	3,64	0,95	3,73	207,44		
	TRNC+TR	84	3,87	0,83	4,07	238,15		
Transactional	TRNC	44	3,41	0,68	3,40	244,76	5,420	0,067
	TR	301	3,19	0,78	3,20	206,23		
	TRNC+TR	84	3,35	0,79	3,30	230,82		

(χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 19 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test regarding the comparison of the scores of the participants from the Leadership Style Scale according to their nationalities.

According to table 19, no statistically significant difference was found between the scores

of the participants in autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to their nationalities. ($p>0,05$).

Table 20

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to the Position Their Position in Workplace (N=429)

	Position	N	$\bar{x}$	S	M	SO	χ^2	p
Autocratic	Manager	34	2,83	0,69	2,65	227,66	0,475	0,789
	Head	99	2,73	0,72	2,70	217,12		
	Personnel	296	2,74	0,78	2,60	212,84		
Democratic	Manager	34	3,87	0,69	3,92	244,18	2,129	0,345
	Head	99	3,62	0,86	3,77	215,58		
	Personnel	296	3,60	0,87	3,77	211,46		
Laissez-Faire	Manager	34	3,34	0,46	3,36	232,10	1,538	0,464
	Head	99	3,20	0,45	3,18	203,71		
	Personnel	296	3,26	0,44	3,27	216,81		
Transformational	Manager	34	4,02	0,74	4,20	257,71	4,772	0,092
	Head	99	3,63	0,94	3,73	204,63		
	Personnel	296	3,69	0,92	3,87	213,56		
Transactional	Manager	34	3,41	0,55	3,40	244,00	2,072	0,355
	Head	99	3,21	0,78	3,20	210,16		
	Personnel	296	3,23	0,79	3,20	213,29		

(χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 20 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test regarding the comparison of the scores obtained by the participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to their position at workplace.

When Table 20 is examined, it has been determined that there is no statistically significant

difference between the scores of the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS according to the position of the participants. ($p>0,05$). In this context, the scores of the participants working as head, managers, and other staff in the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional dimensions are similar.

Table 21

Comparison of the Scores of the Participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to the Department They Work (N=429)

	Department	N	$\bar{x}$	s	M	SO	χ^2	P	Fark
Autocratic	Front office	66	2,59	0,68	2,60	191,84	4,793	0,442	
	Accounting	62	2,73	0,77	2,50	208,74			
	Admin. Affairs	67	2,80	0,72	2,70	222,42			
	Service	103	2,83	0,81	2,80	229,46			
	Kitchen	75	2,71	0,74	2,60	206,75			
	Housekeeping	56	2,77	0,82	2,80	224,80			
Democratic	Front office	66	3,81	0,66	3,77	236,02	3,889	0,565	
	Accounting	62	3,55	0,85	3,62	202,51			
	Admin. Affairs	67	3,69	0,80	3,92	223,78			
	Service	103	3,55	0,84	3,69	203,15			
	Kitchen	75	3,61	0,88	3,77	212,49			
	Housekeeping	56	3,58	1,10	3,73	218,71			
Laissez-Faire	Front office	66	3,24	0,36	3,27	214,24	5,002	0,416	
	Accounting	62	3,22	0,45	3,18	203,32			
	Admin. Affairs	67	3,31	0,45	3,36	235,72			
	Service	103	3,21	0,40	3,18	200,40			
	Kitchen	75	3,31	0,48	3,27	229,81			
	Housekeeping	56	3,23	0,53	3,27	211,04			
Transformational	Front office ¹	66	3,98	0,83	4,00	252,11	13,681	0,018*	1-6
	Accounting ²	62	3,62	0,80	3,63	195,19			
	Admin affairs ³	67	3,86	0,77	4,07	234,97			3-6
	Service ⁴	103	3,63	0,86	3,80	201,95			

Transactional	Kitchen ⁵	75	3,72	0,99	3,87	220,69		
	Housekeeping ⁶	56	3,39	1,15	3,53	185,67		
	Front office	66	3,33	0,70	3,15	214,51	4,404	0,493
	Accounting	62	3,18	0,77	3,20	205,98		
	Admin affairs	67	3,34	0,66	3,30	237,67		
	Service	103	3,17	0,69	3,20	199,78		
	Kitchen	75	3,29	0,88	3,30	222,31		
	Housekeeping	56	3,15	0,97	3,25	216,65		

* $p < 0,05$ (χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 21 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test conducted to compare the participant scores of the LSBS according to the departments they work in.

Examining, results obtained has demonstrated that no statistically significant difference exists between the scores of the Autocratic, Democratic, laissez-faire and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS according to the department they work. ($p > 0,05$).

A statistically significant difference between the participant scores in the transformational dimension of the LSBS was found. ($p < 0,05$). The scores of the participants in the housekeeping department were found to be lower than those working in the front office and administrative affairs departments in the transformational sub-dimension.

Table 22

Correlations Between Participants' Length of Employment and Their Scores on the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (N=429)

		Length of Employment in current workplace
Autocratic	rho	-0,080
	p	0,098
Democratic	rho	-0,015
	p	0,753
Laissez-Faire	rho	0,047
	p	0,327
Transformational	rho	0,053
	p	0,274
Transactional	rho	0,076
	p	0,117
<i>(rho: Spearman test)</i>		

Table 22 shows the results of the Spearman test conducted to determine the correlations between the duration of the participants' work in their current workplace and their scores obtained from LSBS.

As shown in table, result generated indicated no statistically significant correlation between the duration of working in the current workplace and the scores obtained from the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS. ($p > 0,05$).

