

LEADERSHIP STYLE OF TURKISH MIDDLE LEVEL MANAGERS IN
PRIVATE SECTOR AND ITS RELATIONSHIP WITH SUBORDINATE
PERFORMANCE, SATISFACTION, AND COMMITMENT

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ABSTRACT

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The main purpose of the present study was to examine the leadership styles of Turkish middle-level managers and leadership prototypes of Turkish employees in terms of task-oriented and people-oriented behaviours. The secondary purpose was to investigate the effects of incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions on three important work outcomes: performance (task and contextual performance), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment).

A total of 320 people working in a wide range of organizations (71 managers and 239 employees) filled out the questionnaire. Employees rated their actual managers' leadership style and also their ideal manager's leadership style (i.e., leader prototype) in the same questionnaire, while the managers rated their own leadership style as well as their leadership style as perceived by their subordinates. Additionally, supervisory-rated performance and self-rated job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels of employees were obtained.

Results indicated that self-reported leadership styles of Turkish managers were consisting of more people-oriented behaviours than task-oriented behaviours. On the contrary, employees perceived their managers as being more

task-oriented than people-oriented. Ideal leadership style for the employees were comprised of higher levels of both task- and people-oriented behaviours than their actual managers. Incongruence between the actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees predicted job satisfaction levels of the employees only.

The results are discussed together with the implications, strengths and limitations of the study. Some suggestions for future research are made.

Keywords: Leadership, Leadership Prototype, Task vs. People Orientation, Performance, Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment.

ÖZ

TÜRKİYE’DE ÖZEL SEKTÖRDE ÇALIŞAN ORTA KADEME YÖNETİCİLERİN LİDERLİK TARZLARI VE ÇALIŞANLARIN PERFORMANSI, İŞ DOYUMU VE ÖRGÜTSEL BAĞLILIĞI İLE İLİŞKİSİ

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Çalışmanın temel amacı Türkiye’deki orta kademe yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarını ve çalışanların ideal yönetici prototiplerini *işe odaklılık* ve *insana odaklılık* boyutlarında araştırmaktır. Diğer bir amaç da çalışanların mevcut yöneticileri ve ideal yöneticilerinin arasındaki uyum veya farkın çalışan performans, iş tatmini ve bağlılığına olan etkisini incelemektir.

Çalışmaya farklı sektörlerden toplam 320 kişi (71 yönetici ve 239 çalışan) katılmıştır. Çalışanlardan, mevcut yöneticilerinin liderlik tarzları ile kendileri için ideal yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarını değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Yöneticilerden ise, kendi liderlik tarzlarını ve çalışanların onların liderlik tarzlarını nasıl algıladıklarını değerlendirmeleri istenmiştir. Ayrıca, çalışanların iş tatmini ve organizasyonel bağlılık düzeylerine ilişkin özdeğerlendirmeleri ile yöneticileri tarafından yapılan performans değerlendirmeleri alınmıştır.

Analiz sonuçları, yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarının ağırlıklı olarak ne *insana yönelik* ne de *işe yönelik* olduğunu, ancak insana yönelik olma yönünde daha belirgin bir eğilimin var olduğunu göstermiştir. Diğer taraftan, çalışanların, mevcut yöneticilerinin *işe yönelik* yönlerini, *insana yönelik* yönlerinden daha yüksek olarak algıladıkları gözlenmiştir. Çalışanların ideal yöneticilerini değerlendirmelerinde ise bu iki liderlik tarzı arasında anlamlı bir fark olmadığı,

alıřanların ideal ynetici řemalarında hem iře ynelik hem de insana ynelik davranıřların mevcut yneticilerde olandan daha fazla olduđu tespit edilmiřtir.

alıřanların mevcut yneticileri ile ideal ynetici algılamaları arasındaki farkın ve yneticilerin kendilerine iliřkin algılamaları ile alıřanların bu yneticilere iliřkin algılamaları arasındaki farkın alıřanların performansı, iře doyumunu ve rgtsel bađlılıđı zerindeki etkileri hiyerarřik regresyon tekniđi ile incelenmiřtir. İdeal ynetici ve mevcut ynetici algıları arasındaki farkın yalnızca iře doyumunu zerinde anlamlı ve aynı zamanda negatif bir etkisi olduđu bulunmuřtur. zellikle *insana ynelik* liderlik davranıřlarında ideal ve mevcut yneticiler arasındaki fark (ve de yneticilerin kendi deđerlendirmeleriyle alıřanların onları algılaması arasındaki fark) arttıka, iře doyumunun azaldıđı gzlenmiřtir.

Elde edilen verilerin kuramsal ve uygulamaya ynelik dođurguları ele alınmıřtır. alıřmanın gl olan ynleri ve sınırlılıkları ile birlikte ileriki alıřmalar iin bazı nerilerde bulunulmuřtur.

Anahtar Kelimeler: Liderlik, Lider Prototipi, İře ve İnsan Ynelik Olma, Performans, İře Doyumu, rgtsel Bađlılık

To my parents
&
Barış

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TABLE OF CONTENTS

PLAGIARISM.....	iii
ABSTRACT.....	iv
ÖZ.....	vi
DEDICATION.....	viii
ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS.....	ix
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	x
LIST OF TABLES	xiii
LIST OF FIGURES.....	xvi
CHAPTER	
1. INTRODUCTION.....	1
1.1. Overview	1
1.2. Leadership Theories	1
1.3 Leadership and Work Outcomes: Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Subordinate Performance.....	10
1.3.1. Job Satisfaction	10
1.3.2. Organizational Commitment	11
1.3.3. Performance	12
1.3.4 The Relationships between Leadership and Work Outcomes	13
2. LEADERSHIP AND PERCEPTION OF THE LEADER	15
2.1 Employee Perceptions and Leadership Prototypes	15
2.2 Culture and Leadership	18
2.3. Leadership in the Turkish Context	23
2.4. Implications and Hypotheses	27
3. METHOD	31
3.1 Sample	31
3.2 Measures	32

3.2.1 Measurement of Leadership Styles.....	33
3.2.2 Measurement of Job Satisfaction	35
3.2.3 Measurement of Organizational Commitment	36
3.2.4 Measurement of Performance	36
3.3 Procedure	37
3.4 Analyses	37
4. ANALYSIS	40
4.1 Sample Characteristics	40
4.2 Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses.....	42
4.3 Descriptive Statistics	43
4.4 Hypotheses Testing	49
4.4.1 Leadership Style of Managers and Leadership Prototypes of Employees	50
4.4.2 Effects of Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Leadership Style on Organizational Outcomes	56
4.4.2.1 Calculation of Congruence/Incongruence	56
4.4.2.2. Regression Analyses	58
4.4.2.2.1 Prediction of Task and Contextual Performance	58
4.4.2.2.2 Prediction of Job Satisfaction	64
4.4.2.2.3 Prediction of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment	67
4.4.2.2.4 Prediction of Work Outcomes by Incongruences based on Transformational, Transactional, and Instrumental Leadership	72
4.4.2.2.5 Most and Least Preferred Leadership Behaviours: An Item-based Analysis.....	77
4.4.2.2.6 Effects of Order of the Ideal vs. Actual Leader Items....	77
5. DISCUSSION	81
5.1 Overview	81
5.2. Demographic Variables and Correlations among the Variables	81
5.3 Results of Hypothesis Testing	83

5.3.1. Leadership Style of the Managers	83
5.3.2. Leadership Style of Ideal Managers	84
5.3.3. Congruence of Leadership Style Perceptions and Work Outcomes	86
5.3.4. A General Discussion of Actual and Ideal Managers' Leadership Styles and Relationship Between Congruence of Leadership Style Perceptions and Work Outcomes	87
5.4. Implications of the Findings.....	89
5.5 Strengths of the Study	89
5.6 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research	90
REFERENCES.....	92
APPENDICES	103
A. QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMATION FORM	103
B. TASK-ORIENTATION ITEMS (LOQ)	106
C. PEOPLE-ORIENTATION ITEMS (LOQ)	108
D. TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS (LPI)	110
E. TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS (LPI)	112
F. INSTRUMENTAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS	114
G. MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ).....	116
H. ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE	118
I. PERFORMANCE ITEMS	121
J. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS (Subordinates)	123
K. DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS (Managers)	125

LIST OF TABLES

TABLES

3.1. Scales/Measures used in Manager and Incumbent Questionnaires	34
4.1. Descriptives for Participants.....	41
4.2. Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Model Comparisons.....	42
4.3. Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities Concerning the Variables of Interest (Employee Data)	44
4.4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities Concerning the Variables of Interest (Manager Data)	45
4.5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Variables Obtained From / Concerning Employees	46
4.6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Variables Obtained From / Concerning Managers	48
4.7. Manager Self-Ratings on Task and People Orientation: Means and Standard Deviations	50
4.8. Subordinate Ratings of Actual and Ideal Managers' Task and People Orientation: Means and Standard Deviations	50
4.9. Results of Paired-Sample t-tests	52
4.10. Manager Self Ratings and Subordinate Evaluation as Presumed by Managers on Task- and People-Orientations: Means and Standard Deviations	54
4.11. Means and Standard Deviations of Incongruence Scores	57
4.12. Predicting Task Performance from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	60

4.13. Predicting Task Performance from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	61
4.14. Predicting Contextual Performance from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	62
4.15. Predicting Contextual Performance from Incongruence between Perceptions of Manager and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	63
4.16. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluation of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	65
4.17. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	67
4.18. Predicting Affective Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	68
4.19. Predicting Affective Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of the Managers and Their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	69
4.20. Predicting Continuance Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	70
4.21. Predicting Continuance Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	71
4.22. Predicting Normative Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	71

4.23. Predicting Normative Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of the Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	72
4.24. Subordinate Evaluations of Actual and Ideal Managers on Transformational, Transactional, and Instrumental Leadership: Means and Standard Deviations	73
4.25. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Transformational Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	74
4.26. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Transactional Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	75
4.27. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Instrumental Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis	76
4.28. Items with Highest Ratings for Subordinates' Actual and Ideal Managers and for Managers' Self-Ratings	78
4.29. Items with Lowest Ratings for Subordinates' Actual and Ideal Managers and for Managers' Self-Ratings	78
4.30. Difference in Subordinates' Ratings Depending on Questionnaire Order: Means and Standard Deviations	79
4.31. Difference in Managers' Ratings Depending on Questionnaire Order: Means and Standard Deviations	80

LIST OF FIGURES

FIGURES

1. Plot of the Interaction between Task- and People-Orientation of Actual and Ideal Manager as Evaluated by Subordinates53
2. Plot of the Interaction between Task- and People-Orientation of Self Evaluations and Subordinate Evaluations as Perceived by Managers55

CHAPTER I

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Overview

The main objective of this study was first to examine the leadership styles of Turkish middle level managers as perceived by their subordinates and by themselves and then to examine the effects of incongruence between ideal and actual manager's leadership styles, as perceived by subordinates, on employee performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment. This introduction is organized into three parts: In the first part, theoretical and empirical literature on leadership and leadership effectiveness are explored. More specifically, different models of leadership and the effects of leadership style on subordinate performance, job satisfaction, and organizational commitment are examined. In the second part, leadership perceptions of subordinates and cultural perspectives on leadership are investigated using both cross-cultural studies and studies on Turkish culture. Finally, the hypotheses of the study are presented.

1.2 Leadership Theories

Many researchers have attempted to define *leadership* using different terms like traits, behaviour, influence, interaction patterns, and role relationships (Bass, 1990; Yukl, 1998). We can define leadership as “an ability to influence, motivate, and enable others to contribute towards the effectiveness and success of the organization” (House, Javidan, Hanges, & Dorfman, 2002, pp. 5). Leadership can also be defined as a social influence process in which one person can enlist

the help and support of others in the accomplishment of a common task (Chemers, 1997). These definitions reveal that leadership is both an ability and an influence process. It is a two-way relationship between the leader and the follower(s) in terms of leader behaviours and outcomes, and interpretation of these behaviour and outcomes by the follower(s). This is the reason why leadership research includes followers/subordinates.

Definition of an effective leader or effective leadership style can change depending on the culture of the organization and/or country, as well as the outcome variables of interest (e.g., Lord & Maher, 1991). However, despite the variance associated with specific situations, the most commonly used criteria to measure leader effectiveness are the degree to which the group or organization successfully attains its goals and how the leader satisfies the followers' needs and expectations (Yukl, 1998). Not surprisingly, subordinate performance, satisfaction, and commitment are among the outcome variables to be used in measuring leader effectiveness. (Yukl, 1998)

Leadership has been approached from quite distinct and different points of view by different researchers. Some researchers grounded their leadership theory to the specific personal characteristics of managers, some to the attitudes toward subordinates, job-related facets, and so. Of those leadership theories, major ones (i.e., traits approach, behavioural approach, path-goal theory, situational leadership, and transformational-transactional leadership) are briefly reviewed below.

Trait approach. One of the most widely used predictors or antecedents of managerial effectiveness is the personality characteristics of the managers. As stated by a literature survey by Stogdill (cited in Pierce & Newstorm, 2003), five factors have been found to be associated with leadership in the majority of leadership studies: *capacity* (i.e., intelligence, alertness, and originality), *achievement* (i.e., knowledge, scholarship), *responsibility* (i.e., dependability, initiative, self-confidence), *participation* (i.e., activity, sociability, adaptability), and *status* (i.e., socioeconomic position, popularity). Stogdill found that the average leader exceeded the average member of his/her group to some degree in

those respects. Kirkpatrick and Locke (2003) investigated core leadership traits and came up with the result that there were six traits (i.e., *drive, desire to lead, integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business*) differentiating leaders from nonleaders. They concluded that leaders did not have to be geniuses or wonders but they needed to have the “right stuff.”

To go one step further, certain traits were described for effective leaders by several authors. Research conducted by Silverthorne (2001) suggested that personality factors had significant relationship with managerial effectiveness. Silverthorne argued that effective managers in the United States, Thailand, and Taiwan described themselves as more extraverted, more agreeable, more conscientious, and less neurotic than less effective managers. Managers of the United States also described themselves as more open to experience. Similarly, Yukl (1998) reviewed literature and summarized most relevant aspects of personality for effective leadership. These traits were high energy level and stress tolerance, self-confidence, emotional maturity, integrity, socialized power motivation, internal locus of control, high achievement motivation, and low need for affiliation. Besides these traits, personal charisma was considered to be an important component of effective leadership.

Although charismatic leadership was accepted as a component of transformational leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1994), it is a popular and much researched topic/attribute in the leadership literature. Sociologist Max Weber described charismatic individuals as possessing magical abilities and supernatural power of the mind speech (Etzioni, 1961). A number of researchers have produced several conceptualizations of charismatic leadership (e.g., House, 1977; Shamir, House, & Arthur, 1993). One of the most useful and well-researched models for studying the behaviours of charismatic leaders and how followers attribute charisma to leader is Conger and Kanungo’s (1994) theory that focuses on six behavioural factors exhibited by a charismatic leader: strategic vision and communication behaviour, sensitivity to the environment, unconventional behaviour, personal risk, sensitivity to organizational members’ needs, and a deviation from the status quo. Conger and Kanungo’s model focuses on the

behavioural aspects of charismatic leadership that the followers base their attribution of charisma.

Szabo, Reber, Weibler, Brodbeck, and Wunderer (2001) investigated two concepts that would lead to leadership action: values and behavioural intentions. Values were called “far-from-action” concepts, while intended behaviours were called “close-to-action” concepts. The authors introduced a model differentiating and investigating the relationship between these concepts with a cross-cultural perspective in three German-speaking countries (Austria, Germany, and Switzerland). They found not much evidence for cultural differences and suggested that cognitive/information processing concepts and habits mediated the relationship between far-from-action and close-to-action concepts. In other words, it was not possible to differentiate values and behaviour intentions of leaders without taking the situational variables and the individual characteristics of leaders into consideration.

Behavioural approach (People-orientation vs. task-orientation). One of the outputs of the search for effective leader behaviours is the distinction between people-oriented and task-oriented behaviours. While the Ohio State Leadership Studies used categories of “consideration” and “initiating structure,” Michigan Leadership Studies used categories of “task-oriented,” “relations-oriented,” and “participative” leadership (Yukl, 1998). Moreover, Ekvall and Arvonen (1991) described effective leader behaviours with categories of “employee-centered” and “change-centered” behaviours. Employee-centeredness involves concentrating on the employee needs and development, while change-centeredness is defined as adapting to change, making changes, and persuading people about the change. Skogstad and Einarsen (1999) found significant positive correlations between change-centred leadership style and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and evaluations of the leader's competence.

Consideration or relations/people oriented behaviours include mutual trust and respect, warm personal relationships, and open communication between the leader and the subordinate(s). On the other hand, task or production oriented behaviours include organizing, structuring, planning, and are directed toward task

accomplishment (Yukl, 1998). Blake and Mouton (1964) presented the managerial grid theory and proposed that effective leaders have high concern for both behaviour patterns. That is, high task-oriented and high relations-oriented behaviours are considered to be the best behavioural condition for effective leadership. Similarly, in Performance-Maintenance (PM) leadership theory formulated by Misumi and Peterson (1985), effective leaders are described to be high in both performance and the maintenance behaviours.

Different approaches to the consideration and task-oriented behaviour distinction were investigated by the researchers like Casimir (2001), who studied the timing of exposition of consideration and task-oriented behaviours. He found that combinative aspects of leadership style had a major impact on participants' perceptions of pressure and support, and also that it was difficult for leaders to provide pressure in a manner that is acceptable to subordinates. Findings also suggested that subordinates preferred their leader to psychologically cushion them with support immediately before providing them with pressure or instruction and they disliked receiving pressure or instruction on its own. Evidence also indicated that leaders who behaved in a manner that was regarded as appropriate by subordinates received higher ratings on competence and affect than do leaders who were regarded as behaving inappropriately (Giannantonio, Olian, & Carroll, 1995). These findings reveal that how followers perceive their leader has great importance in understanding leadership.

Behavioural approach is one of the oldest and also most widely used tool for examining leadership. Task- and people-orientation distinction is still a widely used taxonomy that has made an important contribution to the study of leadership (Yukl, 1998).

Path-goal theory. One of the most important theories of leadership is the path-goal theory of House (1971), who tried to explain how the behaviour of a leader can affect the performance and satisfaction of his/her subordinates. The theory has its roots in expectancy theory of motivation (Vroom, 1964). Four leader behaviours were identified in Path-goal theory: supportive, directive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership.

According to the path-goal theory, the influence of a leader's behaviour depends on situational and intervening variables like task characteristics and subordinate expectancies, and valences. In other words, the same behaviour of the leader in different contexts with respect to task or the subordinate characteristics, would not lead to the same effects on the subordinate satisfaction and/or performance levels. For example, when the task is mundane and stressful, supportive leadership is expected to lead to increased subordinate performance by minimizing the unpleasant aspects of the task and increasing self-confidence. However, supportive leadership may be ineffective when subordinates are self-confident and the tasks are already pleasant. Different leadership behaviours can be displayed depending on the very conditions of the task and subordinate characteristics, and an effective leader should possess all four styles in his/her disposal. As Yukl (1998) stated, research conducted for testing path-goal theory revealed mixed results, despite the fact that most studies stated a positive effect of supportive behaviours of leaders on employee satisfaction. Nevertheless, there is no doubt that path-goal theory had an undeniable contribution to the leadership literature by emphasizing the importance of situational variables.