Table 23

Correlations Between Participants' Professional Seniority and Their Scores From the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale (N=429)

		Professional seniority
Autocratic	R	0,035
	P	0,475
Democratic	R	0,007
	P	0,887
Laissez-Faire	R	-0,027
	P	0,572
Transformational	R	0,036
	P	0,460
Transactional	R	-0,004
	P	0,937

(rho: Spearman test)

Table 23. shows the Spearman test results that examined the correlations between the professional seniority of the participants of participated into the research and their scores obtained from the LSBS.

When Table 23. is examined, no statistically significant correlation between the professional seniority of the participants and their scores they obtained from the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional dimensions of the LSBS was found. ($p > 0,05$).

Table 24

Comparison of the Scores Obtained from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale According to the Monthly Income of the Participants (N=429)

	Monthly income	N	$\bar{x}$	s	M	SO	χ^2	p
Autocratic	Below 3000 TL	41	2,67	0,74	2,50	194,04	1,580	0,664
	3000-3999 TL	158	2,75	0,74	2,70	217,35		
	4000-4999 TL	136	2,72	0,80	2,70	213,53		
	5000 TL and more	94	2,79	0,74	2,70	222,33		
Democratic	Below 3000 TL	41	3,60	1,04	3,77	215,90	7,686	0,053
	3000-3999 TL	158	3,55	0,79	3,69	200,83		
	4000-4999 TL	136	3,59	0,90	3,73	210,57		
	5000 TL andmore	94	3,83	0,78	3,96	244,82		
Laissez-Faire	Below 3000 TL	41	3,34	0,43	3,27	234,61	1,637	0,651
	3000-3999 TL	158	3,22	0,42	3,18	207,89		
	4000-4999 TL	136	3,24	0,46	3,23	214,79		
	5000 TL andmore	94	3,28	0,46	3,27	218,70		
Transformational	Below 3000 TL	41	3,71	1,00	3,87	216,88	4,572	0,206
	3000-3999 TL	158	3,62	0,87	3,73	201,63		
	4000-4999 TL	136	3,69	0,93	3,80	215,39		
	5000 TL andmore	94	3,85	0,92	3,97	236,09		
Transactional	Below 3000 TL	41	3,20	0,75	3,20	206,51	3,599	0,308
	3000-3999 TL	158	3,19	0,77	3,20	203,13		
	4000-4999 TL	136	3,25	0,79	3,30	219,63		
	5000 TL andmore	94	3,34	0,77	3,35	231,96		

* $p < 0,05$ (χ^2 : Kruskal-Wallis H test, M=Median, SO=Mean Rank)

Table 24 shows the results of the Kruskal-Wallis H test which was conducted in order to compare the scores of the participants of the research from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale according to their monthly income.

When Table 24. is examined, it has been determined that there is no statistically significant

difference between the scores of the participants in the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS according to the monthly income of the participants. ($p>0,05$).

4.3. Findings Concerning the Relationship Between Leadership Styles and Motivation

In this part of the research, the relationships between the scores they got from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale were examined and the findings regarding the predictive status of the scores they got from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale for the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale scores were revealed.

Table 25

Correlations Between the Scores of the Participants on the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the Scores on the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale

		Autocratic	Democratic	Laissez Faire	Transformat.	Transactional
Amotivation	rho	0,276	-0,165	-0,177	-0,212	-0,006
	p	0,000**	0,001**	0,000**	0,000**	0,905
Intrinsic Motivation	rho	0,054	0,311	0,218	0,341	0,308
	p	0,269	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**
External Regulation -Social	rho	0,132	0,143	0,261	0,160	0,164
	p	0,006**	0,003**	0,000**	0,001**	0,001**
Identified Regulation	rho	-0,035	0,295	0,296	0,343	0,253
	p	0,476	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**
External Regulation-Material	rho	0,038	0,269	0,285	0,286	0,195
	p	0,428	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**
Introjected Regulation	rho	-0,095	0,269	0,213	0,321	0,174
	p	0,051	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**	0,000**

** $p < 0,05$ (rho: Spearman test)

The spearman test was applied to examine the correlations between the scores of the participants on the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the scores on the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale.

As shown in table 25, it was determined that there were statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the participants in the autocratic sub-dimension of LSBS and the scores received from amotivation and external regulation-social sub-dimension of the MWMS. ($p < 0,05$). Accordingly, as the scores of the participants in the

autocratic sub-dimension increase, the scores they obtained from amotivation and external regulation-social sub-dimensions also increase.

The scores of the participants from the democratic sub-dimension in the LSBS and their scores from amotivation sub-dimension in the MWMS were found to be negative. Yet, statistically significant and positive correlations were found when the scores they received from intrinsic motivation, extrinsic regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions were examined. ($p < 0,05$).

According to these results, an inverse relationship between democratic sub-dimension and amotivation of participants and a direct relationship with other motivation sub dimensions were found. More to the point, table indicates that increase in the scores of the participants in the democratic sub-dimension is associated with the decrease in the scores they get from the amotivation sub-dimension. Yet, since the scores participants received from the intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation increase, relationship between democratic sub-dimension and motivation cast a rather different picture.

The scores that participants received from the laissez-faire sub-dimension in the Leadership Styles Scale and their scores in the amotivation dimension in the MWMS were found to be negatively related. On the other hand, statistically significant and positive correlations were found in their scores from Intrinsic motivation, extrinsic regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions. ($p < 0,05$). If the scores of these participants in the laissez-faire dimension

increase, the scores they get from the amotivation sub-dimension decrease, while the scores they get from the Intrinsic motivation, External regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions increase. Negative relationship was indicated between the scores the participants got from the Transformational sub-dimension in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the scores they got from amotivation sub-dimension. By complete contrast, it has been determined that there are statistically significant and positive correlations between transformational leadership and the Intrinsic motivation, Extrinsic Regulation-Social, Personal regulation, External Regulation-Material and Introjected regulation sub-dimensions in the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. ($p < 0,05$). Accordingly, as the scores of the participants in the transformational sub-dimension increase, the scores they get from the amotivation sub-dimension tends to decrease, and the scores they get from the intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimensions increase.