Situational leadership theory. Another leadership theory that attracted attention is situational leadership theory of Hersey and Blanchard (1982) and Hersey, Blanchard, and Johnson (2001). Similar to the path-goal theory, situational leadership theory also focuses on situational variables. The theory was based on leader directive (task) behaviour, leader socio-emotional behaviour, and follower maturity for performing a task. According to the theory, employee maturity is a critical moderator of the relationship between leader style and efficacy. Optimal leader behaviour is assumed to shift according to the changes in follower maturity (e.g., less structuring is needed as employee's maturity increases or high consideration is needed when employee has moderate maturity).

Vecchio and Boatwright (2002) studied how employee maturity and gender would be associated with preferences for idealized styles of supervision by using situational leadership theory (SLT) and gender-based role theory. Generally, the results were in alignment with SLT's core principle that highly mature

employees need less supervisory involvement. Younger, more educated, and more experienced employees were found to be less likely to prefer structuring than other employees. Furthermore, females had a stronger preference for considerateness than males, but males did not express a greater preference for structuring.

Situational leadership theory was criticized for taking subordinate maturity into account as the only situational variable and for not differentiating and examining the characteristics of job or task, subordinate motivation, and subordinate competency (Yukl, 1998).

Leader-member exchange (LMX) theory. Another situational theory is LMX theory, which is simply based on the interaction between the leader and the subordinate (Graen & Cashman, 1975). Leaders are considered to have different exchange relationships with their subordinates. Subordinates can be members of the in-group or out-group (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). Out-group members are treated differently from in-group members by their manager; they are likely to have more formal relationships and low level of mutual influence with their managers. On the other hand, manager treats the in-group subordinates much more favourable in terms of the tasks assigned, benefits, support, and bonuses provided, and the two parties have feelings of mutual trust and respect against each other. Managers view the subordinates in the in-group as more capable and motivated than the out-group members, and the in-group members have similar values and attitudes with their manager, and have more loyalty toward the manager. Significant positive relationships between the quality of manager-subordinate relationship and commitment level and organizational citizenship behaviours of subordinates were found (Truckenbrodt, 2000). In other words, if the relationship between the leader and subordinates was positive, close, or favourable, these subordinates had higher organizational commitment levels and also they had more organizational citizenship behaviours than the ones with poor or negative relationships with their leaders. Similarly, Dunegan, Duchon, and Uhl-Brien, (1992) suggested a correlation between high quality leader-member exchange with high performance in very high or very low challenging tasks.

In general, research on LMX theory suggests that desirable exchange relationships between the manager and the subordinate would lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and subordinate performance (e.g., Graen & Cashman, 1975; Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995; Scandura & Graen, 1984). In other words, subordinate satisfaction, commitment, and performance seem to be critical consequences of the quality of the relationship between leaders and managers (Dunegan, Duchon, & Uhl-Brien, 1992; Scandura & Graen, 1984; Truckenbrodt, 2000).

Transformational and transactional leadership. Another distinction about leadership styles is transformational versus transactional leadership, introduced by Burns (1978) and later on developed by Bass (1985). According to Bass (1985), the leader transforms and motivates followers by making them more aware of the importance of task outcomes, inducing them to transcend their self interest for the sake of organization or team, and activating their higher order needs. Transformational behaviours are defined as idealized influence (charisma), individualized consideration, inspirational motivation, and intellectual stimulation. Transactional behaviours, on the other hand, are defined as contingent rewards, active management by exception, passive management by exception, and laissez-faire leadership.

Transformational leadership was found to affect organizational performance both directly (Howell & Avolio, 1993) and indirectly through its effects on subordinates' satisfaction with their leader (Hater & Bass, 1988). Furthermore, performance is considered to be affected indirectly through the effects of transformational leadership on subordinates' affective commitment and performance outcomes (Barling, Weber, & Kelloway, 1996).

As mentioned in the study by Hater and Bass (1988), subordinates' perception of transformational leadership significantly differentiates outstanding managers from the others. Consistently, transformational leadership directly and positively predicted organizational performance of Russian companies over and beyond the impact of transactional leadership (Elenkov, 2002). Russian managers who displayed more transactional-leadership behaviours also made a positive

contribution to the achievement of organizational goals. McColl-Kennedy and Anderson (2002) examined whether the emotions of frustration and optimism mediated the relationship between leadership style and subordinate performance, and found that transformational leadership had a significant direct influence on frustration and optimism, with frustration having a stronger effect on performance than optimism. Furthermore, transformational leadership behaviours correlated more strongly with leadership effectiveness than did transactional leadership behaviours (Burns, 1978). However, according to many researchers, both of the leadership behaviours tend to coexist in effective leaders (e.g., Bass, 1985; Yukl, 1998).

In evaluating transformational, charismatic, and transactional leadership theories, it would be proper to say that these theories provide important insights, on ideal leadership behaviours or the leader behaviours that would lead to higher employee performance, satisfaction, and commitment. However, there is a serious criticism about the conceptual power of the theories. The underlying influence processes and the way the leader behaviours are related to these processes may require further explanation, and there is also considerable ambiguity about the essential behaviours for charismatic and transformational leadership (Yukl, 1999). As presented in the overview by Conger and Hunt (1999), critical weaknesses of these approaches include ambiguous constructs, insufficient descriptions of mediating variables and explanatory processes, and insufficient specification of situational variables.

Despite these limitations or problems, research indicates that no matter how leadership is conceptualized (i.e., whatever taxonomy is used), effective leadership is associated with positive outcomes, such as increased performance, satisfaction, and commitment levels of the subordinates. In the following sections, work outcomes and their relationship with leadership effectiveness is reviewed.

1.3 Leadership Effectiveness and Work Outcomes: Job Satisfaction, Organizational Commitment, and Subordinate Performance

Leadership effectiveness can be evaluated in terms of work outcomes since work outcomes are usually considered to be consequence of leader behaviours. In other words, one could understand the success or effectiveness of a leader by looking at the several reference points like the performance, motivation, and satisfaction levels of subordinates and their intention to stay in the organization.

1.3.1. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is one of the most commonly used variables in industrial/organizational psychology literature (Pinder, 1998). Hawthorne studies in 1920s and 1930s (Mayo, cited in Katzell & Austin, 1992) resulted in an increased awareness of and interest in the human side of producing goods and services. Job satisfaction was described by Locke (1976) as an *emotional reaction* stemming from the perception that the job allows fulfilment of employee's job values and the degree of congruence between these job values and the needs of the employee. Ilgen (1971) claimed that job satisfaction results from the size of the discrepancy between what he/she perceives he/she is receiving and expects to receive; hence satisfaction is a function of expectancies, values, and perceptions.

There are different components or facets of job satisfaction like satisfaction with work, job conditions, co-workers, pay, or supervision (Locke, 1976). Those components provide a broader understanding on the concept of satisfaction with different perspectives. Different facets may have different level of influence for different tasks and for different employees, depending on the characteristic of the tasks and on the values and needs of the employees. For example, Bilgiç (1998) reported that monthly payment was the best predictor of satisfaction of Turkish workers. On the other hand, despite the situational characteristics, some demographical properties affected levels of job satisfaction, such as older employees having higher job satisfaction levels (Pinder, 1998).

Many studies (e.g., Katzell, Thompson, & Guzzo, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990) found no direct and reliable relationship between job satisfaction and job performance. On the other hand, findings of meta-analyses stated a relationship between job satisfaction and job performance of the employees when there were contingent rewards on productivity, and promotion and pay were not tied with each other (Podsakoff & Williams, 1986). Indeed, Katz (1964) suggested that when defined in a broader manner to include prosocial and citizenship behaviours, or contextual performance, performance can be expected to have a significant relationship with job satisfaction.

1.3.2. Organizational Commitment

Another frequently studied work outcome is organizational commitment, which can be defined as an identification or attachment with an organization (Mathieu & Zajac, 1990). Moreover, it consists of a will for staying in the organization, loyalty to the organization, identification or internalization of the rules, norms, and goals of the organization (Benkhoff, 1997; Mathieu & Zajac, 1990).

Allen and Meyer (1990) proposed a three-component model of organizational commitment: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. Affective commitment expresses strong emotional ties and identification with the organization. Continuance commitment is a relationship between the employee and the organization based on an exchange relationship, in other words, based on the cost of leaving the organization. Lastly, normative commitment refers to a feeling of obligation to the stay in the organization.

Mathieu and Zajac (1990) reported that affective commitment had a strong relation with satisfaction, and also that high commitment would be associated with lower levels of mobility (intention to stay in the organization) and greater national productivity. Randal and O'Driscoll (1997) found that employees with high calculative commitment scores had weaker links with the organization, and lower agreement with organizational policies and values. Wasti (2003) proposed that affective commitment was a strong predictor of turnover intentions. Similarly,

a meta analysis done by Cohen (1993) revealed significant inverse correlations between commitment and lateness and turnover intentions.

Regarding the relationship between organizational commitment and other work outcomes, Meyer, Paunonen, Gellatly, Goffin, and Jackson (1989) reported that affective commitment was positively correlated with performance, while continuance commitment had a negative correlation with performance. However, in their meta-analysis, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) did not find significant relationship between organizational commitment and performance.

1.3.3. Performance

Performance is the most widely studied topic in management science because of its use in decisions concerning employees like pay and benefits, promotion, and development. Campbell, McCloy, Oppler, and Sager (cited in Schmitt, Borman, & associates, 1993) claimed that job performance was a multidimensional construct and had eight-factor latent structure: job-specific task proficiency, non-job-specific task proficiency, written and oral communication task proficiency, demonstrating effort, maintaining personal discipline, facilitating peer and team performance, supervision/leadership, and management/administration.

With the changes in the nature of work, the shift from relatively stable job contexts to more dynamic work environment, the role of the individual employees increased. Definition of job performance was expanded from merely execution of specific tasks to a broader content with many additional and different activities. Borman and Motowidlo (1993) argued that not only task related activities, but also some other activities, called contextual activities, were important for the organizational effectiveness. Contextual performance is defined in five categories: volunteering to carry out task activities that are not formally a part of the job, persisting with extra enthusiasm or effort when necessary to complete own task activities successfully, helping and cooperating with others, following organizational rules and procedures even when personally inconvenient, and endorsing, supporting, and defending organizational objectives. On the other

hand, task performance includes behaviours that are part of formal job description (Motowidlo & Schmit, 1999).

Motowidlo and Van Scotter (1994) reported that task performance and contextual performance contributed independently to overall performance, and that task performance had a higher correlation with experience, and contextual performance had a higher correlation with personality variables of the employees.

1.3.4 The Relationships between Leadership and Work Outcomes

The relationships between leadership effectiveness and important work outcomes (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance) were investigated in a number of studies. Loke (2001) found that 29% of job satisfaction, 22% of organizational commitment, and 9% of productivity were explained by use of leadership behaviours. Mullen et al. (1988) suggested that the more a manager engaged in leadership behaviours, the more satisfied were the subordinates.

Ehrhart and Klein (2001) suggested that followers' perceptions of leaders were based on two mechanisms: First is similarity attraction or the extent of sharing similar values with the leader, and the second one is need satisfaction or the extent of leaders' meeting the needs of the followers. The results of their study revealed that values and personality are useful predictors of leadership preferences of the followers. Specifically, eight follower attributes and values [i.e., achievement orientation, self-esteem, need for structure, extrinsic rewards (relationship-oriented), intrinsic rewards, interpersonal relations, security (task-oriented), and worker participation (charismatic)] significantly correlated with followers' preferences for leadership styles. In addition, the authors suggested that the more attracted a follower by a leader, the more likely he/she is satisfied to work with that leader, and the more likely that he/she perform well under the supervision of that leader. Therefore, it seems plausible to assert that as the subordinates' perceptions of leader behaviours becomes positive/favourable, subordinates can be expected to perform better and have more positive work attitudes.

Moreover, according to the Leadership Categorization Theory (Lord & Maher, 1991), the better the match between the leader and leadership concept held by the subordinate, the more likely it is that the subordinate sees the leader as a leader. Managers who display congruent/same behaviours with the prototypes of the employees would be recognized as effective/successful leaders by their subordinates. They would then have more legitimate social power, would more easily influence the employees, and their leadership style would be perceived as being more positively. Also, if the leadership prototypes of the subordinates match with the actual behaviours of the leader, the subordinates can be expected to display better performance.

CHAPTER II

LEADERSHIP AND PERCEPTION OF THE LEADER

In this chapter, leadership perceptions and cultural differences in leadership perceptions are explored. First, subordinate perceptions of leadership and formation of these perceptions are examined. Cultural differences in leadership perceptions together with findings of research on Turkish culture and Turkish leaders are provided next. In the final section of this chapter, hypotheses of this study are presented.

2.1 Employee Perceptions and Leadership Prototypes

In order to understand how subordinates perceive their leaders, it is important to know the way subordinates process and interpret information related with their leader. Recent approaches to leadership suggest that leadership is a social process produced by the interaction of a variety of factors, like context, tasks, histories, and the personal qualities of the leader and the followers (Graen & Cashman, 1975). In other words, the followers' perceptions and the leader's behaviours are both inputs and outputs of the leadership process (Lord & Smith, 1999).

Leadership perception can be based on two types of processes: inference-based and recognition-based processes (Lord & Maher, 1991). Inference-based processing involves making attributions for the leader's characteristics based on outcomes of salient events (Lord, 1985; Lord & Maher, 1991; Phillips & Lord, 1981). Rush, Phillips, and Lord (1981) showed that participants, who were told that group performance was good, provided higher leadership ratings than those

who were told that performance was poor. Similarly, a leader is perceived to be charismatic when the business is successful (Shamir, 1992). Business failures are usually attributed to a lack of leadership of the executives, and moreover these failures can detract from the executives' perceived leadership qualities (Lord & Maher, 1991).

Recognition-based processing, on the other hand, involves categorization of the leader's characteristics into relevant stereotypes process. Categorization theory describes leadership perception as a two-stage matching process in which relevant prototypes are activated, and then target stimulus configurations are compared to the activated pattern (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). A prototype of a leader is accessed from long-term memory when triggered by a stimulus in the environment (Mischel, 1979). Firstly, a stimulus person is categorized as a leader by the follower, then the follower activates his/her leader prototype and try to attend, encode, and retrieve information consistent with his/her schema (Phillips & Lord, 1981). Lord, Foti, and Philips (1982) found evidence that the observers categorized leaders according to their similarity to a relevant leadership prototype and then relied heavily on this categorization, or general leadership impression, when recalling information or making judgments about these leaders.

Cronshaw and Lord (1987) investigated the effects of categorization and attribution processes on the formation of leadership perceptions. The findings of the study presented categorization as the primary process and suggested that categorization could precede attributions. Encoding of prototypical and antiprototypical stimulus information was found to be the predictor of leadership perceptions. We can say that employees may rely on cognitive heuristics like categorization in forming leadership impressions. When there is a good fit between the leader's characteristics and the abstract ideas of what leaders are, then the leader is categorized into the relevant category (Lord & Maher, 1991), can be perceived as more powerful and charismatic, and can be given more credit for work outcomes (Lord, Foti, & De Vader, 1984). Studies conducted by Cronshaw and Lord (1987) and Lord et al. (1984) indicated that categorization affects perceptions of leaders and descriptions of their actual behaviour.

As stated by Lord, Brown, Harvey, and Hall (2001), both external constraints, like culture and task characteristics, and internal constraints, like followers' values and goals (i.e., affect, self-schema, self-identity, etc.) would lead to creation of leadership prototypes. Hall and Lord (1995) stated that affective processing in leadership perceptions may lead to the rapid formation of a general liking/disliking, and may produce an internal constraint on leadership perceptions. Similarly, different self-schema of the followers may result in different leadership perceptions of the followers, since self-schema are organized collections of information about some aspect of the self. For example, followers with an independent self-schema will be likely to include more participative leadership expectations, whereas dependent followers will include more directive leadership expectations (Lord et al., 2001). Moreover, as stated by Lord and his colleagues, self-identity may lead to different perceptions in the followers. When a follower has individual-level identities, leader traits would determine the leadership perceptions; when the self is defined at the interpersonal level, role relations would determine the perceptions of the followers; and when collective identities are salient, traits that show an orientation toward the entire group would constrain leadership perceptions.

What factors may affect the followers' perceptions of leadership? Xin and Pelled (2003) studied the relationship between supervisor-subordinate conflict and perceptions of leadership behaviour. Both pure emotional conflict and mixed conflict (a combination of emotional and task conflict) were found to have a negative effect on perceptions of supervisors' leadership behaviours, but pure emotional conflict had stronger negative effect than mixed conflict. This finding can be interpreted as relationships or emotions being more important than task-relevant issues in the perceptions of leadership.

Leadership perceptions of the followers may demonstrate differences depending on the very characteristics of their culture. In the next section, cultural perspectives on leadership theory are reviewed together with specific findings on Turkish culture.

2.2 Culture and Leadership

Culture has a primary role in leadership studies since it specifies what behaviours are appropriate or inappropriate for leaders (Schein, 1992). It is important to note that a significant body of theory and research on leadership has been developed in North America or continental Europe (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Boyacıgiller, 2000; Sargut, 1996, 2001). Having completely different historical, social, and economical conditions, it is difficult to claim that leadership styles of the managers/leaders of any two countries would be the same. Similarly, cultural groups may vary in their conceptions of the most important characteristics of effective leadership. As such, different leadership prototypes would be expected to emerge naturally in societies with differing cultural profiles (Bass, 1990; Hofstede 1993). In some cultures, one might need to take strong decisive action in order to be seen as a leader, whereas in other cultures a democratic approach may be required. About consideration and initiating structure behaviours, there seems to be an agreement that effective leaders should display both types of behaviours (e.g., Blake & Mouton, 1964); however, depending on the specific characteristics of each culture, task- or people-oriented leadership behaviours can be expected to be relatively more effective than the other. In the following section, first cross-cultural studies on leadership styles or subordinate perceptions of leader behaviours and then the studies on culture and leadership in the Turkish context are presented.

Cross-cultural studies. When describing the leadership style of managers of a country, comparative or cross-cultural studies are conducted in general. These studies reveal the differences along with the similarities across/between cultures. The most widely recognized culture dimensions are undoubtedly the ones proposed by Hofstede (1980, 1991). Hofstede's (1980) well-known original study was conducted in more than 40 countries and the participants were IBM employees in those countries. Hofstede suggested four global dimensions of culture: individualism–collectivism; masculinity–femininity; uncertainty avoidance; and power distance, and in later work, a fifth dimension (future

orientation) was added. Power distance is the extent to which a society accepts the fact that power in institutions and organizations is distributed unequally. In cultures with large differences in power between individuals, organizations will typically have more layers and more hierarchy, and the chain of command is felt to be more important. Uncertainty avoidance is defined as the degree to which members in a society feel uncomfortable with, even threatened by, ambiguous and uncertain situations, and take steps to avoid them.

The distinction between individualism and collectivism stems from the priority given to the person or to the group or collective.

Individualism pertains to societies in which the ties between individuals are loose: everyone is expected to look after himself or herself and his or her immediate family. Collectivism as its opposite pertains to societies in which people from birth onwards are integrated into strong, cohesive in-groups, which throughout people's lifetime continue to protect them in exchange for unquestioning loyalty (Hofstede, 1994, pp.51).

The fourth dimension is called masculinity versus femininity. According to Hofstede (1980), masculinity implies dominant values in a society that stress assertiveness and being tough, the acquisition of material things, not caring for others, and the quality of life or people. In feminine cultures, values such as warm social relationships, quality of life, and care of the weak are stressed.

A cross-cultural study called GLOBE (Global Leadership and Organizational Behaviour Effectiveness) Research Program (House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, Javidan, Dickson, & 170 co-authors, 1999) was conducted in order to investigate the cultural differences regarding leadership. GLOBE was a long-term, multiphase, and multimethod project directed toward the development of systematic knowledge concerning how societal and organizational cultures affect leadership and organizational practices. Over 150 researchers from 61 countries, including Turkey, from all major regions of the world have participated in this project. The dimensions assessed in the GLOBE Project are: power distance, uncertainty avoidance, in-group collectivism, institutional collectivism, gender egalitarianism, assertiveness, humane orientation, performance orientation, and future orientation. For each of the nine

dimensions, items were developed at two levels: societal and organizational. In addition, for all dimensions two measures were used, one tapping the institutional practices (as it is), and the other tapping the values (should be). The leadership questionnaire items of the GLOBE study consisted of 112 behavioural and attribute descriptors that were hypothesized to either facilitate or impede outstanding leadership. Responses from 17,000 middle managers of approximately 825 organizations in 62 nations were obtained. Those nations were grouped into clusters which shared historical, geographical, or religious commonalities: South Asia, Anglo, Arabic, Germanic Europe, Eastern Europe, and Latin Europe.

As part of the GLOBE Project, culturally endorsed implicit theories of leadership (CLTs) were investigated in the study of Hartog, House, Hanges, Ruiz-Quintanilla, Dorfman, and associates (1999). The results suggested that specific aspects of charismatic/transformational leadership were strongly and universally endorsed across cultures. More specifically, charismatic/transformational, team oriented, and participative leadership dimensions were found to be prototypical for outstanding leadership in all cultures. In the Turkish sample, prototypical leadership dimensions were listed from the most prototypical to the least prototypical as follows: team-oriented, charismatic/transformational, participative, humane, autonomous, and self-protective (only the autonomous and self-protective dimensions had a mean below 4 on a 7-point scale). Additionally, universally endorsed attributes for charismatic leadership included motive arouser, foresight, encouraging, communicative, trustworthy, dynamic, positive, confidence builder, and motivational. Culturally contingent charismatic attributes were enthusiastic, risk taking, ambitious, self-effacing, unique, self-sacrificial, sincere, sensitive, compassionate, and willful. Dorfman and associates (1997) compared leadership in Western and Asian countries. They reported cultural universality for supportive, contingent reward, and charismatic leader behaviours, and cultural specificity for directive, participative, and contingent punishment leader behaviours.

Jung and Avolio (1999) found that subordinates from Eastern cultures were more responsive to transformational leadership than subordinates from

Western cultures, who performed better under transactional leaders. Similarly, Jung, Bass, and Sosik (1995) argued that transformational leadership emerged more easily and was more effective in collectivistic cultures than in individualistic cultures.

Brodbeck et al. (2000) investigated leadership prototypes in 22 European countries including Turkey (a European subsample of GLOBE) and found that the leadership prototypes were culturally endorsed. Of the 21 leadership prototypicality scales (i.e., autocratic, procedural, inspirational, team collaborative, decisive, diplomatic, modesty, face saving, humane orientation, autonomous, integrity, performance orientation, administrative, self-centered, status conscious, visionary, malevolent, participative, conflict inducer, team integrator, and self sacrificial), team integrator, decisive, visionary, integrity, inspirational, administrative, diplomatic, team collaborative, and performance orientation were found to be facilitating outstanding leadership, while self-centered and malevolent were found to impede outstanding leadership in the Turkish sample. The results suggested that Turkish subordinates had preference for team-focused, decisive, performance-oriented, and non self-centred leadership attributes.

In a cross-cultural study, Ensari and Murphy (2003) examined the interactive effects of the categorization and attribution processes of leadership perceptions on attributions of charisma with participants from a collectivistic culture (Turkey) and an individualistic culture (United States). In this study, participants were given vignettes including prototypical and antiprototypical leader descriptions. Prototypical leader behaviours for collectivist culture were presented in the following sentences: “He/She explains what the goal of the group should be,” “He/She assigns specific tasks to the group members,” “He/She asks his subordinates to work harder,” “He/She talks to his subordinates frequently.” Antiprototypical leader behaviours for collectivist culture were presented as follows: “He/She lets everyone work at their own pace,” “He/She usually requests his subordinates’ approval on issues at hand,” “He/She admits it when he makes a mistake,” “He/She usually lets his subordinates decide what to do.” Prototypical leader behaviours for individualistic culture were presented with the following

statements: “He/She (the leader) exercises great influence on his subordinates,” “He/She wants his own way on issues at hand,” “He/She asks his subordinates to work harder,” and “He/She talks to his subordinates frequently.” Antiprototypical leader behaviours for individualistic culture were as follows: “He/She tends not to change established and comfortable practices of his workgroup,” “He/She usually requests his subordinates’ approval on issues at hand,” “He/She admits it when he makes a mistake,” and “He/She usually lets his subordinates decide what to do.”

The results of the study showed that the co-occurrence of the categorization and attribution processes produced optimal attribution of charisma to the leader. Moreover, leadership perceptions of the followers were moderated by the culture: the leaders’ prototypical characteristics were more effective in forming a leadership impression in an individualistic culture, whereas collectivistic people made attributions based on the inferences about the success or the performance of their leaders.

A different perspective to cultural approaches to leadership was brought along by House, Wright, and Aditya (1997). They found that slight deviations of leader behaviour from dominant cultural values would encourage innovation and performance improvement because of being non-traditional and unexpected. In other words, when the leader’s behaviour was somewhat different from the commonly accepted behaviour styles, this would encourage growth and development, as long as the deviation from the norms was not disruptive. Parallel to those findings of House and his colleagues, Conger and Kanungo (1987) argued that unconventional behaviour by the leader was an important component of charismatic leadership.

Cross-cultural studies have been criticized for being based on Western cultural values in investigating the cultural differences (e.g., Ralston, Gustafson, Cheung, & Terpstra, 1993; Ralston, Gustafson, Elsass, Cheung, & Terpstra, 1992). However, there are also studies examining leadership across cultures without using the Western-based instruments. Ralston et al. (1992) assessed the differences and similarities in values among managers in the U.S., Hong Kong, and China by using an instrument based on Eastern cultural values. According to the findings, integration (being in harmony), Confucian work dynamism (social

hierarchy, protecting status quo), and human heartedness (felt need to be kind/people-oriented), but not moral discipline (personal control) discriminated among the three cultures.

In a recent article by Tsui, Wang, Xin, Zhang, and Fu (2004), CEO leadership behaviours in the Chinese transitional economy were studied. They identified six behavioural dimensions of leaders (i.e., articulating vision, monitoring operations, being creative and risk taking, relating and communicating, showing benevolence, and being authoritative) and four leadership styles that represented different combinations of the six behavioural dimensions (i.e., advanced leadership, authoritative leadership, progressing leadership, and invisible leadership). According to the authors, behavioural dimensions shared some similarities with Western cultures, but the people-related dimensions reflected some Chinese cultural roots. It was claimed that many Chinese leaders experimented with different approaches to management, leading to the emergence of different leadership styles. That interpretation was explained with a quotation from Deng Xiao- Ping (Tsui et al., 2004, pp.17), “Black cat, white cat, any cat that catches mice is a good cat.”

2.3. Leadership in the Turkish Context

Turkey has very unique characteristics stemming from her geographically being the motherland of several different civilizations throughout the history, being established over the ashes of Ottoman Empire, having an unconventional Muslim majority culture origins, struggling for sustaining a secular state with parliamentary democracy, trying to realize the course of Westernization (or modernization) for more than two centuries, and still having an economy based more on agriculture than industry (Imamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 2002; Sargut, 2001).

Among the 40 countries included in the original Hofstede (1980) study, Turkey was found to have a hierarchic, moderately feminine culture with low individualism and a relatively low threshold for ambiguity. Implications of these cultural dimensions for leadership were also suggested in that study. According to

Hofstede (1980), managers in countries characterized by high individualism, cultural autonomy, egalitarianism, and low power distance tended to favour more participative sources of guidance. However, managers in cultures characterized by collectivism, cultural embeddedness, hierarchy, power distance, and mastery tended toward a reliance on supervisors and rules.

Sargut (2001) demonstrated several facets of Turkish culture and claimed the presence of feminine values, vertical collectivism [defined by Triandis (2001, pp. 910) as “culture where people submit to the authorities of the in-group and are willing to sacrifice themselves for their in-group”], high power distance, and uncertainty avoidance. He suggested that attempts for decreasing uncertainty would lead to increased power distance, and consecutively, attempts to smooth the effects of high power distance would lead to increased people-oriented leadership behaviours. In the distinction between broad contextual (indirect, emotional communication - collectivist) and narrow contextual (direct, concise communication - individualist) cultures, Turkey was considered to be a broad contextual culture, meaning that communication is itself is taken as an objective instead of a tool (Sargut, 2001). Moreover, followers seek for kindness and compassion together with some guidance from their leaders, and avoid conflicts with them.

Research conducted with Turkish participants in conflict management provided important findings in terms of cultural characteristics and also managerial behaviours: Turkish people were found to have a preference for avoiding in conflicts with coworkers (Kozan, 1989); compared to U.S. subjects, they had higher preference for third party involvement in managing conflicts than for direct contact (Kozan & Ergin, 1998). Avoidance from conflict and also direct contact with the other party, together with a preference for a third party help in conflict management, could well be nourished by the collectivism and tolerance for ambiguity characterizing Turkish culture, as suggested by Kozan and Ergin (1998). That is, not being able to tolerate ambiguity may result in lack of conflict management skills and also avoidance from conflict situations. Similarly, possible uncertainties in direct contact and fear of being rejected by the other party in the conflict situation may be stemming from the tendency of uncertainty avoidance.

Presence of a third party intervention may provide sustainability of the good relationships in the group, community, or collective, and fulfill the desire for harmony.

Regarding the role of the manager in conflict management, Kozan and İlter (1994) found that Turkish managers relied more on their authority when they confronted conflict with their subordinates or other managers, while they avoided such an autocratic style when they were in a third party role. Therefore, it can be claimed that Turkish managers are likely to exhibit authoritarian behaviours in conflicts in which they are one of the parties. Additionally, they may undertake a negotiator's role, by staying neutral and mediating. Kozan and İlter explained this with managers' perception of conflict as a threat for their authority when they were one of the two parties of the conflict, contrary to the situation in which manager are in a third party role, which can actually bring them personal prestige.

Sargut and Özen (2000) investigated the expectancies of Turkish employees about leader behaviours and found that majority of employees gave more importance to the process rather than the result when they were performing a task. Moreover, they had a greater expectation for maintenance from leaders rather than indifference, and this resulted in preference for attention, protection, and paternal attitudes of the leaders. The authors concluded that despite the observed preference of employees for process and maintenance, there was also a low but important tendency of employees in favour of result and indifference, which was generally observed in individualistic cultures. This situation was explained by the effects of modernization displayed as a shift from a collectivist orientation to an individualistic one. On the other hand, Sargut (2001) stated that every society would follow different pathways in their struggle for industrialization and modernization; therefore, at the end of modernization process all societies would not necessarily resemble each other.

Kabasakal and Bodur (2002) focused on the GLOBE's Arabic cluster consisting of five countries in the Middle East (Egypt, Morocco, Turkey, Kuwait, and Qatar) with historical, economical, religious, and socio-cultural commonalities. They found that these societies were low in future orientation, but highly group-oriented (collectivism), hierarchical (power distance), and that team-

oriented and charismatic attributes were presented as characteristics of outstanding leadership. Additionally, the leadership attributes listed from the most preferred to the least were as follows: team-oriented, charismatic, participative, humane, autonomous, and self-protected. Similarly, Aycan and Pasa (2003) suggested that charismatic leadership was found to be the most preferred style by Turkish university students followed by participative, paternalistic, and bureaucratic styles.

Aycan et al. (2000) investigated and compared the impact of culture on human resource management practices in 10 countries including Turkey. Four socio-cultural dimensions (i.e., power distance, paternalism, loyalty towards community, and fatalism), five internal work culture dimensions (i.e., malleability, proactivity, obligation towards others, responsibility seeking, and participation), and three human resource management practices (i.e., job enrichment, supervision, and reward allocation) were examined. Turkey was among the highest scorers on paternalism, power distance, and loyalty towards community dimensions, and among the lowest scorers on fatalism dimension. The results revealed that managers who did not characterized their socio-cultural environment as fatalistic assumed that their subordinates were malleable and they provided empowering supervision, job enrichment, or rewards to their employees. Managers who valued loyalty assumed that their subordinates should carry out their obligations towards others, and they provided empowering supervision. Lastly, managers who perceived paternalism and high power distance in their socio-cultural environment assumed that their employees were reactive, and they did not provide empowering supervision and job enrichment. Moreover, high paternalism predicted more obligation towards others and fostered employee participation; proactivity and obligation towards others led to empowering supervision. Additionally, performance-reward contingency was positively influenced by responsibility seeking, malleability, and proactivity.

In the Turkish context, dimensions of paternalism, respect to the authority, and loyalty to the group and group members together suggest a cultural environment highly depending on relationships (Aycan et al., 2000; Kabasakal & Bodur, 2002). Communication or relationship is not a tool but a goal for the

individuals (Sargut, 2001). Therefore, hierarchy can be expected to be a very important element of the culture, and authorities can have unquestionable legitimate power with them. Besides, loyalty and considerate relationships can be considered as among the other elements of the culture with respect to the collectivist characteristics of the culture.

2.4. Implications and Hypotheses

Cross cultural literature (e.g., Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Pasa, 2000; Hofstede, 1980; House et al., 1999, 2002; Wasti, Bergman, Glomb, & Drasgow, 2000; Sargut & Özen, 2000) suggests that Turkish culture is a collectivist and paternalist one, with great power distance and a relatively little tolerance for ambiguity. Of these dimensions, the most controversial one is the collectivism dimension. Yet, it was claimed by several researchers that Turkish culture can not be considered either individualistic or collectivistic (Göregenli, 1995, 1997; Imamoglu, 1998; Kagıtcıbaşı, 1990, 1994). Moreover, Triandis (1988, 1995) claimed that individualism and collectivism are not two different dimensions, but the two ends of a single dimension. Indeed, he claimed that one could also think individualism as ice, and collectivism as water, since cultures are similar to lakes containing bits of floating ice. He added that “as cultures become modern, complex, and dynamic ..., they become more individualistic” (Triandis, 1995, pp. 16).

At this point it is important to discuss the transitions or developments currently taking place in Turkey. As cited by Kağıtçıbaşı (1994), Turkey has experienced dramatic socioeconomic changes like the decrease of the population living in rural areas from 80 % to 40 % since 1950. Even at the present date, continuous attempts for becoming a member of the European Union bring Turkey to the centre of modernization movement. Turkey is believed to be passing through a transition period; and naturally, the cultural characteristics of the society are also changing (Aycan & Pasa, 2003; Imamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 1999; Göregenli, 1997). Imamoğlu and Karakitapoğlu-Aygün examined the changes in values and priorities of Turkish university students from the 1970s

to the 1990s and showed that there was a trend to attribute more importance to individualistic values in the 1990s. Besides, human relations were still found to be highly emphasized in the Turkish society when compared to Sweden (İmamoğlu, Küller, İmamoğlu, & Küller, 1993).

As suggested by Sargut (2001), Turkey, like every other country, has her own dynamics in the road to modernization stemming from the specific characteristics of the country and her history and culture. Relatively high power distance, an emphasis on hierarchy, and uncertainty avoidance bring together an unquestionable authority of superiors. Yet, paternalistic and moderately feminine characteristics of the culture require close relations and communication with subordinates. Based on the reviewed literature, leadership style of Turkish managers can be expected to be more people-oriented than task-oriented. Hence,

Hypothesis 1a. Self-reported leadership style of Turkish middle level managers is more likely to be people-oriented than task-oriented.

Parallel to the observed cultural characteristics, employees can also be expected to have a preference for people-oriented behaviours rather than task-oriented behaviours in the leaders. Yet, it may be rather harder to fulfil their relatively higher relationship needs. Hence, they may tend to perceive their leaders as being higher on task-orientation than people-orientation. Thus,

Hypothesis 1b. As perceived by the incumbents, leadership style of Turkish middle level managers is more likely to be task-oriented than people-oriented.

According to leadership categorization theory, subordinates have their own schemas/prototypes about leadership, and they use these labels when perceiving and interpreting their leader's behaviours (Cronshaw & Lord, 1987). Cultural characteristics affect the formation of those schemas/prototypes through the expectancies and values of the subordinates.

Similar to the leadership styles of Turkish managers, Turkish subordinates will also have preference for people-oriented, supportive behaviours from their managers, resulting from the very characteristics of the culture. Pasa (2000)

revealed parallel findings in her investigation of the leadership characteristics in Turkey. The desired leadership characteristics identified were being proactive, just, well-informed, visionary, planned, having good relationships with people, being loved by people, participating for the leaders, and having good relationships with people, being well-informed, humane, and just, for the subordinates. The scores of the leaders and subordinates differed much for team-oriented (higher in leaders) and hierarchic and task-oriented (higher in subordinates) behaviours, meaning that subordinates perceived their leaders as more hierarchic and task-oriented, and less team-oriented than did the leaders saw themselves. The findings may be interpreted as suggesting that Turkish subordinates favour less hierarchic and less task-oriented leader behaviours. Also, subordinates preferred more supportive leaders with better communication skills and warmer relationships with them, which could only be provided through people-oriented behaviours of the leaders. Therefore, the leadership prototypes of Turkish employees can be expected to develop around protective, supportive, and people-oriented behaviours.

Hypothesis 2. Ideal leadership prototype of job incumbents is more likely to be people-oriented than task-oriented.

There have been significant positive correlations between leadership style and job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and evaluations of the leader's competence, as claimed by Skogstad and Einarsen (1999). Although leadership style, in itself affects work outcomes, the perceptions of leadership style could be expected to have a similar or even a greater influence. Also, it is important to have a match or congruence between the actual and ideal leadership styles of the manager as perceived by the subordinates, and a match or congruence between the self-reported leadership style of managers and subordinates' perceptions concerning the leadership styles of their managers.

According to the Leadership Categorization Theory (Lord & Maher, 1991), if there is a match between the leader behaviours demonstrated by the manager and the leadership concept of the subordinate, the subordinate will accept his/her leader as a leader. Managers who display congruent/same behaviours with

the prototypes of the employees would be recognized as (effective/successful) leaders by their employees. They then would have more legitimate social power, would more easily influence their subordinates, and their leadership style would be perceived more positively. If the leadership prototype of the subordinates matches with the actual behaviours of the leader as perceived by the subordinates, then subordinates can be expected to display better performance, be more satisfied, and committed to his/her organization. It is expected that congruence between actual and ideal leadership styles of managers as reported by subordinates will have an effect on several work outcomes, since congruence presents a desirable situation for the employees, by commonsense. To summarize, the smaller the difference between the actual and the ideal manager perceptions for the employees, the more satisfied, committed, and better performer will be the employees.

Hypothesis 3a. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher subordinate task and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 3b. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher subordinate satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher commitment levels in subordinates.

To summarize, in Hypothesis 3 it was hypothesized that the difference between actual and ideal leader perceptions of the subordinates had a significant effect on subordinate performance, satisfaction, and commitment levels. Smaller difference between actual leader perceptions and ideal leader prototype of the subordinates was expected to lead to more desirable outcomes. In addition, the effects of the difference between managers' self-reported leadership styles and subordinates' perceptions of their managers' leadership style on work outcomes were also investigated for mainly exploratory purposes.