Lastly, a statistically significant and positive correlations between the scores of the participants from the transactional sub-dimension in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the scores they got from the intrinsic motivation, extrinsic regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-dimension in the MWMS was found. ($p < 0,05$). As the scores of the participants in the transactional sub-dimension increase, the scores they get from the intrinsic motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation sub-

dimensions in the MWMS also increase.

Table 26

The Predictive Status of the Scores of the Participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale to the Scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale

Criterion	Predictors	Un-Standardised		Std	T	p	F	R ²
		B	S.E.	B			P	AdjR ²
Amotivation	(Constant)	5,71	1,55		3,675	0,000**	11,564	0,120
	Autocratic	1,21	0,24	0,24	5,070	0,000**	(0,000**)	(0,110)
	Democratic	0,08	0,29	0,02	0,262	0,794		
	Laissez-faire	-1,10	0,48	-0,13	-2,287	0,023*		
	Transformational	-0,78	0,35	-0,19	-2,256	0,025*		
	Transactional	-1,01	0,33	-0,20	3,037	0,003**		
Intrinsic Motivation	(Constant)	1,30	1,87		0,695	0,487	14,120	0,143
	Autocratic	0,83	0,29	0,13	2,894	0,004**	(0,000**)	(0,133)
	Democratic	0,41	0,35	0,07	1,176	0,240		
	Laissez-faire	0,86	0,58	0,08	1,485	0,138		
	Transformational	1,03	0,42	0,20	2,472	0,014*		
	Transactional	0,50	0,40	0,08	1,254	0,210		
External Regulation -Social	(Constant)	-4,57	2,14		-2,137	0,033*	11,302	0,118
	Autocratic	1,19	0,33	0,17	3,629	0,000**	(0,000**)	(0,107)
	Democratic	-0,11	0,40	-0,02	-0,267	0,789		
	Laissez-faire	3,37	0,66	0,28	5,101	0,000**		
	Transformational	0,39	0,48	0,07	0,817	0,414		
	Transactional	0,13	0,46	0,02	0,294	0,769		
Identified Regulation	(Constant)	2,98	1,76		1,695	0,091	15,400	0,154
	Autocratic	0,50	0,27	0,09	1,844	0,066	(0,000**)	(0,144)
	Democratic	0,30	0,32	0,06	0,917	0,360		
	Laissez-faire	1,96	0,54	0,19	3,609	0,000**		
	Transformational	0,97	0,39	0,20	2,477	0,014*		
	Transactional	0,09	0,38	0,02	0,249	0,804		
External Regulation -Material	(Constant)	1,90	1,81		1,047	0,296	13,436	0,137
	Autocratic	0,68	0,28	0,11	2,423	0,016*	(0,000**)	(0,127)
	Democratic	0,27	0,34	0,05	0,813	0,417		
	Laissez-faire	1,81	0,56	0,18	3,235	0,001**		
	Transformational	1,17	0,40	0,23	2,888	0,004**		
	Transactional	-0,24	0,39	-0,04	-0,616	0,538		

	(Constant)	8,79	1,72		5,106	0,000**	11,347	0,118
	Autocratic	0,23	0,26	0,04	0,866	0,387	(0,000**)	(0,108)
Introjected	Democratic	0,39	0,32	0,08	1,227	0,221		
Regulation	Laissez-faire	0,67	0,53	0,07	1,265	0,207		
	Transformational	1,39	0,38	0,30	3,615	0,000**		
	Transactional	-0,42	0,37	-0,08	-1,146	0,253		

** $p < 0,05$

Table 26. shows the results of the multiple linear regression analysis, used to examine predictive status of the participant scores from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale with respect to the scores of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale.

It was determined that the regression model, in which participant scores obtained from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale predicted the scores they got from the amotivation sub-dimension of the Multidimensional Work Motivation scale, were at a statistically significant level and the variance explained in the model was 11.0%. ($p < 0,05$). The scores of the participants in the autocratic ($\beta = 0.24$; $p < 0.01$) sub-dimension in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale positively affected amotivation scores, democratic ($\beta = -0.13$; $p < 0.05$), transformational ($\beta = -0.19$; $p < 0.05$) and transactional ($\beta = -0.20$; $p < 0.01$) predicted negatively.

It was determined that the scores obtained from the Leadership Styles Scale of the participants were statistically significant and the explained variance was 13.3%, according to the regression model established for the prediction of the scores of the Intrinsic motivation sub-dimension in the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. It was determined that the scores of the participants in the Autocratic ($\beta = 0.13$; $p < 0.01$) and Transformational ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$) sub-dimensions on the Leadership Styles Scale

positively predicted the scores they got in the Intrinsic Motivation sub-dimension.

It was determined that the scores of the participants included in the study from the Leadership Styles Scale were statistically significant and the variance explained by the estimators was 10.7%. It was determined that the scores of the participants in the Autocratic ($\beta=0.17$; $p<0.01$) and Laissez-faire ($\beta=0.28$; $p<0.01$) sub-dimensions of the Leadership Styles Behaviour Scale positively predicted the scores they got in the External Regulation-Social sub-dimension.

It was determined that the scores obtained from the Leadership Styles Behaviour Scale the individuals participating in the study were statistically significant and the variance explained was 14.4%, according to the regression model established for the prediction status of the scores they got from the identified regulation dimension in the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale. It was observed that the scores of the participants in the Laissez faire ($\beta=0.19$; $p<0.01$) and Transformational ($\beta=0.20$; $p<0.05$) dimensions in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale positively predicted the scores obtained in the identified regulation sub-dimension.