CHAPTER III

METHOD

This study investigated the leadership styles of Turkish middle level managers as perceived by the employees and managers themselves, ideal manager image of employees along with the effects of congruence between ideal and actual leadership styles on important organizational outcomes. In this chapter, sample characteristics, measures used, procedure followed, and the analyses conducted are presented.

3.1 Sample

A total of 28 companies from different sectors and different geographical locations were contacted and informed about the study. Out of the total number contacted, 21 responded positively to the request. Of these companies five were in hotels, one in construction, two in textile, two in cement production, one in mining, one in packaging and paper, three in food, two in electric-electronics, two in chemistry, one in aerospace, and one in manufacturing industries.

From a total of 784 questionnaires (203 managers and 581 subordinates); 320 questionnaires (71 managers and 249 subordinates) returned, with a response rate of 40.8% (35% for managers and 42.9% for subordinates). Resulting from the specific design of the study, the questionnaires of managers and subordinates were matched. That is, leadership style of a given manager was investigated by using two sources: manager himself/herself and his/her subordinates. A total of four ratings were obtained from those two sources: Self-evaluations of managers, subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers, subordinate evaluations of

their current managers, and lastly subordinate evaluations of ideal managers. Subordinate ratings on leadership style of their actual and ideal managers were aggregated for every specific manager, in the manager data set.

Six questionnaires from managers and 15 questionnaires from subordinates were excluded from analyses since they had not been paired. The final sample of the study consisted of 65 middle level managers and 324 subordinates.

Eighty six percent of the managers were male and 14% were female; the majority (78.2) of the managers were between 31 and 50 years old range. Concerning the educational levels of managers, 75% of them had a 4 year college degree or above. Sixty five percent of the managers had less than 10 years of tenure in their current company and 57% of the managers had less than 10 years of overall tenure.

Seventy two percent of the employees were male and 28% were female, the majority (80.7) of the employees were between 20 and 40 years old range. Majority of the employees were university graduates (42.2%), but the next greatest group was the high school graduates (36.9%). Approximately half of the employees (55.2%) had less than 5 years of experience in their current companies, the majority (77.1%) had two to 10 years of tenure in general, and lastly, 84.2% of the employees were working with their current managers for five years or less.

3.2 Measures

There were two different questionnaire packages one for managers and one for subordinates printed as booklets, differentiated with the colour of the cover pages, grey and yellow, respectively. Contents of these two packages are summarized in Table 3.1. In both packages, a brief explanation of the study was given to participants (Appendix A). Last section of both packages was consisting of demographic information (Appendix J and K, for subordinate and manager questionnaires, respectively).

3.2.1 Measurement of Leadership Styles

Leadership styles of managers were basically investigated in terms of task- and people-orientation. Transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership styles scales were also added to the questionnaire for mainly exploratory purposes. The same scales were used in the manager and incumbent packages, however, the subjects/possessive pronouns of the items were changed depending on the party making the evaluation. For example, employees evaluated their actual and ideal managers with items such as “My manager does personal favours for people in the work group.” On the other hand, managers evaluated their own leadership styles with items such as “I do personal favour for people in the work group.” Additionally, all items in the scales used for measuring leadership style were presented in a mixed order. Furthermore, the order of the two scales measuring leadership styles (i.e., actual and ideal manager evaluations for employees, and self-evaluation and self-perception as seen by subordinates for managers) in each of the questionnaires was changed. Mean scores of the relevant scales, (i.e., task-orientation, people-orientation, transformational, transactional, and transformational leadership) were used to represent leadership style scores. Subordinates’ ratings on actual and ideal manager were aggregated by taking average scores of all the ratings done for every manager, separately. Also, managers’ self-ratings regarding their own leadership style and also their leadership style were placed in their subordinates, separately.

Task Orientation and People Orientation: Leadership Opinion Questionnaire (LOQ) of Fleishman (1953) was used to measure the leadership orientation of the managers. The LOQ consists of 40 items (20 items measuring task-oriented behaviours and 20 items measuring people-oriented behaviours). The ratings are done on a five-point Likert-type scale (“1” for “Never”, “2” for “Seldom”, “3” for “Sometimes”, “4” for “Frequently”, and “5” for “Always”). Alpha coefficients of the LOQ for people-orientation were found to be .70 and .89 for foremen and workers, respectively, and .79 and .88 for foremen and workers, respectively, for task-orientation (Fleishman, 1953). The questionnaire was

translated into Turkish by Bilgiç and Sümer in an unpublished work. In the present study, alpha coefficients were found to be ranging from .80 to .84 for task-orientation in subordinate ratings, and ranging from .73 to .74 in manager ratings. For people-orientation, alpha coefficients ranging from .80 to .83 in subordinate ratings and from .72 to .76 in manager ratings. Task- and People-Orientation scales are displayed in Appendix B and C, respectively.

Table 3.1. Scales/Measures used in Manager and Incumbent Questionnaires

<i>Manager Questionnaire</i>	<i>Incumbent Questionnaire</i>
<p>Scales measuring leadership style of the manager as perceived by himself/herself¹ Task-oriented leadership People-oriented leadership Transformational leadership* Transactional leadership* Instrumental leadership*</p> <p>Job satisfaction measure</p> <p>Scales measuring manager's own perception of his/her leadership style as seen by the subordinates¹ Task-oriented leadership People-oriented leadership Transformational leadership* Transactional leadership*</p> <p>Performance ratings of subordinates Task performance Contextual performance General performance Instrumental leadership*</p> <p>Demographic info Name Sex Age Education Occupation Company Department Number of people work under his/her direct supervision Tenure in the company Tenure in general</p>	<p>Scales measuring leadership style of the actual manager¹ Task-oriented leadership People-oriented leadership Transformational leadership* Transactional leadership* Instrumental leadership*</p> <p>Job satisfaction measure</p> <p>Organizational commitment measure Affective commitment Continuance commitment Normative commitment</p> <p>Scales measuring leadership style of ideal manager¹ Task-oriented leadership People-oriented leadership Transformational leadership* Transactional leadership* Instrumental leadership*</p> <p>Self-rated performance measure* Task performance Contextual performance General performance</p> <p>Demographic info Name Sex Age Education Occupation Company Department Tenure in the company Tenure with the current manager Tenure in general</p>

*Note.*¹ The order of these two scales was changed. * Included for exploratory purposes only.

Transformational, Transactional, and Instrumental Leadership: Leadership Practices Inventory (LPI) was used to measure transformational and transactional leadership styles (Posner & Kouzes, 1988). Transformational leadership is measured with 18 items, whereas transactional leadership is measured by 12 items, using a rating on a five-point Likert-type scale (“1” for “Never”, “2” for “Seldom”, “3” for “Sometimes”, “4” for “Frequently”, and “5” for “Always”). Instrumental leadership was measured using Antonakis’s (2004) measure with 16 items rated on a five-point Likert-type scale (“1” for “Never”, “2” for “Seldom”, “3” for “Sometimes”, “4” for “Frequently”, and “5” for “Always”). Alpha coefficients were found to be .81 and .89 for transformational leadership, in self-evaluations and multiple observer evaluations, respectively; .81 and .90 for transactional leadership in self-evaluations and multiple observer evaluations, respectively. This inventory was translated into Turkish and its reliability was established by Ergin and Kozan (2004), with alpha coefficients of .82 for transformational and .80 for transactional leadership. Alpha coefficients of .87 for instrumental leadership (Antonakis, 2004). The questions of these scales are presented in Appendix D, E, and F, respectively.

3.2.2 Measurement of Job Satisfaction

Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ), developed by Weiss, Dawis, England, and Lofquist (1967) was used to measure job satisfaction. The instrument consists of 20 items each of which measure a different aspect of job satisfaction. Respondents are required to rate each item based on the extent to which the respondent is satisfied with that aspect of the job (satisfaction associated with the task and non-task characteristics of the job and the overall job satisfaction level) on a five-point Likert-type scale (“1” for “very dissatisfied”, “2” for “dissatisfied”, “3” for “neutral”, “4” for “satisfied”, and “5” for “very satisfied”). Mean score of the items were calculated for the evaluation of job satisfaction. Reliability coefficients for MSQ ranged from .87 to .92 (Weiss et al., 1967). Bilgiç (1998) adapted the questionnaire to Turkish culture, reported alpha

coefficients as above .80. In this study, alpha coefficients were .92 for employee data and .89 for manager data. Job satisfaction items are given in Appendix G.

3.2.3 Measurement of Organizational Commitment

Subordinate organizational commitment level was measured in three dimensions: affective, continuance, and normative commitment. The questionnaire used in this study was developed by Meyer, Allen, and Smith (1993) and translated into Turkish by Wasti (1999). A total of 33 items are included in this measure (9 for affective commitment; 10 for continuance commitment, and 14 for normative commitment). Respondents are required to rate each item based on their degree of agreement on a five-point Likert-type scale (“1” for “strongly disagree”, “2” for “disagree”, “3” for “neither agree nor disagree”, “4” for “agree”, and “5” for “strongly agree”). Mean scores of the three dimensions of organizational commitment were used in the analyses. The internal reliability coefficients of the continuance, and normative commitment scales were reported to be .84, .82, and .70, respectively (Wasti, 2003). Results of reliability analyses in this study revealed alpha coefficients of .86 for affective, .81 for continuance, .89 for normative, and .92 for overall organizational commitment. Organizational commitment scale is presented in Appendix H.

3.2.4 Measurement of Performance

Performance of managers and subordinates were measured in three dimensions: task performance, contextual performance, and general performance. For task performance, five items were developed by the author, which were related with the job duties, quality of the job done, efficiency in using time, and job-related knowledge. Contextual performance is measured with five items by using the definitions made by Borman and Motowidlo (1993) as the framework (showing extra effort and desire, voluntary action, collaboration, obeying procedures, and following the organizational targets). For overall/general performance, one item was developed, directly asking about general performance

level of the manager/subordinate. The rating was done using a five-point frequency scale (“1” for “never”, “2” for “seldom”, “3” for “sometimes”, “4” for “frequently”, and “5” for “always”). Mean scores of the relevant items were used in measuring task performance and contextual performance, and mean of all 11 items were used as a measure of general performance. In this study, alpha coefficients of supervisory-rated task, contextual, and general performance were .49, .51, and .75, respectively. All performance items are given in Appendix I.

3.3 Procedure

Firstly, Human Resources or Personnel Departments of the companies were contacted by phone and with a brief explanation of the study, appointments were requested. With the companies expressing a positive interest toward the study, the author herself arranged meetings with the heads of Human Resources or Personnel Departments of those companies, explained the aim of the study, and left a number of questionnaires with them. In some of the companies, the author had the opportunity to meet the participants individually (explained the purpose of the study and the way they needed to fill out the questionnaires) and collected the questionnaires back from the participants themselves. In some companies, questionnaires were collected by the contact persons and sent to the author by mail.

Personal identification information was collected from the participants together with the demographic information because of the purpose of matching the manager and subordinate data sets.

3.4 Analyses

In order to find the leadership styles of Turkish middle-level managers as perceived by themselves and their subordinates (Hypotheses 1a and 1b); mean task- and people-orientation scores were compared against each other using dependent t-tests. Similarly, ideal leader prototype of the subordinates (Hypothesis 2) was directly tested by comparing mean ideal manager task- and

people-orientation scores against each other with a dependent t-test. Additionally, as an indirect test of Hypotheses 1a, 1b, and 2, 2 x 2 repeated measures ANOVA (actual and ideal manager versus people-orientation and task-orientation) were conducted to be able to investigate complex interactions.

In testing hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c (Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher subordinate performance, satisfaction, and organizational commitment), congruence scores were calculated at the first step. There are three possible ways to calculate the congruence between two perceptions: correlations, polynomial regression, and difference scores (Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, & Johnson, 2005).

a. Correlation: In this method of congruence, two scores are compared by computing the correlation between them. Specifically, correlation between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees would be taken as an index of congruence if this method was employed. Greater correlation would indicate a greater congruence between the two scores. Westerman and Cyr (2004) used this method to investigate different congruences, and came up with the result that it was a "flawed measure of congruence" as Edwards (1994) suggested. Edwards criticized correlation method since it yielded low reliability and inability of explaining additional variance.

b. Polynomial regression: Edwards (1993; 1994) suggested using polynomial regression for measuring individual effects of the relevant scores and their congruence. In this method, instead of reducing two scores of comparison into one congruence score, both the scores (X and Y) and associated higher-order terms (X^2 , $X \times Y$, and Y^2) are used as the predictors (Kristof-Brown et al., 2005). Edwards found that in this method, the proportion of variance explained in the dependent variable is increased when compared to the other two methods and this method provided a more precise way of examining the influence of congruence/fit and incongruence/misfit (1993; 1994).

c. Difference scores: In this method, the difference between two different ratings was calculated using either algebraic ($X - Y$), absolute ($|X - Y|$), or squared differences ($(X - Y)^2$) (Kristof, 1996). In algebraic difference, positive and negative differences are distinguished; in absolute value of difference, equal weight is assigned to differences regardless of the direction. When the differences are squared, the difference is not directional and also larger differences have greater weights.

Difference score calculation was criticized by Edwards (1993; 1994) on several grounds. According to Edwards, the effects of positive and negative differences are different; when two scores are obtained from the same individuals, the reliability of difference score is reduced, and that difference scores often fail to explain outcome variance beyond the one explained by component measures individually.

In order not to be effected by the direction of difference and also to make greater use of larger differences, squared differences was used in this study. Two different congruences (actually incongruence) were calculated: Incongruence of actual and ideal manager perceptions on task-orientation, and incongruence of actual and ideal manager perceptions on people-orientation. For exploratory purposes, two other incongruences were also computed: Incongruence of manager perceptions of what subordinates think of his/her leadership style and manager's self-evaluation of his/her leadership style on task-orientation, and incongruence of manager perceptions of what subordinates think of his/her leadership style and manager's self-evaluation of his/her leadership style on people-orientation.

Multiple regression analyses were carried out for testing hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c, with SPSS 11.5. In these multiple regression analyses, each outcome variable was regressed on incongruence scores, after controlling for some critical variables.

CHAPTER IV

ANALYSIS

The purpose of the present study was to test the hypotheses regarding the leadership behaviours of Turkish middle level managers, ideal leadership prototypes of the employees, and the effects of congruence/incongruence between actual and ideal leadership perceptions of the employees. In the following sections, first sample characteristics are presented. Second, results of exploratory and confirmatory factor analyses are given. Descriptive statistics concerning the variables of interest are presented next. And finally, findings related to the analyses concerning the test of the hypotheses are presented.

4.1 Sample Characteristics

Demographic information concerning the participants of the study is summarized in Table 4.1. Majority of both the manager (86 %) and subordinate (71 %) participants of this study were male. As expected, in general, managers were older (Mean = 39.31 years) and more educated than their subordinates (Mean = 33.8 years). While 46 % of the managers were between 31 to 40 years old, majority of the subordinate participants were between 20 to 30 years old (46 %). There were no primary or secondary school graduates among the managers, and majority of the managers were with a 4-year college degree (62 %). Majority of the subordinates had either a 4-year college degree (42 %) or a high school degree (37 %). Majority of the subordinate participants had worked with their managers not more than 5 years (84.2%), and nearly half of them (46%) had a work period of 1 year or less with their current managers. Managers had a longer

experience in their current companies than their subordinates (8.4 vs. 6.5 years, respectively).

Table 4.1. Descriptives for Participants

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Manager (N = 65)</i>		<i>Subordinate (N = 234)</i>	
	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>	<i>Frequency</i>	<i>%</i>
Gender				
Male	56	86.2	165	71.7
Female	9	13.8	65	28.3
Age				
20-30	8	12.5	104	46.6
31-40	30	46.9	76	34.1
41-50	20	31.3	32	14.3
Above 51	6	9.4	11	4.9
	Mean = 39.3 SD = .35		Mean = 33.8 SD = 8.38	
Education (range between 0 and 6)				
Primary School	-	-	5	2.2
Secondary School	-	-	5	2.2
High School	10	15.6	83	36.9
2-year College	6	9.4	28	12.4
4-year College	40	62.5	95	42.2
Master's Degree	7	10.9	9	4
Doctoral Degree	1	1.6	-	-
Tenure in the company				
0-1 year	6	10.3	41	19.5
2-5 years	17	29.3	75	35.7
6-10 years	15	25.9	46	21.9
11-15 years	7	12.1	18	8.6
16-20 years	10	17.2	22	10.5
More than 21 years	3	5.2	8	3.8
	Mean = 8.44 SD = 6.67		Mean = 6.5 SD = 6.26	
Tenure in general*				
0-1 year	7	11.1	1	0.5
2-5 years	15	23.8	35	16
6-10 years	21	33.3	74	33.8
11-15 years	5	7.9	45	20.5
16-20 years	12	19	29	13.2
More than 21 years	3	4.8	35	16
	Mean = 9.29 SD = 6.74		Mean = 12.6 SD = 8.05	
Tenure with the manager				
0-1 year	-	-	95	46.8
2-5 years	-	-	76	37.4
6-10 years	-	-	18	8.9
11-15 years	-	-	7	3.4
16-20 years	-	-	5	2.5
More than 21 years	-	-	2	1
			Mean = 3.19 SD = 3.98	

Note. * Tenure “as a manager” for managers

4.2 Exploratory and Confirmatory Factor Analyses

When the items of the performance measure were developed by the author, attention was paid to represent both task performance (5 items) and contextual performance (5 items) domains in addition to including an item representing overall performance. Confirmatory factor analyses were conducted using LISREL 8.3 (Jöreskog & Sörbom, 1996) to test whether the items would group under the respective categories or under one single category only. Accordingly, two models were tested. In the first model, all the items related to performance (10 items representing task and contextual performance) are used as indicators of a single performance latent factor. This single factor performance model had an acceptable fit to data [χ^2 (35,234) = 156.81, GFI = .88; AGFI = .82; NFI = .93, $p < .001$].

In the second model, task and contextual performance separately examined as latent variables. This model also yielded a good fit to data [χ^2 (34,234) = 142.23, GFI = .90; AGFI = .84; NFI = .93, $p < .001$]. In the following step, the two models were compared to each other. It was found that the difference between the two models was significant [χ^2 (1,234) = 14.58] (greater than the critical value of 10.83), suggesting that two-factor model had a better fit to the data than the single-factor model (see Table 4.2). Consequently, a two-factor approach to performance measure was adopted in the remaining analyses. That is, two measures of performance were used in the relevant analyses.

Table 4.2 Results of the Confirmatory Factor Analyses and Model Comparisons

<i>Models</i>	χ^2	<i>GFI</i>	<i>AGFI</i>	<i>CFI</i>	<i>RMR</i>
Single-factor model	156.811	.883	.816	.942	.058
Two-factor model	142.226	.898	.836	.948	.059
<i>Model comparisons (χ^2 Change)</i>	χ^2 Change	<i>p (χ^2 Change)</i>			
Two-factor & single-factor model comparison	14.585	< .001			

Note. GFI = Goodness of fit index; AGFI = Adjusted goodness of fit index; CFI = Comparative fit index; RMR = Root mean square residual.

In order to investigate the factors/dimensions underlying the leadership scale, namely LOQ, exploratory factor analyses were conducted with SPSS 11.5 using Varimax rotation with a cut-off of .30 on loadings. However, the resulting solution did not make sense. Analysis was repeated with different rotation types, but similar results were obtained. Hence, based on the relatively high internal consistency reliabilities (see Table 4.3 and Table 4.4.); original groupings of the task- and people-orientation items were adopted.

No exploratory or confirmatory analyses were performed on the satisfaction and commitment measures since these scales were already tested and proved to have acceptable psychometric qualities on Turkish samples.

4.3 Descriptive Statistics

Use of matched-sample method in this study necessitated some manipulations in the data sets. That is, in order to use the evaluations of actual leadership style of a given manager made by his/her subordinates, average of individual evaluations given for that specific manager was taken. In other words, actual leadership style of a manager was determined by averaging the ratings across all subordinates rating that specific manager. Parallel to this, every manager's self evaluation of leadership was placed in the data of that specific subordinate.

Mean scores, standard deviations, and reliabilities of all the variables included in the study obtained from both the subordinate and supervisor participants are presented in Tables 4.3 and 4.4. In the commitment scale, 1 item (continuance commitment item #2) was deleted because of being double-barrelled and decreasing the reliability coefficients. Mean scores of the relevant scales concerning employee data revealed that when compared with actual manager evaluations of the subordinates, ideal managers had higher ratings on both task- and people-orientation dimensions of leadership. Moreover, contextual performance levels of ideal managers were rated by the subordinates as higher than their actual manager evaluations. Self-ratings of subordinates on their task,

contextual and overall performance levels were higher than supervisory-ratings on those performance measures.

Table 4.3. Means, Standard Deviations and Reliabilities Concerning the Variables of Interest (Employee Data)

Measure / Variable	# of items	Mean	SD	St. Alpha
<i>Actual Manager</i>				
Task orientation	20	3.54	.50	.84
People orientation	20	3.43	.53	.83
Task performance*	5	4.28	.62	.81
Contextual performance*	5	4.03	.63	.73
Overall performance*	11	4.17	.60	.89
<i>Ideal Manager</i>				
Task orientation	20	3.63	.43	.80
People orientation	20	3.62	.46	.80
Task performance*	5	4.29	.52	.76
Contextual performance*	5	4.45	.52	.67
Overall performance*	11	4.38	.47	.87
<i>Subordinate Self-Evaluations</i>				
Job Satisfaction	20	3.65	.63	.92
Affective Commitment	9	3.84	.75	.86
Calculative Commitment	8	3.11	.74	.81
Normative Commitment	14	3.56	.72	.89
Overall Organizational Commitment	32	3.52	.60	.92
Self-Rated Task Performance*	5	4.56	.41	.75
Self-Rated Contextual Performance*	5	4.37	.45	.69
Self-Rated Overall Performance*	11	4.47	.39	.85
<i>Manager Evaluations</i>				
Supervisor-Rated Task Performance	5	3.73	.35	.49
Supervisor-Rated Contextual Performance	5	3.83	.38	.51
Supervisor-Rated Overall Performance	11	3.82	.65	.75

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all scales/measures, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always” for leadership and performance-related items; 1 = “Very dissatisfied” and 5 = “Very satisfied” for job satisfaction items; 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 5 = “Strongly agree” for organizational commitment items. * Measures included for exploratory purposes only.

Mean scores of the relevant scales concerning manager data revealed parallelness in ratings between self-ratings of the managers and subordinate evaluations as perceived by the managers on both task- and people-orientation

Table 4.4. Means, Standard Deviations, and Reliabilities Concerning the Variables of Interest (Manager Data)

Measure / Variable	# of items	Mean	SD	St. Alpha
<i>Self Evaluation</i>				
Task orientation	20	3.56	.39	.73
People orientation	20	3.65	.34	.72
Task performance*	5	4.35	.44	.62
Contextual performance*	5	4.35	.43	.66
Overall performance*	11	4.36	.37	.77
Job Satisfaction*	20	3.74	.49	.89
<i>Subordinate Evaluation as Perceived by Managers</i>				
Task orientation	20	3.55	.40	.74
People orientation	20	3.64	.67	.76
Task performance*	5	4.37	.46	.80
Contextual performance*	5	4.21	.48	.67
Overall performance*	11	4.30	.43	.86

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all scales/measures, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always” for leadership and performance-related items; 1 = “Very dissatisfied” 5 = “Very satisfied” for job satisfaction items. * Measures included for exploratory purposes only.

dimensions. Ratings concerning performance levels of the managers were similar in general; however, managers evaluated their contextual performance levels higher in self-ratings, and claimed that their subordinates would provide lower ratings on their contextual performance level.

Intercorrelations of the variables concerning both subordinates and managers are presented in Tables 4.5 and 4.6, respectively. In general, the pattern of correlations is as expected. For example, the correlations between job satisfaction and both affective and normative commitment were positive and significant. Moreover, job satisfaction was significantly positively correlated with all three self-rated performance measures. Satisfaction was also positively correlated with people- and task-orientation of both actual and ideal manager perceptions. Satisfaction was negatively correlated with incongruences between actual and ideal manager perceptions on both task- and people-orientation. That is, satisfaction tended to increase as incongruence increased.

Table 4.5. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Variables Obtained From / Concerning Employees

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>
1. Job Satisfaction	3.65	.63	233	-										
2. Affective Commitment	3.84	.75	234	.549**	-									
3. Continuance Commitment	3.11	.74	234	.104	.207**	-								
4. Normative Commitment	3.57	.72	234	.526**	.766**	.435**	-							
5. Supervisory-rated Task Perf.	4.17	.58	164	.094	.174*	-.063	.074	-						
6. Supervisory-rated Contextual Perf.	4.08	.62	164	.113	.204**	-.106	.089	.744**	-					
7. Supervisory-rated General Perf. (11)	4.14	.57	164	.111	.206**	-.072	.095	.931**	.931**	-				
8. Self-rated Task Perf.	4.55	.42	231	.348**	.313**	.103	.248**	.043	.010	.036	-			
9. Self-rated Contextual Perf.	4.37	.46	231	.359**	.441**	.168*	.389**	-.033	.051	.023	.678**	-		
10. Self-rated General Perf. (11)	4.46	.40	231	.382**	.400**	.143*	.342**	-.005	.018	.019	.914**	.908**	-	
11. Actual People Orient.	3.42	.53	234	.508**	.223**	-.100	.160*	.097	.106	.110	.085	.157*	.123	-
12. Actual Task Orient.	3.55	.50	234	.376**	.262**	.085	.265**	.185*	.229**	.223**	.272**	.366**	.344**	.068
13. Ideal People Orient.	3.62	.46	234	.288**	.228**	-.027	.103	.106	.098	.102	.044	.058	.050	.485**
14. Ideal Task Orient.	3.64	.43	234	.238**	.267**	.146*	.232**	.115	.165*	.156*	.365**	.420**	.426**	-.083
15. Incongruence btw. Actual-Ideal People Orient. ¹	.29	.59	234	-.238**	-.020	-.006	-.071	-.005	.063	.026	-.021	-.081	-.052	-.506**
16. Incongruence btw. Actual-Ideal Task Orient. ²	.21	.39	234	-.269**	-.121	.051	-.050	-.159*	-.134	-.164*	.001	-.076	-.037	-.358**
17. Age	33.81	.37	223	.008	.033	.210**	.049	-.167*	-.210**	-.208**	.036	.052	.056	.017
18. Gender (0 = male; 1 = female)	-	-	230	-.128	-.014	.007	-.092	.082	.155*	.125	-.042	.035	-.020	-.056
19. Education	-	-	225	-.099	-.141*	-.312**	-.300**	.012	-.073	-.050	-.106	-.140*	-.129	.081
20. Tenure	12.60	8.05	222	.058	.095	.256**	.150*	-.091	-.136	-.124	.076	.090	.096	-.011
21. Tenure with manager	3.19	3.98	218	-.060	-.026	.139*	-.017	-.124	-.268**	-.216**	-.039	-.076	-.061	-.152*
22. Tenure in the firm	6.50	6.26	224	-.063	.038	.250**	.027	-.132	-.234**	-.198*	.016	-.011	.012	-.139*
23. Sector (1 = manuf., 2 = service)	-	-	234	-.218**	-.245**	-.078	-.145*	-.085	-.114	-.101	.028	.080	.071	-.082
24. Questionnaire type (1 = actual first 2 = ideal first)	-	-	234	-.174**	-.188**	-.087	-.128	-.128	-.157*	-.148	-.177**	-.130*	-.151*	-.094

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all leadership, job satisfaction, performance, and commitment related items, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always” for leadership and performance items; 1 = “Very dissatisfied” and 5 = “Very satisfied” for job satisfaction items; 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 5 = “Strongly agree” for organizational commitment items. ¹ Incongruence had a range between 0 and 5.08. ² Incongruence had a range between 0 and 2.72. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.5. continued.

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>16</i>	<i>17</i>	<i>18</i>	<i>19</i>	<i>20</i>	<i>21</i>	<i>22</i>	<i>23</i>	<i>24</i>
12. Actual Task Orient.	3.55	.50	234	-												
13. Ideal People Orient.	3.62	.46	234	-.029	-											
14. Ideal Task Orient.	3.64	.43	234	.552**	-.135*	-										
15. Incongruence btw. Actual-Ideal People Orient. ¹	.29	.59	234	-.010	.139*	-.017	-									
16. Incongruence btw Actual-Ideal Task Orient. ²	.21	.39	234	-.371**	-.011	-.067	.429**	-								
17. Age	33.81	.37	223	-.200**	.127	-.145*	-.050	-.023	-							
18. Gender (0 = male; 1 = female)	-	-	230	.097	.123	-.017	.089	.064	-.150*	-						
19. Education	-	-	225	-.254**	.226**	-.182**	.078	.029	.023	-.004	-					
20. Tenure	12.60	8.05	222	-.079	.039	-.037	-.056	-.074	.889**	-.182**	-.201**	-				
21. Tenure with manager	3.19	3.98	218	-.058	-.105	-.050	.038	.060	.369**	-.066	-.105	.364**	-			
22. Tenure in the firm	6.50	6.26	224	-.189**	-.040	-.112	-.010	.092	.679**	.000	-.184**	.675**	.565**	-		
23. Sector (1 = manuf., 2 = service)	-	-	234	-.123	-.124	-.078	-.017	.126	.132*	.085	.041	.147*	-.149*	-.037	-	
24. Questionnaire type (1 = actual first, 2 = ideal first)	-	-	234	-.101	-.107	-.242**	-.016	.054	-.076	-.002	.140*	-.139*	-.167*	-.144*	.113	-

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all leadership, job satisfaction, performance, and commitment related items, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always” for leadership and performance items; 1 = “Very dissatisfied” and 5 = “Very satisfied” for job satisfaction items; 1 = “Strongly disagree” and 5 = “Strongly agree” for organizational commitment items. ¹ Incongruence had a range between 0 and 5.08. ² Incongruence had a range between 0 and 2.72. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.6. Means, Standard Deviations, and Correlations Between Variables Obtained From / Concerning Managers

<i>Variables</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>N</i>	<i>1</i>	<i>2</i>	<i>3</i>	<i>4</i>	<i>5</i>	<i>6</i>	<i>7</i>	<i>8</i>	<i>9</i>	<i>10</i>	<i>11</i>	<i>12</i>	<i>13</i>	<i>14</i>	<i>15</i>	<i>16</i>
1. Job Satisfaction	3.74	.49	65	-															
2. Self Evaluation People Orient.	3.67	.34	65	.150	-														
3. Self Evaluation Task Orient.	3.54	.39	65	.364**	-.310**	-													
4. Perceived People Orient.	3.65	.37	65	.187	.836	-.281*	-												
5. Perceived Task Orient.	3.56	.40	65	.301*	-.220	.794**	-.183	-											
6. Incongruence btw. Self-Perceived People Orient. ¹	.04	.06	65	.090	-.089	.167	-.177	.141	-										
7. Incongruence btw. Self-Perceived Task Orient. ²	.06	.09	65	.017	.099	-.071	.029	.081	-.107	-									
8. Incongruence btw. Actual-Self People Orient. ³	.26	.46	65	-.002	.241	-.066	.167	-.086	-.076	.263*	-								
9. Incongruence btw. Actual-Self Task Orient. ⁴	.19	.24	65	.216	-.124	.114	-.030	-.003	-.223	.276*	.035	-							
10. Age	39.31	7.53	64	-.039	-.189	-.150	-.199	-.229	.133	-.020	.023	.203	-						
11. Gender (0 = male, 1 = female)	-	-	65	.015	.123	.004	.129	.081	-.076	.094	-.042	.024	-.143	-					
12. Education	-	-	64	-.238	.210	-.158	.151	-.135	-.050	-.115	.020	-.080	-.075	.019	-				
13. Tenure in the firm	8.44	6.67	64	-.141	-.103	-.185	-.240	-.155	.171	.106	.084	.074	.549**	.027	-.159	-			
14. Tenure	9.29	6.74	63	-.153	-.048	-.068	-.099	-.019	-.030	-.085	-.041	.224	.717**	-.165	.152	.290*	-		
15. Sector (1 = manuf., 2 = service)	-	-	65	-.093	-.116	-.014	-.125	-.008	-.057	.142	-.085	.005	.019	.232	.002	-.146	.001	-	
16. Questionnaire type (1 = self first, 2 = perc. first)	-	-	65	-.111	.124	.001	.025	-.033	.104	-.126	-.022	-.041	.057	.038	-.043	.163	-.051	.024	-

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all leadership and job satisfaction measures, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always” for leadership items; 1 = “Very dissatisfied” and 5 = “Very satisfied” for job satisfaction items. ¹ Incongruence had a range between 0 and 2.40. ² Incongruence had a range between 0 and 1.21.

³ Incongruence had a range between 0 and .25. ⁴ Incongruence had a range between 0 and .36. * $p < .05$. ** $p < .01$.

Affective commitment had significant correlations with normative commitment, supervisory- and self-rated performance dimension, actual and ideal manager perceptions on task- and people-orientation, education, sector, and questionnaire type. Continuance commitment was correlated with normative commitment, self-rated contextual and general performance dimensions, ideal manager task-orientation, age, education, and all variations of tenure. Normative commitment had significant correlations with self-rated performance dimensions, actual manager people- and task-orientation, ideal manager task-orientation, education, tenure in general, and sector.

Regarding variables concerning manager participants, significant correlations between self evaluation of managers on task orientation and employee perceptions on task-orientation as presumed by managers; self evaluation of managers on task-orientation and employee perceptions on people-orientation as presumed by managers; and self evaluation of managers on task- and people-orientation were observed.

4.4 Hypotheses Testing

In this study, subordinates provided ratings of task- and people-oriented leadership styles of both their actual and ideal managers. Managers themselves, on the other hand, evaluated their task and people-oriented leadership behaviours both as how they see themselves and as how they think they are perceived by their subordinates. The hypotheses of this study are concentrated firstly on the leadership styles of the managers (Hypotheses 1a and 1b), then to the ideal leadership perceptions of the subordinates (Hypothesis 2), and lastly on the effects of incongruences between actual and ideal task- and people-oriented leadership styles of the managers on subordinate satisfaction, commitment, and performance levels (Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c).

4.4.1 Leadership Style of Managers and Leadership Prototypes of Employees

In testing Hypothesis 1, task- and people-oriented leadership styles of the managers as perceived by the manager themselves and also by their subordinates were investigated.

Hypothesis 1a. Self-reported leadership style of Turkish middle level managers is more likely to be people-oriented than task-oriented.

Hypothesis 1b. As perceived by the incumbents, leadership style of Turkish middle level managers is more likely to be task-oriented than people-oriented.

Means and standard deviations of managers' self evaluations on their task- and people-oriented leadership styles are displayed in Table 4.7.

Table 4.7. Manager Self-Ratings on Task and People Orientation: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Self-Evaluation People Orient.	3.67	.35
Self-Evaluation Task Orient.	3.54	.39

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all variables, 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Always". *N* = 65.

Table 4.8 presents mean scores of people- and task-orientation evaluations of the subordinates concerning their actual and ideal managers.

Table 4.8. Subordinate Ratings of Actual and Ideal Managers' Task and People Orientation: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Ideal Manager People Orient.	3.62	.47
Actual Manager People Orient.	3.42	.53
Ideal Manager Task Orient.	3.64	.44
Actual Manager Task Orient.	3.55	.51

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all variables, 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Always". *N* = 233.

Firstly, for testing Hypothesis 1a, mean scores of task- and people-orientation scores were compared against each other with a paired-sample *t*-test. Examination of results revealed that means of the self-evaluations of managers on their task- and people-orientation were not different from each other ($t = 1.71, p > .05$). Difference between self-reported task- and people-oriented leadership behaviours of managers was not significant. Meaning that Hypothesis 1a was not supported. However, examination of the means suggested that, although not significant, the difference between task- and people-oriented behaviours was in the expected direction. That is, managers tended to report themselves as being relatively more people-oriented.

Similarly, Hypothesis 1b was tested with a paired-sample *t*-test, and the results revealed that the mean of actual manager perceptions of employees on task-orientation was different from the mean of actual manager perceptions of employees on people-orientation ($t = 2.67, p < .01$). Specifically, it was found that leadership style of Turkish managers as perceived by subordinates were more task-oriented than people-oriented. Hence, Hypothesis 1b was supported.

For testing Hypothesis 2, leadership prototypes of the employees were investigated through the ideal leadership evaluations made by the employees.

Hypothesis 2. Ideal leadership prototype of job incumbents is more likely to be people-oriented than task-oriented.

For examining whether the ideal manager perceptions of the employees consisted of people-oriented rather than task-oriented behaviours, a paired-sample *t*-test was executed. Results indicated that the mean of task- and people-orientation of the ideal manager for the employees was not significantly different ($t = -.498, p > .62$). Hence, Hypothesis 2 was not supported. Results of paired-sample *t*-tests are shown in Table 4.9.

Table 4.9. Results of Paired-Sample *t*-tests

<i>Variable</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>p</i>
Manager's Self-Evaluation People Orient. & Task Orient.	1.712	.092
Actual Manager People Orient. & Task Orient.	2,665	.008
Ideal Manager People Orient. & Task Orient.	-.498	.619

To further explore the differences between actual-ideal manager perceptions and between people- and task-oriented leader behaviours a 2 x 2 repeated measure model (actual and ideal manager versus people-orientation and task-orientation) was tested using data reported by the subordinates. The cells in the analysis were as follows: people-orientation of the ideal manager, people-orientation of the actual manager, task-orientation of the ideal manager, and task-orientation of the actual manager. A repeated measures ANOVA was used because each subordinate participate provided data for each cell, or for all four conditions.

Examination of the results revealed that main effect of ideal manager perceptions of employees was significant [$F(1,231) = 39.093, p < .001$]. In other words, the difference in task- and people-orientation of ideal manager perceptions of employees was significant. On the other hand, main effect of actual manager perceptions of employees was insignificant [$F(1,231) = 3.303, p > .05$], meaning that the difference in task- and people-orientation of actual manager perceptions of employees was not significant. In the next step, the interaction of actual and ideal manager perceptions was investigated and found to be significant [$F(1,231) = 5.598, p < .05$].