The regression model, in which the predictive status of the scores the participants received from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale and the scores from the External Regulation-Material sub-dimension of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale were examined, was found to be statistically significant, and the variance explained by the estimators in the model was found as 12.7%. It was found that scores received in Autocratic ($\beta=0.11$; $p<0.05$), Laissez faire ($\beta=0.18$; $p<0.01$), and Transformational ($\beta=0.23$; $p<0.05$)

dimensions of Leadership Styles Behaviour Scale positively predicted the scores obtained in the external regulation-material sub-dimension.

It was observed that the regression model, the scores of the participants from the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale predicted the scores in the Introjected regulation dimension of the Multidimensional Work Motivation Scale, were at a statistically significant level and the variance explained in the model was 10.8%. ($p < 0,05$). When the model was examined, it was determined that the scores of the participants in the transformational ($\beta = 0.30$; $p < 0.01$) sub-dimensions in the Leadership Style Behaviour Scale predicted positively.

5. DISCUSSION

To shed light on the relationship between leadership styles and motivation, current research firstly examined the relationship between sociodemographic and personal characteristics of the employees and their motivation.

As shown in the previous section, findings of the study indicated no relationship between participants' gender, nationality, tenure, professional seniority and their scores in motivation dimensions. Putting differently, considering the responses obtained from the entire sample, current study found that in addition to gender and nationality, tenure, and professional seniority have no effect on motivation. Taking into account the nature of tourism and hospitality industry, existence of a multi-cultural work environment in hospitality, sectors' synonymity with working hours that are long and unpredictable, industry's demanding hard work and often long, irregular hours, regardless of the role and position could be the explanations of these results. Further to these, lack of reputation and low salaries in the industry might be the other reasons. The lack of enough reputation and insufficient salary levels without taking account the seniority employees in the tourism sector could be the reason for the absence of a relationship between seniority and motivation. Results confirms with many earlier academic works on motivation studies such as; Dündar, Özutku and Taşpınar's (2007) research that reported no significant relationship in intrinsic and extrinsic motivation according to seniority. Similarly, Ebrahimi's (1999) research that showed both male and female business students are equally motivated. Still, taking a closer look at previous studies enables one to witness somewhat differences

between literature and current research findings. For example, in his study on motivation and personal characteristics conducted with participants in six different Chinese organisations, Yang (2011) reported gender as a fairly significant variable for work motivation and illustrated gender as a negatively connected variable with work motivation. Further to this, in his study Yang showed that educational level and monthly income variables were very significant and positively related to work motivation. (p.283). In another study on the impact of demographic variables on employee motivation, Jackalas et al., (2016) found that seniority and particularly length of service have impacts on employee motivation. (p.379)

Based on the results obtained, positive and statistically significant correlations were found between participants' age and their scores in identified regulation and introjected regulation dimensions. Further to this, a negative correlation was found between the participants' ages and their score from the amotivation sub-dimension. Study showed that as the age of the participants increases, their scores from the amotivation sub-dimension in the multidimensional work motivation scale decrease, and their scores from the identified regulation and introjected regulation sub-dimensions increase. Age and motivation parameters were found to be significantly but negatively correlated. In this context, study established that the aging has been associated with a motivational shift and accordingly, increase in age of the employees is positively correlated with identified and introjected regulation dimensions of motivation. Results reported in the research concerning the role of age in motivation did not confirm much of previously obtained results such as; İbicioğlu

et al., (2013) who in their study to determine the internal and external motivation levels of accountants reported no significant relationship between participants' motivation according to age. (İbicioğlu, Özdaşlı, Dalğar, & Yılmaz, 2013, p. 101)

Study reported no relationship between participants' education and their scores in motivation dimensions except their scores in external regulation-material sub-dimension, where study a significant correlation was indicated. Accordingly, the scores of associate and bachelors with respect to the external regulation-material sub-dimension were found to be lower than those of primary and secondary school graduates; confirming the results of Eskildsen et al. (2004) who maintained that when compared to others, highly educated employees will be less satisfied towards their jobs. Similarly, in their research Jackalas et al., (2016) have concluded that increase in education, has an inverse relation with the impact of factors like level of activity, achievement, fear of failure, interest, autonomy, personal principles and material reward; which in turn cause employees to be less motivated. (p.379)

Apart from participants' scores in identified regulation dimension no correlation was found between participants' position and their scores in motivation dimensions. The scores that the kitchen department employees got from the identified regulation sub-dimension were found to be higher than the participants' scores of the front office and accounting positions. A statistically significant difference was found between the scores that the participants got from the identified regulation sub-dimension of the MWMS according to their monthly income. ($p < 0,05$) Participants with a monthly income of 3000-3999 TL got lower scores

from the identified regulation sub-dimension than those with a monthly income of less than 3000 TL, and 5000 TL and above.

In the light of these findings concerning the effect of sociodemographic and professional characteristics of employees on their motivation, there is a significant difference between employees' motivation according to the socio-demographic and professional characteristics of the hotel employees. Therefore, HA1 is substantiated (Ho1 is rejected).

Contrary to some of previously conducted researches, current study found no significant relationship between participant' leadership perceptions according to their education levels. In other words, whether a person's education level is high or low has been found to be a statistically insignificant in terms of their leadership perceptions. The reason for this is might be the leadership's ignorance towards the education level of the employees and prevailed similarity in their treatment towards employees in the hospitality sector.