Post-hoc pairwise comparisons were made using Tukey tests ($p < .05$) in order to understand the nature of the interaction effect observed (see Figure 1). Results of Tukey test revealed that the mean differences between actual manager's people-orientation (Mean = 3.42) and task-orientation (Mean = 3.55); task-orientation of actual and ideal manager (Mean = 3.55 and Mean = 3.64, respectively); and people-orientation of actual and ideal manager (Mean = 3.42

and Mean = 3.62, respectively) were significant. Only the mean difference between ideal manager's task-orientation (Mean = 3.64) and people-orientation (Mean = 3.62) was not significant. That is, subordinate perceptions of ideal manager's task- and people-orientation were not significantly different from each other. On the other hand, subordinate perceptions of actual manager's task- and people-orientation were significantly different; employees thought that their actual managers were more task-oriented than people-oriented. Regarding task-orientation dimension of leadership, employees thought that their actual managers were less task-oriented than they expected or desired. Similarly, their actual managers were less people-oriented than they expected or desired. However, the difference between actual and ideal manager perceptions was greater for people-orientation than task-orientation, meaning that when compared with task-orientation, employees perceived their managers far less people-oriented than they would have liked them to be.

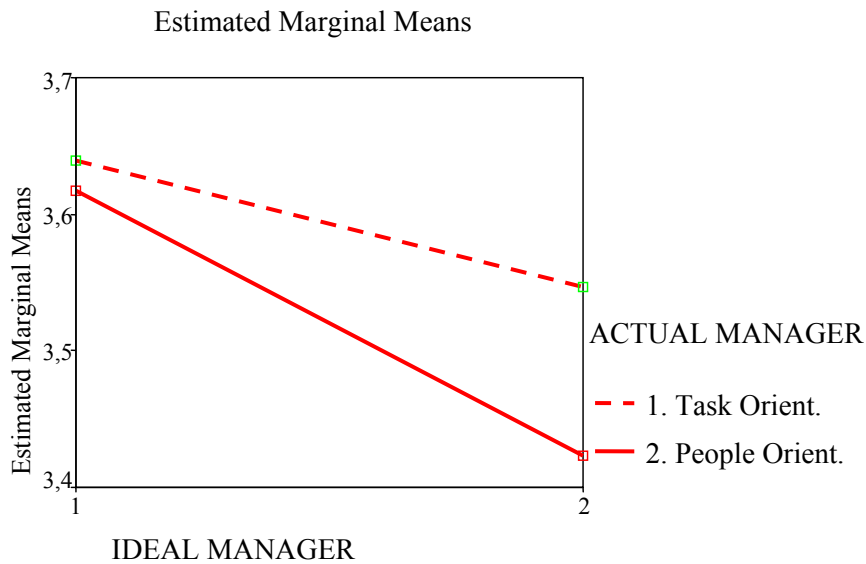


Figure 1. Plot of the Interaction between Task- and People-Orientation of Actual and Ideal Manager as Evaluated by Subordinates

Although it is not a part of hypotheses of the study, for exploratory purposes mainly, the data obtained from managers were analyzed for investigation of leadership styles of managers as perceived by themselves. Mean scores of managers' self evaluations and subordinate evaluations as presumed by managers on people and task orientation are presented in Table 4.10.

Table 4.10. Manager Self Ratings and Subordinate Evaluation as Presumed by Managers on Task- and People-Orientations: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Manager Self Evaluation People Orient.	3.67	.34
Subordinate Evaluation as Presumed by Manager - People Orient.	3.65	.37
Manager Self Evaluation - Task Orient.	3.54	.39
Subordinate Evaluation as Presumed by Manager - Task Orient.	3.56	.40

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all variables, 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Always".

The differences between managers' self evaluations and subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers on people- and task- orientation were explored with a 2 x 2 repeated measures model, with the following four conditions: manager self evaluation on people-orientation, subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers on people-orientation, manager self evaluation on task-orientation, and subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers on task-orientation.

Examination of the results revealed that main effect of self-evaluations was insignificant [$F(1,64) = .001, p > .05$]. In other words, there was no statistically significant difference in task- and people-orientation in self-evaluations of the managers. Similarly, main effect of subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers was not significant [$F(1,64) = 2.365, p > .05$]. That is, there was not a significant difference in task- and people-orientation in subordinate evaluations as presumed by managers. Interaction of self-evaluations of managers and subordinate evaluations as perceived by managers was

investigated next, and not found to be significant either [$F(1,64) = .733$ and $p > .05$]. Despite insignificance of both the main effects and the interaction effect, means are plotted in Figure 2.

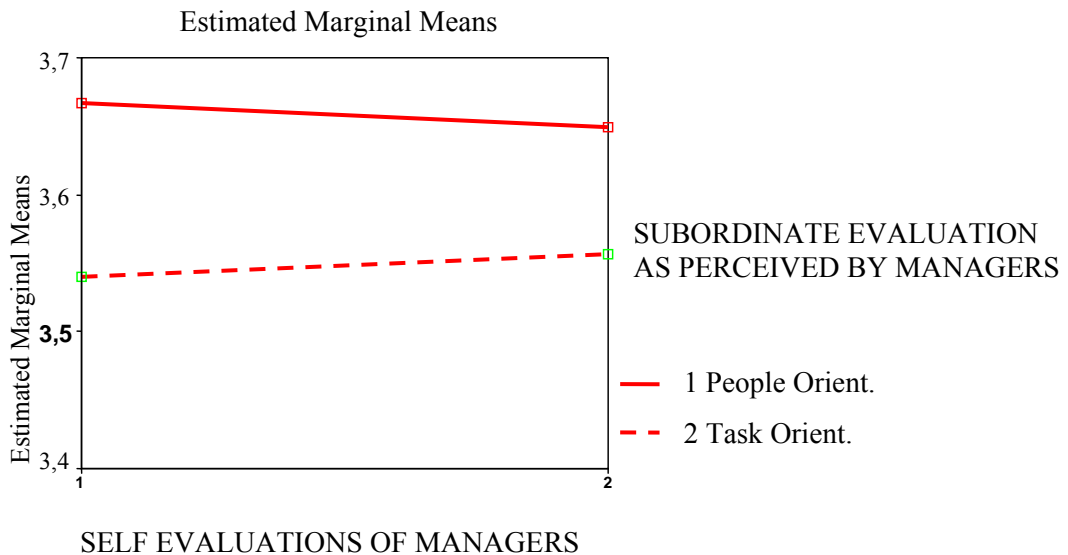


Figure 2. Plot of the Interaction between Task- and People-Orientations of Self Evaluations and Subordinate Evaluations as Perceived by Managers

Examination of Figure 2 suggested that the difference between self evaluations of managers on people- and task-orientation was noticeable. Managers perceived themselves to be more people-oriented than task-oriented. Actually, despite the insignificance of the interaction term, a post-hoc comparison indicated that the difference between self-rated people-orientation (Mean = 3.67) and task-orientation (Mean = 3.54) was significant. Furthermore, the difference between employee evaluation of manager's task-orientation (Mean = 3.56) and people-orientation (Mean = 3.65) as presumed by the managers was also significant. That is, managers tended to think that their subordinates presumed their leadership style as being more people-oriented than task-oriented.

All told, the findings of analyses suggested that while employees thought that their actual managers were more task-oriented than people-oriented, their managers thought that they displayed more people-oriented behaviours than task-

oriented behaviours. And also managers thought that their subordinates perceived them to be more people-oriented than task-oriented.

4.4.2 Effects of Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Leadership Style on Organizational Outcomes

In this section, Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c which are about effects of incongruence of actual and ideal leadership style on organizational outcomes are tested.

Hypothesis 3a. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher subordinate task and contextual performance.

Hypothesis 3b. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher subordinate satisfaction.

Hypothesis 3c. Congruence between subordinate perception of leader's style and subordinate prototype of leadership leads to higher commitment levels in subordinates.

Before presenting the relevant analyses, first calculation of congruence (in fact, incongruence) is described below.

4.4.2.1 Calculation of Congruence/Incongruence

In order to test Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c, which were based on the differences in perceptions and their effect on work outcomes of the employees, two congruence scores were calculated using the procedure described in the method section. Following Kristof's (1996) suggestions, incongruences were computed by calculating the squared differences of the relevant mean scores. In this approach incongruence is simply the squared difference between the two scores. High values of congruence (i.e., incongruence) indicated greater difference in the compared variables. For example, if the two means to be compared were

3.54 and 4.08, congruence score would be $[(3.54 - 4.08)^2] = .29$, while the incongruence score of the means of 2.56 and 3.80 would be $[(2.56 - 3.80)^2] = 1.54$. The second incongruence suggests greater difference between the compared means.

Hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c were about the effects of incongruence between subordinates' actual and ideal manager's leadership styles so the first incongruence score calculated in this study was the incongruence between subordinates' actual and ideal manager evaluations. The second incongruence score was the incongruence between managers' self evaluations and of their leadership style and their subordinates' evaluation of their leadership style. Congruences were calculated for dimensions of leadership: task-orientation and people-orientation, yielding four incongruence scores. Means and standard deviations of these four incongruence measures are presented in Table 4.11.

Table 4.11. Means and Standard Deviations of Incongruence Scores

<i>Incongruence</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
1. Btw. Actual Mng. & Ideal Mng. - People Orient.	.29	.59
2. Btw. Actual Mng. & Ideal Mng. - Task Orient.	.21	.39
3. Btw. Actual Mng. & Self Evaluation - People Orient.	.33	.50
4. Btw. Actual Mng. & Self Evaluation - Task Orient.	.28	.36

Note. Incongruence 1 was ranging from 0 to 5.08; Incongruence 2 from 0 to 2.72; Incongruence 3 from 0 to 3.06; Incongruence 4 from 0 to 2.40.

The mean incongruence scores revealed that there was a greater difference between perceptions on people-orientation than between perceptions on task-orientation, in general. The greatest difference was between subordinate evaluation of actual manager and manager's self evaluation on people orientation (.33). Smallest difference among these four incongruence scores was between actual and ideal manager perceptions of the subordinates on task-orientation (.21). It seems fair to say that people-orientation was a more controversial dimension than task-orientation for the participants of this study. Moreover, ideal leader prototype was relatively closer to the actual manager perceptions of employees, while managers' self-perceptions were away from the actual manager perceptions of the employees.

4.4.2.2. Regression Analyses

For testing hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c, which were based on investigation of the effect of the incongruences (incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on task- and people-oriented leadership styles) on subordinate performance, satisfaction, and organizational commitment levels, respectively, a series of multiple regression analyses were conducted using SPSS 11.5.

To identify potential covariates or variables that needed to be controlled for, initially a series of multiple regression analyses were done in which each outcome variable (i.e., job satisfaction, organizational commitment, and performance) was separately regressed on a number of potential covariates (i.e., age, gender, education, tenure in general, tenure in the company, and tenure with the current manager, sector type of the company -manufacturing or service sector-, and the order of the questions in the questionnaires –first asking about actual or ideal manager first). Results of the analyses are presented in Appendix B. These analyses indicated age, education, tenure in general, tenure with the manager, sector type, and questionnaire order as important variables to be controlled for in testing the hypotheses 3a, 3b, and 3c.

Incongruence scores were treated as independent variables and each work outcome (task and contextual performance, job satisfaction, affective, continuance, and normative commitment) was taken as the dependent variable in each regression analysis. The dependent variables (i.e., task and contextual performance, job satisfaction, affective, continuance, and normative commitment) were separately regressed on incongruences after controlling for the effects of covariates.

4.4.2.2.1 Prediction of Task and Contextual Performance

A series of hierarchical multiple regression analyses were performed in order to determine the predictive ability of different incongruence measures (i.e., incongruence of actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates and

incongruence of subordinate perceptions of manager and manager's self-perceptions) on task performance and contextual performance, after controlling for the effects of covariates (i.e., age, education, tenure, tenure with the manager, sector of the company, and the order in the questionnaire forms).

As mentioned above, two different incongruence scores were computed: incongruence between actual and ideal manager evaluations made by the subordinates and incongruence between managers' self evaluations and actual manager evaluations made by their subordinates. Therefore, four regression analyses were run for predicting task and contextual performance levels of the employees.

In the first analysis, task performance was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence scores (incongruences between subordinates' perceptions of actual and ideal managers on people- and task-orientation). Multiple R was found to be significant at the end of the second step ($R = .321$, $F(8,225) = 2.046$, $p < .05$). In the first step, multiple R was found to be significant ($R = .298$, $F(6,225) = 2.344$, $p < .05$). However, the increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .103$, $F_{inc}(2,225) = 1.139$, $p > .05$).

Examination of the β s indicated that age was a significant predictor of task performance in both steps ($\beta = -.403$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.373$, $p < .05$, respectively), in a negative direction. In other words, the older the employees, the lower were the task performance levels of these employees. Moreover, the order of the questions in the questionnaires significantly predicted task performance in the first step ($\beta = -.161$, $p < .05$). Incongruences between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on both task- and people-orientation did not significantly predict task performance. Hence, Hypothesis 3a was not supported. The statistics are summarized in Table 4.12.

Table 4.12 Predicting Task Performance from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.089*	.089*	2.344			
Age				-.030*	.013	-.403*
Education				.053	.046	.103
Tenure				.029*	.014	.375*
Tenure with the manager				-.021	.012	-.154
Sector				-.150	.100	-.122
Questionnaire type				-.191*	.096	-.161*
Step 2	.103	.014	1.139			
Age				-.028*	.013	-.373*
Education				.051	.046	.098
Tenure				.026	.014	.338
Tenure with the manager				-.019	.012	-.140
Sector				-.120	.102	-.097
Questionnaire type				-.177	.097	-.150
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				.042	.078	.049
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				-.186	.124	-.138

Note. $R = .298, p < .05; F = 2.344, p < .05$ in the first step, $R = .321, p > .05; F = 2.046, p < .05$ in the second step; $*p < .05, **p < .01$.

In the second regression analysis, task performance was regressed firstly on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence between managers' self evaluations and employees' evaluations regarding managers' people- and task-orientation. According to the results as displayed in Table 4.13, multiple R was not found to be significant at the end of second step ($R = .307, F(8,225) = 1.853, p > .05$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .298, F(6,225) = 2.344, p < .05$). The increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .095, F_{inc}(2,225) = .435, p > .05$).

Among the control variables and independent variables, age and questionnaire type significantly predicted employee task performance. Age was a significant predictor of task performance in both the first and the second steps ($\beta = -.403, p < .05; \beta = -.388, p < .05$, respectively). The younger the employees, the higher their task performance levels are. Order of the questions in the questionnaires was also significant predictor of task performance in both steps ($\beta = -.161, p < .05; \beta = -.162, p < .05$, respectively). Incongruence between actual

manager perception of the employees and managers' self perceptions about themselves on task and people orientation dimensions did not appear to significantly predict task performance levels of the employees. Hence, Hypothesis 3a was not supported.

Table 4.13. Predicting Task Performance from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.089*	.089*	2.344			
Age				-.030*	.013	-.403*
Education				.053	.046	.103
Tenure				.029*	.014	.375*
Tenure with the manager				-.021	.012	-.154
Sector				-.150	.100	-.122
Questionnaire type				-.191*	.096	-.161*
Step 2	.095	.006	.435			
Age				-.029*	.013	-.388*
Education				.052	.046	.100
Tenure				.027	.014	.353
Tenure with the manager				-.020	.012	-.142
Sector				-.130	.103	-.106
Questionnaire type				-.192*	.097	-.162*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				-.024	.099	-.019
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				-.115	.137	-.071

Note. $R = .298, p < .05$; $F = 2.344, p < .05$ in the first step; $R = .307, p > .05$; $F = 1.853, p > .05$ in the second step; $*p < .05, **p < .01$.

For the third analysis, contextual performance was regressed firstly on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence scores (incongruence between subordinates' perceptions of actual and ideal managers on people- and task-orientation). Results displayed in Table 4.14 revealed that multiple R was not significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .425, F(8,225) = 3.913, p > .05$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .397, F(6,225) = 4.489, p < .01$). The increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .181, F_{inc}(2,225) = 1.999, p > .05$).

Tenure with the manager appeared to be a significant negative predictor of contextual performance in both the first and the second steps ($\beta = -.317, p < .01$; β

= -.308, $p < .01$, respectively), meaning that the longer working period with the current manager, the lower was the contextual performance level of those employees. Similarly, order of the measures in the booklets had a significant negative effect on contextual performance in both steps ($\beta = -.191$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.181$, $p < .05$, respectively). Contrary to the expectations (Hypothesis 3a), incongruences between actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on task- and people-orientation dimensions were not significant predictors of contextual performance.

Table 4.14. Predicting Contextual Performance from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.158**	.158**	4.489			
Age				-.017	.014	-.213
Education				-.028	.047	-.051
Tenure				.013	.015	.165
Tenure with the manager				-.047**	.013	-.317**
Sector				-.191	.103	-.145
Questionnaire type				-.241*	.099	-.191*
Step 2	.181	.023	1.999			
Age				-.013	.014	-.166
Education				-.037	.047	-.066
Tenure				.010	.015	.120
Tenure with the manager				-.046**	.013	-.308**
Sector				-.158	.104	-.120
Questionnaire type				-.229*	.099	-.181*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				.132	.080	.142
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				-.221	.126	-.153

Note. $R = .397$, $p < .001$, $F = 4.489$, $p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .425$, $p > .05$, $F = 3.913$, $p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Lastly, contextual performance was regressed on the control variables, and followed by the two incongruence scores (i.e., incongruence between managers' self evaluations and employees' evaluations regarding their managers' people- and task-orientation). The results revealed that multiple R was not significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .409$, $F(8, 225) = 3.568$, $p > .05$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .397$, $F(6,225) =$

4.489, $p < .01$). The increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .167$, $F_{inc}(2,225) = .837$, $p > .05$).

Tenure with the manager significantly predicted employee contextual performance level in the first and second steps ($\beta = -.317$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -.304$, $p < .01$, respectively). Similarly, order of the measures significantly predicted contextual performance in both steps ($\beta = -.191$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.197$, $p < .05$, respectively). Incongruence between actual manager perception of the employees and managers' self perceptions about themselves on task and people orientation dimensions did not appear to significantly predict contextual performance levels. Therefore, no support for Hypothesis 3a was found. The statistics are summarized in Table 4.15.

Table 4.15. Predicting Contextual Performance from Incongruence between Perceptions of Manager and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	R^2	R^2 <i>Change</i>	F <i>Change</i>	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	.158**	.158**	4.489			
Age				-.017	.014	-.213
Education				-.028	.047	-.051
Tenure				.013	.015	.165
Tenure with the manager				-.047**	.013	-.317**
Sector				-.191	.103	-.145
Questionnaire type				-.241*	.099	-.191*
Step 2	.167	.010	.837			
Age				-.016	.014	-.197
Education				-.031	.047	-.055
Tenure				.012	.015	.146
Tenure with the manager				-.045**	.013	-.304**
Sector				-.169	.105	-.129
Questionnaire type				-.249*	.099	-.197*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				.080	.102	.061
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				-.163	.140	-.094

Note. $R = .397$, $p < .001$, $F = 4.489$, $p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .409$, $p > .05$; $F = 3.568$, $p < .01$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

4.4.2.2.2 Prediction of Job Satisfaction

Two hierarchical multiple regression analyses were conducted to determine the predictive ability of different incongruence measures on job satisfaction, after controlling for the effects of covariates.

Similar to prediction of performance, the incongruences measured used were: incongruence between actual and ideal manager evaluations (on both task- and people-orientation) made by employees and incongruence between managers' self evaluations and actual manager evaluations made by subordinates (on both task- and people-orientation).

In the first analyses, job satisfaction was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence scores (incongruences between subordinates' perceptions of actual and ideal managers on people- and task-orientation). As seen in Table 4.16, multiple R was significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .440$, $F(8,225) = 6.135$, $p < .001$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .359$, $F(6,225) = 5.073$, $p < .001$), and also the increment in the second step was significant ($R^2 = .194$, $F_{inc}(2,225) = 8.248$, $p < .01$).

Tenure significantly predicted job satisfaction in the first and the second steps ($\beta = .337$, $p < .05$; $\beta = .303$, $p < .05$, respectively), meaning that, the longer the period of experience, the more satisfied were the employees. Length of working period with the current manager significantly predicted job satisfaction in the first step in a negative direction ($\beta = -.158$, $p < .05$). In other words, employees who worked for a longer time period with their managers were less satisfied.

Sector of the company significantly predicted job satisfaction in the first and the second steps ($\beta = -.271$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -.250$, $p < .01$, respectively). That is, employees working in manufacturing organizations were more satisfied than the ones working in the service sector organizations. Order of the measures in the booklet also significantly predicted job satisfaction in both steps ($\beta = -.137$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.135$, $p < .05$, respectively).

Incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on people-orientation dimension was a significant predictor of job satisfaction ($\beta = -.179, p < .05$), as expected. That is, the higher difference between subordinate perception of actual and ideal manager on people-oriented leadership behaviours, the less satisfied were the subordinates. Unlike people-orientation, incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on task-orientation did not significantly predict job satisfaction. Therefore, Hypothesis 3b was partially supported.

Table 4.16. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluation of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.129**	.129**	5.073			
Age				-.021	.012	-.265
Education				-.022	.041	-.040
Tenure				.027*	.013	.337*
Tenure with the manager				-.024*	.011	-.158*
Sector				-.343**	.085	-.271**
Questionnaire type				-.169*	.083	-.137*
Step 2	.194**	.065**	8.248			
Age				-.020	.012	-.256
Education				-.017	.040	-.031
Tenure				.025*	.012	.303*
Tenure with the manager				-.020	.011	-.130
Sector				-.316**	.084	-.250**
Questionnaire type				-.167*	.080	-.135*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				-.182*	.072	-.179*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				-.188	.110	-.123

Note. $R = .359, p < .001, F = 5.073, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .440, p < .001, F = 6.135, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

In the second regression analysis for job satisfaction, job satisfaction was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence scores (i.e., incongruences between actual manager perceptions of subordinates and managers' self evaluations on people-orientation and task-orientation). Results are displayed in Table 4.17, and as can be seen, multiple R was significantly different

from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .475$, $F(8,225) = 7.424$, $p < .001$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .359$, $F(6,225) = 5.073$, $p < .001$). The increment in the second step was also significant ($R^2 = .225$, $F_{inc}(2,225) = 12.742$, $p < .01$).

Tenure was a significant predictor of job satisfaction in both steps of the analysis ($\beta = .337$, $p < .05$; $\beta = .298$, $p < .05$), meaning that employees having relatively short work experience on the total were less satisfied than the more experienced ones. Tenure with the current manager significantly predicted general performance in the first step and the second step ($\beta = -.158$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.163$, $p < .05$). Employees working with their managers for longer periods were less satisfied. Sector of the company significantly predicted job satisfaction in both steps ($\beta = -.271$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -.262$, $p < .01$, respectively). Specifically, employees working in service sector organizations were found to be less satisfied than their counterparts in manufacturing organizations. Order of the measures also significantly predicted job satisfaction in both steps ($\beta = -.137$, $p < .05$; $\beta = -.133$, $p < .05$, respectively).

Parallel to the expectations, incongruence between perceptions of subordinates and managers' self evaluations on people-orientation was found to be significantly predicting job satisfaction levels of the employees ($\beta = -.306$, $p < .01$). More specifically, as the managers' self evaluations and employees' perceptions of their managers on people-orientedness diverged, employees were less likely to be satisfied with their jobs. On the contrary, incongruence between actual manager perceptions of subordinates and managers' self evaluations on task-orientation did not significantly predict job satisfaction.

Findings suggested that the greater the difference in perceptions of managers and perceptions of employees regarding people-orientation of the managers, the less satisfied were the employees. That is, as the difference between subordinate perceptions of managers and managers' self perception on people-oriented leadership behaviours increased, subordinates became less satisfied. The discrepancy on task-orientation perceptions did not have such an effect. Hence, Hypothesis 3b was partially supported.

Table 4.17. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.129**	.129**	5.073			
Age				-.021	.012	-.265
Education				-.022	.041	-.040
Tenure				.027*	.013	.337*
Tenure with the manager				-.024*	.011	-.158*
Sector				-.343**	.085	-.271**
Questionnaire type				-.169*	.083	-.137*
Step 2	.225**	.097**	12.742			
Age				-.018	.011	-.225
Education				-.025	.039	-.045
Tenure				.024*	.012	.298*
Tenure with the manager				-.025*	.011	-.163*
Sector				-.332**	.082	-.262**
Questionnaire type				-.164*	.078	-.133*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				-.366**	.075	-.306**
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				-.040	.106	-.024

Note. $R = .359, p < .01, F = 5.073, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .475, p < .001, F = 7.424, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

4.4.2.2.3 Prediction of Affective, Continuance, and Normative Commitment

A series of hierarchical multiple regression analysis was performed to examine the effects of different types of incongruences on the three commitment measures. The aim was to find the predictive ability of different incongruence measures on affective, continuance, and normative commitment, after controlling for the effects of the covariates.

Incongruence measures used in predicting each commitment measure were incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates (on both task- and people-orientation) and incongruence between managers' self evaluations and evaluations made by their subordinates (on both task- and people-orientation). Hence, six regression analyses were conducted for predicting the three dimensions of organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment).

Affective commitment was regressed first on the control variables and on the two incongruence scores (i.e., incongruences between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates on people-orientation and task-orientation). Multiple R was not significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .361, F(8,225) = 3.849, p > .05$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .358, F(6,225) = 5.069, p < .001$). The increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .131, F_{inc}(2,225) = .295, p > .05$).

Among the control variables and independent variables, only sector was a significant predictor of affective commitment in the first and the second steps ($\beta = -.267, p < .01; \beta = -.257, p < .01$, respectively). This suggests that manufacturing sector organizations had more affectively committed employees than service sector organizations. Incongruences between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on people- and task-orientation did not have a significant effect on affective commitment. Therefore, Hypothesis 3c was not supported. Results are presented in Table 4.18.

Table 4.18. Predicting Affective Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.128**	.128**	5.069			
Age				-.019	.015	-.196
Education				-.060	.050	-.089
Tenure				.028	.015	.286
Tenure with the manager				-.025	.014	-.131
Sector				-.410**	.103	-.267**
Questionnaire type				-.196	.100	-.131
Step 2	.131	.003	.295			
Age				-.018	.015	-.182
Education				-.063	.050	-.094
Tenure				.026	.016	.267
Tenure with the manager				-.024	.014	-.126
Sector				-.395**	.106	-.257**
Questionnaire type				-.193	.100	-.129
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				.032	.090	.026
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				-.107	.139	-.057

Note. $R = .358, p < .001; F = 5.069, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .361, p > .05, F = 3.849, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Secondly, affective commitment was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the two incongruence scores (i.e., incongruences between actual manager perceptions of subordinates and managers' self evaluations on people-orientation and task-orientation). As presented in Table 4.19, multiple R was not significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .358$, $F(8,225) = 3.769$, $p > .05$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .358$, $F(6,225) = 5.069$, $p < .001$). The increment in the second step was not significant ($R^2 = .128$, $F_{inc}(2,225) = .015$, $p > .05$).

Among the control variables and independent variables, again only sector was the significant predictor of affective commitment in the first and the second steps ($\beta = -.267$, $p < .01$; $\beta = -.268$, $p < .01$, respectively), meaning that employees working in manufacturing organizations had greater affective commitment. Contrary to Hypothesis 3c, incongruences between perceptions of subordinates and managers' self evaluations on both people-orientation and task-orientation did not predict affective commitment levels of employees.

Table 4.19. Predicting Affective Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of the Managers and Their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.128**	.128**	5.069			
Age				-.019	.015	-.196
Education				-.060	.050	-.089
Tenure				.028	.015	.286
Tenure with the manager				-.025	.014	-.131
Sector				-.410**	.103	-.267**
Questionnaire type				-.196	.100	-.131
Step 2	.128	.000	.015			
Age				-.019	.015	-.196
Education				-.060	.050	-.088
Tenure				.028	.015	.287
Tenure with the manager				-.025	.014	-.132
Sector				-.411**	.105	-.268**
Questionnaire type				-.196	.100	-.131
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				-.016	.096	-.011
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				.011	.136	.006

Note. $R = .358$, $p < .001$, $F = 5.069$, $p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .358$, $p > .05$, $F = 3.769$, $p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

The pattern of results was quite similar for both continuance and normative commitment. Specifically, results in general revealed that incongruences (i.e., both actual-ideal perceptions discrepancy and self-subordinate perceptions discrepancies on both task- and people-oriented behaviours) had no significant effects on affective, continuance (Tables 4.20, 4.21), and normative commitment (Tables 4.22, 4.23).

Table 4.20. Predicting Continuance Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.152**	.152**	6.166			
Age				.015	.014	.161
Education				-.212**	.048	-.320**
Tenure				.003	.015	.035
Tenure with the manager				.003	.013	.016
Sector				-.111	.100	-.074
Questionnaire type				-.007	.096	-.005
Step 2	.156	.004	.541			
Age				.014	.014	.145
Education				-.209**	.048	-.315**
Tenure				.006	.015	.058
Tenure with the manager				.001	.013	.008
Sector				-.130	.102	-.087
Questionnaire type				-.011	.097	-.007
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				-.013	.087	-.011
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				.132	.134	.073

Note. $R = .389, p < .001, F = 6.166, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .395, p > .05, F = 4.739, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

There were a few noticeable findings concerning the effects of control variables on continuance and normative commitment. First, among the control variables, only education was a significant predictor of both continuance and normative commitment in the first and the second steps, meaning that the more educated are the employees, the less continuance and normative commitment they felt.

Table 4.21. Predicting Continuance Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² <i>Change</i>	<i>F</i> <i>Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.152**	.152**	6.166			
Age				.015	.014	.161
Education				-.212**	.048	-.320**
Tenure				.003	.015	.035
Tenure with the manager				.003	.013	.016
Sector				-.111	.100	-.074
Questionnaire type				-.007	.096	-.005
Step 2	.156	.004	.509			
Age				.016	.014	.172
Education				-.214**	.048	-.323**
Tenure				.002	.015	.022
Tenure with the manager				.003	.013	.018
Sector				-.104	.101	-.070
Questionnaire type				-.006	.097	-.004
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				-.078	.092	-.055
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				-.051	.131	-.026

Note. $R = .389, p < .001, F = 6.166, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .395, p > .05, F = 4.730, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.22. Predicting Normative Commitment from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Evaluations of Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R</i> ²	<i>R</i> ² <i>Change</i>	<i>F</i> <i>Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.159**	.159**	6.532			
Age				-.022	.014	-.235
Education				-.170**	.047	-.260**
Tenure				.032*	.014	.336*
Tenure with the manager				-.021	.013	-.114
Sector				-.241*	.098	-.163*
Questionnaire type				-.064	.095	-.044
Step 2	.161	.002	.257			
Age				-.023	.014	-.246
Education				-.166**	.048	-.254**
Tenure				.033*	.015	.347*
Tenure with the manager				-.021	.013	-.114
Sector				-.249*	.100	-.168*
Questionnaire type				-.066	.095	-.046
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal People Orient.				-.061	.086	-.051
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Task Orient.				.055	.132	.031

Note. $R = .399, p < .001, F = 6.532, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .402, p > .05, F = 4.928, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Table 4.23. Predicting Normative Commitment from Incongruence between Perceptions of the Managers and their Subordinates: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.135**	.135**	6.532			
Age				-.022	.014	-.235
Education				-.170**	.047	-.260**
Tenure				.032*	.014	.336*
Tenure with the manager				-.021	.013	-.114
Sector				-.241*	.098	-.163*
Questionnaire type				-.064	.095	-.044
Step 2	.163	.004	.505			
Age				-.022	.014	-.233
Education				-.169**	.047	-.258**
Tenure				.032*	.015	.339*
Tenure with the manager				-.022	.013	-.119
Sector				-.246*	.099	-.166*
Questionnaire type				-.061	.095	-.042
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self People Orient.				-.087	.091	-.063
Incongruence btw. Actual - Self Task Orient.				.060	.129	.031

Note. $R = .399, p < .001, F = 6.532, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .404, p > .05, F = 5.002, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Second, similar to continuance commitment, education significantly predicted normative commitment. That is, as they became more educated, normative commitment of the employees decreased. Tenure was also a significant predictor of normative commitment. More experienced employees had higher normative commitment scores. Another significant predictor of normative commitment was sector; people working in service sector had lower normative commitment scores.

4.4.2.2.4 Prediction of Work Outcomes by Incongruences based on Transformational, Transactional, and Instrumental Leadership

For exploratory purposes, transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership measures were included in the questionnaire package. Mean scores of actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on these measures (displayed in Table 4.24) revealed that both the actual and ideal ratings of these

measures were higher than task- and people-orientation measures. Among the three measures, instrumental leadership was the most observed in the current manager and also the most desirable one for the employees. Ideal manager prototype of the employees consisted more instrumental leadership behaviors, than presented by their current managers.

Table 4.24. Subordinate Evaluations of Actual and Ideal Managers on Transformational, Transactional, and Instrumental Leadership: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variable</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Actual Manager Transformational L.	3.73	.76
Actual Manager Transactional L.	3.72	.80
Actual Manager Instrumental L.	3.86	.70
Ideal Manager Transformational L.	4.07	.57
Ideal Manager Transactional L.	4.09	.63
Ideal Manager Instrumental L.	4.19	.54

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all variables, 1 = “Never” and 5 = “Always”.

A series of multiple regression analyses were run in order to find the effect of incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership styles over employee work outcomes (performance, satisfaction, and commitment). The same control variables used in the multiple regression analyses on task-and people-orientation were added to the analyses. The results, as displayed in Tables 4.25, 4.26, and 4.27 revealed a significant predictive ability of those incongruences only on job satisfaction. In the following paragraphs, results of regression analyses testing the effects of incongruence of actual and ideal manager perceptions on transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership are presented.

Predictive Ability of Transformational Leadership on Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates

on transformational leadership. Multiple R was significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .500, F(7,212) = 9.766, p < .001$). Multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .359, F(6,212) = 5.073, p < .001$). The increment in the second step was also significant ($R^2 = .250, F_{inc}(1,212) = .121, p < .001$).

Incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on transformational leadership predicted job satisfaction levels of employees ($\beta = -.356, p < .01$). The closer the actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on transformational leadership, the more satisfied they were. The results are presented in Table 4.25.

Table 4.25. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Transformational Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	R^2	R^2 <i>Change</i>	F <i>Change</i>	B	$SE B$	β
Step 1	.129**	.129**	5.073			
Age				-.021	.012	-.265
Education				-.022	.041	-.040
Tenure				.027*	.013	.337*
Tenure with the manager				-.024*	.011	-.158*
Sector				-.343**	.085	-.271**
Questionnaire type				-.169*	.083	-.137*
Step 2	.250**	.121**	33.166			
Age				-.014	.011	-.172
Education				-.004	.039	-.007
Tenure				.019	.012	.235
Tenure with the manager				-.020	.010	-.129
Sector				-.318**	.080	-.251**
Questionnaire type				-.190*	.077	-.154*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Transformational L.				-.146**	.025	-.356**

Note. $R = .359, p < .001, F = 5.073, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .500, p < .001, F = 9.766, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Predictive Ability of Transactional Leadership on Job Satisfaction

As a second analysis, job satisfaction was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates on transactional leadership. According to the results (displayed in Table 4.26), multiple R was significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .493, F(7,212) = 9.406, p < .001$). Multiple R in the

first step was found to be significant ($R = .359$, $F(6,212) = 5.073$, $p < .001$). The increment in the second step was also significant ($R^2 = .243$, $F_{inc}(1,212) = 30.977$, $p < .001$).

Incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on transactional leadership predicted job satisfaction levels of employees ($\beta = -.374$, $p < .01$). The closer the actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on transactional leadership, the more satisfied they were.

Table 4.26. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Transactional Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	R^2	R^2 <i>Change</i>	F <i>Change</i>	B	$SE\ B$	β
Step 1	.129**	.129**	5.073			
Age				-.021	.012	-.265
Education				-.022	.041	-.040
Tenure				.027*	.013	.337*
Tenure with the manager				-.024*	.011	-.158*
Sector				-.343**	.085	-.271**
Questionnaire type				-.169*	.083	-.137*
Step 2	.243**	.114**	30.977			
Age				-.015	.011	-.193
Education				-.001	.039	-.001
Tenure				.021	.012	.254
Tenure with the manager				-.020	.010	-.128
Sector				-.302**	.080	-.239**
Questionnaire type				-.197*	.078	-.159*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Transactional L.				-.144**	.026	-.347**

Note. $R = .359$, $p < .001$, $F = 5.073$, $p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .493$, $p < .001$, $F = 9.406$, $p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

Predictive Ability of Instrumental Leadership on Job Satisfaction

Lastly, job satisfaction was regressed first on the control variables, and then on the incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates on instrumental leadership. Multiple R was significantly different from zero at the end of the second step ($R = .474$, $F(7,212) = 8.506$, $p < .001$). As can be seen in Table 4.27, multiple R in the first step was found to be significant ($R = .359$, $F(6,212) = 5.073$, $p < .001$). The increment in the second step was also significant ($R^2 = .225$, $F_{inc}(1,212) = 25.482$, $p < .001$).

Incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on instrumental leadership predicted job satisfaction levels of employees ($\beta = -.318, p < .01$). The closer the actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees on instrumental leadership, the more satisfied they were with their jobs.

Table 4.27. Predicting Job Satisfaction from Incongruence between Actual and Ideal Manager Perceptions of Subordinates on Instrumental Leadership: Summary of Hierarchical Regression Analysis

<i>Variable</i>	<i>R²</i>	<i>R² Change</i>	<i>F Change</i>	<i>B</i>	<i>SE B</i>	<i>β</i>
Step 1	.129**	.129**	5.073			
Age				-.021	.012	-.265
Education				-.022	.041	-.040
Tenure				.027*	.013	.337*
Tenure with the manager				-.024*	.011	-.158*
Sector				-.343**	.085	-.271**
Questionnaire type				-.169*	.083	-.137*
Step 2	.225**	.096**	25.482			
Age				-.015	.011	-.185
Education				-.001	.039	-.001
Tenure				.021	.012	.257
Tenure with the manager				-.026*	.011	-.167*
Sector				-.333**	.081	-.263**
Questionnaire type				-.179*	.078	-.145*
Incongruence btw. Actual - Ideal Instrumental L.				-.151**	.030	-.318**

Note. $R = .359, p < .001, F = 5.073, p < .001$ in the first step; $R = .474, p < .001, F = 8.506, p < .001$ in the second step; * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$.

As the results of the regression analyses suggest, tenure, tenure with the current manager, sector, and questionnaire type were significant predictors of job satisfaction. Tenure was a significant predictor of job satisfaction, meaning that the longer the experience of an employee with the organization, the higher the satisfaction levels was. Furthermore, the longer an employee worked with his/her current manager, the less satisfied he/she would likely to be. Sector was another significant predictor of job satisfaction, in other words, employees working in service sector organizations were less satisfied. Questionnaire type also predicted job satisfaction.

Results of the regression analyses in general indicated that incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on transformational,

transactional, and instrumental leadership had significant negative predictive ability on job satisfaction levels of the employees. In other words, as the discrepancy between perceptions of actual manager's leadership style and ideal manager's leadership style increased, employees became less satisfied with their jobs.