According to result obtained from reseach, no statistically significant difference was found between the scores of the autocratic, democratic, laissez-faire, transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSBS according to the education level of the participants. ($p>0,05$). Similarly, no relationship between participants' nationality, position, department, length of employment, professional seniority, monthly income and their scores in leadeship styles were found. These findings illustrate some similarities with the previous studies. For example, in his research in private schools Tekin (2020) similarly found no significant relationship between income satisfaction and leadership styles. In a research conducted by Hatipoğlu and Zengin (2018) on the effects of perceived leadership style on

the quality of work life which similarly found no relationship between seniority and participants' perception towards perception of transactional, transformational and laissez faire leadership styles. In his research to examine the relationship between the leadership styles of women school administrators Metin (2020) found no significant relationship in the measured leadership styles perception of the participants according to education variable. Yet it is important to note that some of previous studies reported differing results.

In his study on leadership perceptions of logistics sector employees, Dalgıç (2019) observed significant differences the measured values of LSBS according to the education and length of employment of the participants. Similarly, in his research on the relationship between the leadership styles of women school administrators Metin (2020) found that autocratic leadership scores to be higher in participants with 11-20 years of employment. In his study in education sector Gültekin (2012) measured higher scores in Laissez-faire leadership dimension in participants with 5 years of employment.

Based on the results of the research no significant difference between participants' scores in autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire dimensions of the LSBS were found according to gender variable ($p>0,05$). Still, a statistically significant difference were found between the scores of the participants in the transformational and transactional sub-dimensions of the LSS according to their gender. ($p<0,05$). Accordingly results indicated higher female scores in transformational and transactional dimensions than the scores obtained from male participants. Current research conclusion that gender differences have some effect on the perception of leadership styles confirm the findings of the study held by Dalgıç. In his

study on the relationship between leadership styles perceived by employees in logistics sector employee intention to leave Dalgıç (2019) similarly found significant gender differences in employee perception of leadership styles. Yet, Gökdemir, Yıldırım and Ateş (2020) in their study on the determination of leadership styles of tourist guides of tourist guides that conducted in Çanakkale region, reported no significant differences between gender and leadership styles perceptions of the participants.

Similar to that of the relationship between gender and participants' scores from LSBS, no statistically significant correlations between participants' ages and their scores in autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire dimensions were found LSS. ($p>0,05$). Still, statistically significant and positive correlations were obtained in participants' scores from the transformational and transactional leadership dimensions according to age variable. ($p<0,05$). These findings show similarities and somewhat differentiating results with the previously held studies. In a previous research by Tekin (2020) the relationship between the leadership style behavior of administrators working in private schools and the burnout levels of teachers proved statistically significant differences in the mean scores of participants in autocratic leadership dimension, while showed no significant difference in other leadership styles. Since Tekin's study was conducted with participants from private schools, sectoral differences between two research might be reason behind conflicting results.

Another statistically significant difference in our thesis was between participants' scores in transformational dimension of LSBS according to their department they work in. ($p<0,05$).

Accordingly participants' scores working in the housekeeping department were found to be lower than those working in the front office and administrative affairs departments.

In light of the stated findings, it has been determined that there is a significant relationship between sociodemographic and professional characteristics of the participants and their leadership perceptions. Therefore, null hypothesis that there is no significant relationship between the sociodemographic and professional characteristics of the employees and their leadership style perceptions (H_{20}) was rejected. H_{A2} is substantiated.

As shown in table 22 in the previous section, results obtained indicated statistically significant correlations between LSS and MWMS scores of the participants. According to the results of the correlation analysis, both negative and positive correlations were found. Therefore, in light of the findings null hypothesis that no correlation exists between leadership styles and motivation (H_{30}) was rejected and alternative hypothesis was accepted.

Firstly, it was found that autocratic leadership style is significantly and positively correlated with amotivation and external regulation-social scores of the participants. ($r=0.28$ and $r=0.13$ respectively; $p<0,05$) indicating a direct relationship whereby amotivation and external regulation-social sub dimension scores of participants react the same way with their autocratic leadership scores.

Secondly it was found that democratic leadership scores significantly correlated with all motivation dimensions at 0.05 level and results obtained reported positive correlations between democratic leadership and all motivation dimensions except amotivation that

negatively correlated with democratic leadership. ($r=-0.17$, $p<0,05$)

A similar figure was drawn from the results on the relationship between laissez-faire leadership scores and motivation dimensions. Strong and positive correlations were found between laissez-faire leadership style scores and internal motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation dimensions at 0.05 level except amotivation that negatively correlated with laissez-faire leadership. ($r=-0.177$, $p<0,05$).

Similar to that of the figures between laissez-faire leadership and motivation dimensions, a negative correlation between transformational leadership and amotivation was found from the results obtained $r=-0.212$, $p<0,05$. Conversely, participants' scores illustrated significant and positive correlations between transformational leadership style and internal motivation, external regulation-social, identified regulation, external regulation-material and introjected regulation at 0.05 level with $r=0.341$, $r=0.16$, $r=0.343$, $r=0.286$ and $r=0.174$. respectively.

Lastly, a similar picture was taken from the results demonstrating the relationship between transactional leadership style and motivation dimensions of MWMS. Apart from the results between transactional leadership style and amotivation that negatively correlated, participants' scores have shown the existence of significant and positive correlations between transactional leadership and the rest of the motivation dimensions.

To reveal the predictive effects of Leadership Styles on motivation dimensions a multiple regression analysis was run. Based on resulting data it was found that autocratic, laissez-

laissez-faire, transformational and transactional leadership styles had a significant predictive power on amotivation dimension. While laissez-faire, transformational and transactional styles had positive predictive power, autocratic leadership style predicted amotivation in a negative way.

Based on the results drawn, leadership styles accounted for 11.0% of amotivation dimension scores of the participants. ($p < 0.05$) Differently put, 11% of the amotivation scores could be attributed to leadership styles.

It was found that only autocratic and transformational leadership styles had a significant predictive power on internal motivation dimension ($\beta = 0.13$; $p < 0.01$) and ($\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$) respectively. Both styles predicted internal motivation in a positive way. As a result, leadership styles accounted for 13.3% of the internal motivation scores of the participants. In other words, 13.3% of the internal motivation scores could be attributed to employees' leadership style perceptions.

It was found that only autocratic and laissez-faire leadership styles had a significant and positive predictive power on external regulation-social sub dimension of motivation ($\beta = 0.17$ and $\beta = 0.28$ respectively, $p < 0.01$) Further to this, it was found that only 10.7% of external regulation-social sub dimension of motivation could be attributed to leadership styles.

Regression analysis results demonstrated that only laissez-faire and transformational leadership styles had a significant predictive power on identified regulation dimension of motivation ($\beta = 0.19$; $p < 0.01$ and $\beta = 0.20$; $p < 0.05$ respectively) Study has shown that 14.4%

of identified regulation dimension scores can be explained by leadership styles.

Results obtained has shown that autocratic, laissez-faire and transformational leadership styles had a significant predictive power on external regulation-material sub dimension of motivation ($\beta=0.11$, $\beta=0.18$ and $\beta=0.23$ respectively; $p<0.05$) Results has shown transformational leadership as highest predictor of external regulation-material with ($\beta=0.23$, $p<0.05$) indicating 0.23 change in external regulation-material for a unit of change in transformational leadership scores. Results also shown that 12.7% of the external regulation-material sub dimension scores could be attributed to leadership styles.

Lastly, results obtained from the regression analysis demonstrated that only transformational leadership style had a positive significant predictive power on introjected regulation dimension of motivation ($\beta=0.30$; $p<0.01$) indicating 0.30 change for a unit of increase in the scores obtained from transformational leadership dimension. That being said it is important to add that only 10.8% of the scores obtained from introjected regulation dimension could be attributed to leadership styles.

In the light of the findings, null hypothesis that leadership styles are not a significant predictor of motivation (H_04) was rejected. Since findings revealed that leadership styles will jointly and independently predict employees' motivation, alternative hypothesis (H_{A4}) was confirmed.

5.1. Conclusion

Today's business environment characterised with fierce competition among businesses compels companies to constantly seek for new ways of doing things. Presence of an ever-increasing competition among businesses inevitably creates numerous and considerable challenges. To remain up and running companies need to constantly seek for new ways to create competitive advantage and for doing so, improve their ways of doing things to increase their effectiveness and efficiency at organisational level. To be able to achieve this objective, alongside other many necessary actions, companies need to exploit the full potential of their workforce. Such necessities inevitably make leadership crucially important in organisations' lives. In this context, it has been established in the literature that through their role in the process of bringing the organisational components together for the effective accomplishment of organisational goals, effective leaders play the most critical role for the survival of the businesses. Yet, to date, the impact of sociodemographic and personal characteristics on leadership perceptions and motivation remained to be a neglected area in theoretical literature on motivation and leadership studies. Further to this, at first glance towards the empirical studies thus far allows one to witness a similar scarcity in researches aimed to understand the degree of relationship between leadership and motivation in tourism and hospitality industry. In this context results drawn from current research provided a glimpse of the results drawn from the study showed that there is a significant relationship between sociodemographic and professional characteristics of employees and their motivation. In addition, results drawn from the study showed that there

is a significant relationship between sociodemographic and professional characteristics of employees and their leadership perceptions. Consistent with much of the leadership and motivation literature, the findings of this research revealed strong correlations between autocratic, democratic, laissez faire, transactional and transformational leadership styles and motivation dimensions. Further to this, the findings of this study revealed that the hypothesis tested which stated that perceived leadership styles will predict employees' motivation in workplace was confirmed with transformational leadership having the strongest positive prediction power. Results obtained have shown that among the perceived leadership styles democratic leadership did not show any significant prediction of motivation. In this context findings of the research are consistent with the literature suggesting a significant positive relationship between transformational leadership and employee motivation. (Avolio, 1999; Bass, 1998) These findings support the literature like Bass (1998) which highlighted Transformational leadership as an extraordinary style inspiring and encouraging followers to move from to focus on organisational objectives instead of their self-interest. (Bass, 1998) Further to this, current research is partly in line with much of the previous empirical studies like Uysal, (2021) which found that leaders of hotels who adopt transformational leadership style are more likely to establish a motivation increasing climate in workplace. Yet, contrary to Uysal's (2021) research which reported absence of a significant relationship between transactional and laissez faire leadership styles and employee motivation, current research provided a rather different picture through illustrating significant relationships between both of the aforementioned leadership styles and employee motivation.

5.2. Limitations of the Study

Due to time and budget constraints, the research has certain limitations. Firstly, sample selected for the research was specifically employees of five-star hotels located in a single city in TRNC; and accordingly, the sample size was limited to 429 employees. Secondly, the research was carried out in a period that due Covid 19 pandemic measures, prevalence of disruptions and adverse experiences were visible particularly in tourism and hospitality industry. Throughout the period the research conducted, due to absence of customers and many other economic problems derived from the pandemic employees were going through hard times affecting their work motivation. Third important limitation of the study that should be raised is about the data collection methods employed in the research. The results obtained are limited to the measurement criteria of the data collection tools employed, and therefore, results to obtain might be different in another region or sector.

5.3. Suggestions for Future Research

Considering the scope and limitations of the research a number of suggestions and recommendations worth mentioning. Firstly, as mentioned earlier, the sample used in the research creates a number of limitations. Participants were selected from only five-star hotels and therefore findings might not truly reflect the views of the employees in the hospitality industry. Similarly, as mentioned earlier, since findings of the research rely on the data collected from participants employed in geographically limited area, conducting a similar survey in geographically different locations will be insightful for understanding the

changes in population. Further to these, the research was carried out during pandemic. Although the fact that data collection procedure was done without any need to work remotely, officially applied measures and the adverse conditions of the pandemic that affected everyone's state of mind and behaviour might have caused some implications questioning the validity of the research. In this respect, conducting similar studies in different time frames might be helpful to confirm the findings of the research. Leaving aside all these, in addition to the scales used in this study, repeating the research through the utilisation of different scales in future, involvement of different occupational groups and using data based on long-term observations may provide a better understanding of the relationship between leadership and employee motivation.

5.4. Managerial Implications

The research has some important implications for organizations and managers that worth mentioning. Taking into account the results obtained might be helpful for organizations and managers in understanding employees' needs and in so doing, finding better solutions for organisational HR problems. More to the point, understanding the way to construct a common engagement culture based on encouragement of equality among employees which in turn will keep them committed to their work, dedicated to their organisation and inspired to organisational goals is key for motivation at organisational level. As a result, through such an action, an obvious increase in the contribution of employees for higher customer satisfaction, productivity and profitability will be observed. In addition, confirming previously conducted researches, results obtained indicated that transformational leadership being in the first place, understanding the importance of effective leadership is particularly important in employee motivation. Through shedding light on the hospitality employees' expectations in the utter dark experience brought by

COVID pandemic, this research provided a glimpse of the situation for hotel managers illustrating the importance of leadership styles and things to focus for organisational goals that require higher level of accomplishment, and thus, higher employee motivation.



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Appendix A: Survey Form

Anket No:

ANKET FORMU

Sayın Katılımcı,

Bu anket bilimsel bir çalışma için hazırlanmıştır. Sizden beklenen soruları dikkatlice okuyup içtenlikle cevaplamanızdır. Verdiğiniz cevaplar sadece bilimsel amaçlı kullanılacak olup, otel yöneticileri dahil kesinlikle üçüncü şahıslarla paylaşılmayacaktır. Katkılarınızdan dolayı teşekkür ederiz.

Ceren Güngördü

Yeditepe Üniversitesi

Yükseklisans Öğrencisi

1. Cinsiyetiniz: ()1. Kadın ()2. Erkek

2.Yaşınız :

3.Eğitim Düzeyiniz:

()1. Okur-yazar deęi

()2. Okur-yazar

()3. İlkokul

()4.

Ortaokul

()5. Lise

()6. Önlisans

()7. Lisans

()8. Lisansüstü

4. Uyuřunuz? :

() 1. KKTC () 2.TC () 3.KKTC+TC () 4.Dięer (.....)

5. alıřtıęınız iřletmedeki pozisyonuz ? :

() 1. Gn. Mdr/ Dept. Mdr () 2.řef () 3.Personel

6. Baęlı olduęunuz departman?

() 1. nbro () 2.Muhasebe () 3. İdari İřler
() 4.Servis(F&B) () 5. Mutfak () 6.Housekeeping

7. Bu iřyerinde ka yıldır alıřıyorsunuz ? (yıl)

8. Toplam alıřma sreniz ? (yıl)

9. Aylık geliriniz?: (TL)

Ltfen Arka Sayfaya Geiniz

2. ÇOK BOYUTLU İŞ MOTİVASYONU ÖLÇEĞİ

Her bir soru için **olumsuzdan olumluya doğru** şeklinde 7'li derecelendirme yapılmıştır. Sizden istenen KENDİNİZİ DÜŞÜNEREK her bir soru için uygun gördüğünüz derecelemeyi seçmenizdir.

	Hiç uygun değil	Çoğunlukla uygun değil	Uygun değil	Orta	Uygun	Oldukça uygun	Tamamen uygun
1. Zamanımı israf ettiğimi düşündüğüm için işimde çaba sarf etmiyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
2. İlginç olduğu için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
3. Çaba sarf etmeye değer olmadığını düşündüğüm için işimde az çaba gösteriyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
4. Heyecan verici olduğu için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
5. İşim anlamsız olmasına rağmen neden hala bu işi yaptığımı bilmiyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
6. İşimi yaparken eğlendiğim için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
7. Başkalarının (amir, meslektaş, aile vb.) onayını almak için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
8. İşimde çaba sarf etmenin benim için özel bir anlamı var.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
9. Başkalarının (amir, meslektaş, aile vb.) bana daha fazla saygı duyması için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
10. Bu iş, kişisel değerlerimle uyumlu olduğu için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
11. Başkalarının (amir, meslektaş, aile vb.) bana yönelik eleştirilerinden kaçınmak için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
12. Bu işte çaba sarf etmenin kişisel olarak önemli olduğunu düşündüğüm için işimde çaba gösteriyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
13. Ancak işimde yeterince çaba sarf edersem başkaları (işveren, amir vb.) beni ekonomik olarak ödüllendirirler.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
14. İşimde çaba sarf ederim aksi halde, kendimi kötü hissederim.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
15. İşimde yeterince çaba sarf edersem başkaları (işveren, amir vb.) bana daha fazla iş güvenliği sağlarlar.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
16. Şimdiki işimde çaba sarf ederim aksi halde, kendimi mahcup hissederim.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
17. İşimde yeterince çaba sarf etmezsem işimi kaybetme riskim olur.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()
18. İşim, kendimle gurur duymamı sağladığı için işimde çaba sarf ediyorum.	()	()	()	()	()	()	()

Lütfen Arka Sayfaya Geçiniz

3. LİDERLİK STİLLERİ ÖLÇEĞİ

Her bir soru için **olumsuzdan olumluya doğru** şeklinde 5'li derecelendirme yapılmıştır. Sizden istenen **YÖNETİCİNİZİ DÜŞÜNEREK** her bir soru için uygun gördüğünüz derecelemeyi seçmenizdir.

Yöneticimiz	Hiç	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Her zaman
1.Emir vererek sorun çözmeyi tercih eder.	()	()	()	()	()
2.Karar alma yetkisine sahip tek kişidir.	()	()	()	()	()
3.Güç kaynağı olarak cezayı kullanır.	()	()	()	()	()
4.İçin önemli olan verimliliklerdir.	()	()	()	()	()
5. kendisine bağımlı olunmasından zevk alır.	()	()	()	()	()
6.Çalışanlar yöneticiye karşı güvensizdirler.	()	()	()	()	()
7.Yetki devrine karşıdır.	()	()	()	()	()
8.Yönetim tarzı ile çalışanların yaratıcılığını sınırlar.	()	()	()	()	()
9.Çalışanları yakından takip eder.	()	()	()	()	()
10.Eleştirilmeyi sevmez.	()	()	()	()	()
11.Çalışanları karar alma sürecine katar	()	()	()	()	()
12.Çalışanlarla işbirliği yapar.	()	()	()	()	()
13.İletişim kanallarını açık tutar.	()	()	()	()	()
14.Çalışanların bilgi ve becerilerine önem verir.	()	()	()	()	()
15.Çalışanların niteliklerine uygun sorumluluk verir.	()	()	()	()	()
16.Çalışanlara yaratıcılıklarını ortaya çıkarma fırsatı verir.	()	()	()	()	()
17.Ast ile üst arasında sıcak ilişki kurar.	()	()	()	()	()
18.Çalışanların moralini yükseltecek bir çalışma ortamı oluşturur.	()	()	()	()	()
19.Sorun çözen çalışanın gurur duymasını sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
20.Bilgiyi okulun öğeleriyle paylaşır.	()	()	()	()	()
21.Kurum içerisinde çatışma çıkmasından korkmaz.	()	()	()	()	()
22.Yetkiyi alt kademelere aktarır.	()	()	()	()	()
23.Gücünü yetkisiyle birlikte astlarından alır.	()	()	()	()	()
24.Amaçların açık ve anlaşılır olması için çalışmaz.	()	()	()	()	()
25.Çalışanların motive olmaları için çaba harcamaz.	()	()	()	()	()
26.Çalışanlar kendi kendilerini motive ederler.	()	()	()	()	()
27.Tüm inisiyatif çalışana bırakılmıştır.	()	()	()	()	()
28.İşle ilgili bir şey sorulduğunda ancak görüş bildirir.	()	()	()	()	()
29.Ceza ve ödül sistemini kullanmaz.	()	()	()	()	()
30.Grubun aldığı kararları uygular.	()	()	()	()	()

Lütfen Arka Sayfaya Geçiniz

Yöneticimiz	Hiç	Nadiren	Bazen	Çoğunlukla	Her zaman
31.Yetkilerin nerdeyse tamamını astlara aktarmıştır.	()	()	()	()	()
32.Grubun çalışmalarına katılmaz.	()	()	()	()	()
33.Okulumuzda yaratıcılığın gelişmesine katkıda bulunur.	()	()	()	()	()
34.Kendini grubun üyelerinden biri olarak görür.	()	()	()	()	()
35.Çalışanların yöneticiye güvenmelerini sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
36.Çalışanlar yöneticiye bağlılık duymasını sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
37.Çalışanları örgüt amaçlarının gerçekleştirilmesinin önemine inandırır.	()	()	()	()	()
38.İzleyenlerin değişimi gerçekleştirmelerini sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
39.Farklı ve yeni bakış açısıyla problemlere çözüm bulabilir.	()	()	()	()	()
40.Yöneticimizin örgütsel vizyon oluşturma yeteneği çalışanlar tarafından kabul edilir.	()	()	()	()	()
41.Çalışan desteğini sağlayabilmek için çalışanı güdüleme yollarını bilir.	()	()	()	()	()
42.Düşünce ve eylemleriyle çalışanları yönlendirir.	()	()	()	()	()
43.Büyük beklentiye sahiptir.	()	()	()	()	()
44. astlarıyla bireysel olarak ilgilenerek onlara danışmanlık yapar.	()	()	()	()	()
45.Okulumuzu yeniden yapılandırmak için çaba harcar.	()	()	()	()	()
46.Değişimi gerçekleştirecek kişiler için öğrenme fırsatları sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
47.Okulda adil bir güç paylaşımı sağlar.	()	()	()	()	()
48.Bürokratik engellerden kurtuluşu gerçekleştirir.	()	()	()	()	()
49.Her türlü değişime duyarlı esnek kararlar alır.	()	()	()	()	()
50.Yetkilerini daha çok çaba harcayan çalışanları ödüllendirmede kullanır.	()	()	()	()	()
51.Süre gelen işlerin etkin gerçekleştirilmesi için çalışır.	()	()	()	()	()
52.Çalışanların yenilikçi yönleriyle ilgilenmez.	()	()	()	()	()
53.Geçmişle bugünü bağdaştırmaya çalışır.	()	()	()	()	()
54.Yararlı gelenekleri gelecek nesillere bırakma eğilimindedir.	()	()	()	()	()
55.Gereksinimlerimizi karşılamaya çalışır.	()	()	()	()	()
56.Uzun dönemli görüş açısı yoktur.	()	()	()	()	()
57.Okul etkililiği ile ilgilenir.	()	()	()	()	()
58.Sorumlulukları dağıtır.	()	()	()	()	()
59.Karar almaktan kaçınır.	()	()	()	()	()

Anket Bitmiştir,

Teşekkür Ederiz