4.4.2.2.5. Most and Least Preferred Leadership Behaviours: An Item-based Analysis

Subordinates' ratings of "actual" and "ideal" manager and managers' self-reported leadership ratings were further examined at the item level in order to be able to grasp the qualitative differences in these perceptions/evaluations. Table 4.28 presents the items with the highest five ratings for actual and ideal managers as evaluated by subordinates as well as the highest rating five items as reported by managers themselves. An inspection of the Table 4.28 suggests that managers and employees had similar ideas regarding leadership in general.

Regarding the least preferred characteristics (presented in Table 4.29), again similar ideas of employees and managers were observed.

4.4.2.2.6. Effects of Order of the Ideal vs. Actual Leader Items

Both the correlations and regression analyses revealed that the order of the scales in the questionnaire forms filled by subordinates did make a difference. That is, it was found that asking about actual manager's leadership style or asking about ideal manager's leadership style first influenced the way subordinate participants responded the whole questionnaire. This is why the order of the scales (or the questionnaire type) was used as one of the control variables in the regression analyses. More specifically, as can be seen in Table 4.28, subordinates who rated their actual manager first and then their ideal manager had greater job satisfaction and organizational commitment levels than the ones who rated their ideal manager first and then their actual manager. Again, employees who rated their actual manager first had greater ratings on their actual and ideal managers'

Table 4.28 Items with Highest Ratings for Subordinates' Actual and Ideal Managers and for Managers' Self-Ratings

<i>Subordinate Evaluations</i>		<i>Manager Evaluations</i>
<i>Actual Manager</i>	<i>Ideal Manager</i>	<i>Self-Rating</i>
Being aware of the strengths of the organization (Mean = 4.43)	Being conscious about the problems of the organization (Mean = 4.59)	Appreciating and showing respect to the people (Mean = 4.74)
Being conscious about the problems of the organization (Mean = 4.36)	Appreciating and showing respect to the people (Mean = 4.58)	Being conscious about the problems of the organization (Mean = 4.69)
Expecting his/her subordinates to inform him/her about the decisions made (Mean = 4.35)	Being aware of the strengths of the organization (Mean = 4.57)	Being aware of the strengths of the organization (Mean = 4.60)
Appreciating and showing respect to the people (Mean = 4.34)	Expecting his/her subordinates to inform him/her about the decisions made (Mean = 4.44)	Behaving in accordance with the values he/she has (Mean = 4.53)
Emphasizing meeting of deadlines (Mean = 4.21)	Following the recent developments day by day, which may affect the organization (Mean = 4.43)	Expecting subordinates to be more assertive in their jobs (Mean = 4.49)

Note. All the evaluations were done with a five-point Likert-type scale

Table 4.29 Items with Lowest Ratings for Subordinates' Actual and Ideal Managers and for Managers' Self-Ratings

<i>Subordinate Evaluations</i>		<i>Manager Evaluations</i>
<i>Actual Manager</i>	<i>Ideal Manager</i>	<i>Self-Rating</i>
Letting others do their work in the way they think best (Mean = 2.07)	Letting others do their work in the way they think best (Mean = 1.97)	Doing personal favours for people in the work group (Mean = 1.95)
Doing personal favours for people in the work group (Mean = 2.26)	Waiting for people in the work group to push new ideas (Mean = 2.20)	Letting others do their work in the way they think best (Mean = 2.03)
Waiting for people in the work group to push new ideas (Mean = 2.51)	Doing personal favours for people in the work group (Mean = 2.18)	Waiting for people in the work group to push new ideas (Mean = 2.49)
Insisting that everything be done his/her way (Mean = 2.83)	Encourage overtime work (Mean = 2.84)	Encourage overtime work (Mean = 2.65)
Encourage overtime work (Mean = 2.84)	Insisting that everything be done his/her way (Mean = 3.02)	Giving in to others in discussions with the workgroup (Mean = 2.74)

Note. All the evaluations were done with a five-point Likert-type scale

people- and task-orientation dimensions than their counterparts who rated made ratings in the reverse order, the greatest difference was on ideal manager's task-orientation.

Table 4.30. Difference in Subordinates' Ratings Depending on Questionnaire Order: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variables</i>	<i>First actual manager (N = 122)</i>		<i>First ideal manager (N = 112)</i>	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job Satisfaction	3.75	.61	3.53	.64
Affective Commt.	3.97	.69	3.69	.79
Continuance Commt.	3.17	.80	3.04	.67
Normative Commt.	3.66	.69	3.47	.75
Actual Mng. People-Orient.	3.47	.52	3.37	.53
Actual Mng. Task-Orient.	3.59	.49	3.49	.52
Ideal Mng. People-Orient.	3.66	.44	3.56	.48
Ideal Mng. Task-Orient.	3.74	.39	3.53	.45

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all leadership, job satisfaction, and commitment related items, 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Always" for leadership items; 1 = "Very dissatisfied" and 5 = "Very satisfied" for job satisfaction items; 1 = "Strongly disagree" and 5 = "Strongly agree" for organizational commitment items.

As shown in Table 4.30, managers who rated their own leadership style as presumed by their subordinates first and then evaluated their own leadership style had greater job satisfaction levels. The greatest difference was in between the self-ratings on people-orientation level, meaning that managers who rated their own leadership style first and then made ratings concerning their subordinates' perceptions rated themselves as being less people-oriented.

Table 4.31. Difference in Managers' Ratings Depending on Questionnaire Order: Means and Standard Deviations

<i>Variables</i>	<i>First as perceived (N = 32)</i>		<i>First self-rating (N = 33)</i>	
	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>	<i>Mean</i>	<i>SD</i>
Job Satisfaction	3.80	.42	3.69	.55
Self-rating People-Orient.	3.62	.32	3.71	.36
Self-rating Task-Orient.	3.54	.38	3.54	.40
As Perc. People-Orient.	3.64	.34	3.66	.40
As Perc. Task-Orient.	3.57	.40	3.54	.41

Note. A five-point Likert-type scale was used for all leadership and job satisfaction items, 1 = "Never" and 5 = "Always" for leadership items, and 1 = "Very dissatisfied" and 5 = "Very satisfied" for job satisfaction items.

CHAPTER V

DISCUSSION

5.1 Overview

The aim of the present study was to investigate the leadership styles of Turkish middle-level managers, ideal leadership style for the employees by using the task- and people-orientation taxonomy, and also to examine the effects of incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on work outcomes. In the following sections, after briefly reviewing the sample characteristics and descriptive statistics, findings concerning the hypotheses are discussed. Implications of the findings are followed by the strengths and weaknesses of the present study.

5.2. Sample Characteristics and Descriptive Findings

Sample characteristics were investigated in terms of their relation with work outcomes and leadership perceptions. Majority of the manager participants had less than 10 years of experience as a manager, and also, majority of them had less than 10 years of experience in their current companies. It seems fair to say that majority of the managers had built their managerial careers in the companies they were currently working for.

With regard to the tenure of the subordinates, it was observed that majority of the incumbents had a job tenure of six to 15 years in general; two to 10 years of tenure in their current company, and up to five years with their current manager, suggesting that employees had worked in other companies, and with other

managers considerably before they worked in and with their current organization and manager, respectively. Information regarding tenure of the subordinates can be interpreted as a relative lack of work experience with the current manager, which may have resulted in somewhat deficient information about the manager's leadership style.

As reported by Wasti (2003), in the present study, there were positive significant correlations between the three organizational commitment dimensions. This study also revealed consistent results with the findings of Meyer et al. (1989) in that there was a positive correlation between affective commitment and supervisory-rated performance. Consistent with the findings of Mathieu and Zajac (1990), except for affective commitment, there was no significant relationship between organizational commitment and performance; and also there was a significant relationship between job satisfaction and affective commitment. Regarding the relationship between job satisfaction and performance, no significant relationship was observed as parallel with the literature (Katzell, Thompson, & Guzzo, 1992; Locke & Latham, 1990). Additionally, more satisfied and more committed (affective and normative) incumbents perceived themselves as being higher performers (in terms of task, contextual, and general performance). Furthermore, employees with high continuance commitment levels perceived themselves as high performers not in task performance but in contextual and overall performance.

It was found that task performance had a relatively higher correlation with age and contextual performance had a high correlation with age, gender and tenure in the company and tenure with the manager. Employees who were older and had shorter working experience in the company and with the manager were rated as poor performers by their managers. In terms of contextual performance, managers evaluated females more favorable than males. This may be resulted from an association of contextual performance and feminine attributes, such as an overemphasis on relationships (as described by Hofstede, 1991). Regarding self-ratings, less educated employees evaluated themselves as being relatively low on contextual performance. This may have resulted from these employees'

perception of contextual performance as being irrelevant to performance, unnecessary/unimportant, or as something negative.

Finally, contrary to the findings in Employment Outlook 2001 (OECD, 2001), in which job satisfaction was reported to be higher in the service-sector than in the goods-producing sectors in European Union countries, in the present study, employees working in the service sector companies were found to be less satisfied than ones in the manufacturing sector. They also had lower affective and normative commitment than their counterparts in the manufacturing sector. Moreover, these incumbents had longer job tenure in general but shorter work experience with their current managers. This can be interpreted as an indication that employees in the service sector have greater intention to leave/change their jobs more easily than the ones in manufacturing sector.

5.3 Results of Hypothesis Testing

Three main hypotheses of this study, regarding leadership styles of actual and ideal managers and predictive ability of the difference between perceptions on task- and people-orientation taxonomy in terms of employee work outcomes were investigated separately in the present study. In the following sections, results from hypotheses testing are discussed.

5.3.1. Leadership Style of the Managers

The first hypothesis of this study had two parts as managers' leadership styles were examined by using two sources: managers themselves and their subordinates. The first part of the hypothesis (Hypothesis 1a) stated that the self-reported leadership styles of the managers would be more people-oriented than task-oriented. The second part of the hypothesis (Hypothesis 1b) stated that leadership styles of the managers would be more task-oriented than people-oriented as perceived by their job incumbents.

Direct support for Hypothesis 1a was not obtained in the present study. Yet, as a tendency, managers perceived themselves as more people-oriented than task-

oriented. Results of the analyses provided support for Hypothesis 1b, that is, employees perceived their managers' leadership style as more task-oriented than people-oriented. Studies indicated that Turkey is a paternalistic culture (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000), relatively high on power distance and collectivism (Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; Hofstede, 1980; Pasa, 2000; İmamoğlu & Karakitapoğlu-Aygün, 1999), with a great importance attributed to relationships and support from supervisors (Sargut & Özen, 2000). Under such cultural characteristics, Turkish managers and subordinates can be expected to place more value on personal relationships, and mutual trust and respect, instead of having an overemphasis on planning, organizing, and structuring.

As expected, employees perceived their managers' leadership styles as being more task-oriented rather than people-oriented. This can be explained by higher standards and expectations concerning people-orientation of managers on the part of the subordinates. That is, subordinates seemed to have quite high expectations concerning people-orientation, such that, it is almost impossible for managers to meet these high expectations. This interpretation was also supported by the significant difference/discrepancy between ideal and actual managers' people-oriented behaviours.

5.3.2. Leadership Style of Ideal Managers

The second hypothesis of the study was that subordinates would have a leadership prototype consisting more people-oriented behaviours than task-oriented behaviours. Based on the cultural characteristics examined in the literature (e.g., Hofstede, 1980; Aycan & Kanungo, 2000; and Sargut & Özen, 2000), it was expected that ideal managers for the employee participants would be more people-oriented than task-oriented. This hypothesis was not supported, as employees evaluated their ideal managers as being high on both people- and task-orientation, without any significant difference between the two dimensions.

This finding is, in fact, not inconsistent with the literature that effective or more desirable leaders are high on both people- and task-oriented behaviours

(Blake & Mouton, 1964; Misumi & Peterson 1985). That is, employees desire both people- and task-oriented behaviours from their managers.

Furthermore, in the present study, the difference between actual and ideal manager perceptions was greater for people-oriented behaviours. In other words, compared with task-orientation, employees thought that their managers were far less people-oriented than they wanted them to be. This difference can be explained with the greater importance attributed by the employees to people-oriented behaviours.

At the item level, employees and managers considered some leadership characteristics as being more desirable than others. These were consciousness and awareness about the weaknesses and strengths of the organization, appreciation and respect towards people, and expectation of being informed about all the decisions made. Similarly, the least desirable leadership characteristics for the employees and managers were letting others do their work in the way they think best, doing personal favours for people in the work group, waiting for people in the work group to push new ideas, encouraging overtime work, and insisting that everything be done manager's way. When the most and least favourable leader characteristics were considered together, a strategic, authoritative, and also considerate or caring, less participative or more decisive leader image together with a belief in equal treatment of employees and the ability or tendency to show respect and appreciation towards the employees emerged.

Interestingly, it was found that the order of inquiring about ideal or actual leader first was found to influence the way subordinate participants responded the rest of the scales in the questionnaire. That is, the ones, who did not expect that they would also rate ideal leaders (i.e., the ones who rated their actual managers first), provided higher ratings on their job satisfaction and organizational commitment. On the other hand, those who first rated their ideal leaders had lower job satisfaction and organizational commitment together with lower ratings of task- and people-orientation levels of their actual and ideal managers. It is possible that rating ideal managers first could have increased the standards and expectations of the subordinate participants concerning their manager, job, and organization. In other words, subordinates may have felt that their managers were

not performing as good as their ideal managers, and this may have resulted in relatively lower levels of not only job satisfaction and organizational commitment, but also lower levels of task- and people-oriented behaviours of their managers.

5.3.3. Congruence of Leadership Style Perceptions and Work Outcomes

The third hypothesis of the study was about the effects of incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on performance (task and contextual performance), job satisfaction, and organizational commitment (affective, continuance, and normative commitment) levels of the employees. Hypothesis 3 was only partially supported, as only job satisfaction was predicted by incongruence.

More specifically, the results of the hierarchical regression analyses revealed that the difference between actual and ideal manager perceptions of subordinates on people-orientation was a significant predictor of job satisfaction. Ideal-actual leadership perceptions congruence seemed to be especially critical for people-orientation dimension rather than task-orientation dimension, providing further support for the importance of people-oriented behaviours for Turkish employees. Similarly, the difference between self-perceptions of the managers and their subordinates' evaluations regarding their managers on people-orientation significantly predicted job satisfaction.

All told, the results indicated that perceptual differences (of managers and employees and of actual and ideal manager) in people-oriented leadership style had predictive ability in terms of job satisfaction: the closer the actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees regarding people-oriented leadership behaviours, the more satisfied were the employees. Similarly, the smaller the difference between managers' self-evaluations and subordinates' evaluations concerning the people-oriented leadership behaviours, the more satisfied were the employees.

5.3.4. A General Discussion of Actual and Ideal Managers' Leadership Styles and Relationship between Congruence of Leadership Style Perceptions and Work Outcomes

The findings of the present study indicated that actual leadership style of the managers (as perceived by themselves) was somewhat more people-oriented (although not significant) than task-oriented, while subordinate perceptions concerning their managers' leadership style was the opposite. The ideal leadership schema of the employees consisted of higher levels of both people- and task-oriented leadership behaviours, than possessed by their actual managers.

The findings in the literature concerning person-supervisor fit suggest strong relationships especially between person-supervisor fit and job satisfaction (.44), and also between person-supervisor fit and organizational commitment, and overall performance (.09, and .11, respectively) as reported by Kristof-Brown, Zimmerman, and Johnson (2005). Results of the present study were consistent with the literature to some degree. That is, the incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on people-orientation and task-orientation dimensions of leadership was significantly related with job satisfaction (.24 for people-orientation and .27 for task-orientation). The difference between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees on task-orientation was significantly related with supervisory-rated task and general performance (.16). Contrary to the expectations, no significant relationship between incongruence measures and dimensions of organizational commitment was observed in the present study. Job satisfaction, task performance, and general performance were associated with the difference between actual and ideal manager perceptions of employees.

Concerning the predictive ability of incongruence scores, in the current study, only the perceptual differences regarding people-oriented leadership behaviours (i.e., incongruence) significantly predicted job satisfaction. The degree of employee satisfaction was affected negatively by the difference between the actual and ideal managers' people-oriented behaviours. When subordinates perceived a great difference between their actual and ideal managers in terms of

people-oriented behaviours, they tended to be less satisfied with their jobs. Similarly, when managers' self-evaluations and employees' evaluations of these managers differed on people-orientation, employees were again less satisfied.

Additional analyses conducted on transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership measures suggested that irrespective of the task- and people-orientation taxonomy, it can be claimed that the degree of the perceptual differences between actual and ideal manager evaluations would influence employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction.

There could be several plausible explanations for observing an effect of congruence on job satisfaction but not on performance or commitment. In the present study, congruence between actual and ideal manager leadership perceptions (as well as between self-reported and subordinate reported actual leadership behaviours/perceptions) on people-oriented behaviours had a positive effect on job satisfaction only. It makes sense that fulfillment of expectations, especially concerning relationships, rather than how the job itself or the tasks are handled, would have an effect on job satisfaction.

As suggested in the literature, in the Turkish context (Sargut, 2001), the value attached to establishment and maintenance of good relationships seems much higher than the value attached to the work or job itself. This interpretation can explain why incongruence of people-orientation had an effect on satisfaction but not on performance. Yet, future studies are needed to examine why incongruence on task-oriented behaviours also failed to have an effect on job performance.

A plausible explanation for not observing an effect of incongruence on commitment could be, unlike job satisfaction, which is very likely to be reflected by immediate work-related factors (such as the leader, coworkers, work load, etc.), organizational commitment may be less prone to the immediate influence of the leader or the job-related characteristics.

5.4 Implications of the Findings

Findings of the present study have important theoretical and practical implications. First, results indicated that a significant portion of the variance in job satisfaction could be explained by the congruence of actual-ideal leadership perception on people-orientation. More generally, job satisfaction appeared to be a matter of fulfillment of expectations. This, in itself, seems to be a significant theoretical contribution. This contribution could be enhanced if the same effects could also be shown for other outcome variable, such as performance and commitment. Hence, future studies, using a more sound methodology (in terms of measures, the leadership taxonomy, and the fit indices used), are needed to further explore the effects of congruence on other organizational outcomes.

Results of the present study indicated relatively greater importance attached to people-oriented leader behaviours than task-oriented behaviours. This information could be used to help managers understand the nature and origins of some of the problems emerging in the work context between them and their subordinates as well as to help them understand, and perhaps modify, their leadership behaviours in a given context.

Along the same lines, results of this study suggested that there was a significant relationship between employee job satisfaction and congruence between leadership style perceptions. It can be proposed that in order to sustain employee job satisfaction, managers should perform leadership behaviours, which are desirable for the employees. Indeed, programs or interventions could be developed in which managers are informed about the expectations of their subordinates on leadership behaviours.

5.5 Strengths of the Study

It is important to note several strengths of the present study. First strength is associated with the relative representativeness of the participative organizations. Data were collected from private sector companies in a number of industries like aerospace, textile, food, construction, and tourism. More importantly, the

participating companies were located in a wide range of different geographical regions of the country, and were not in the metropolitan cities only. In these regards, the findings are considered quite credible.

Another strength is that the data were collected from multiple sources: managers and their subordinates. Specifically, not only the self-ratings of managers on their own leadership styles, but also subordinate ratings on their manager's leadership styles were obtained. Furthermore, job performance ratings of the employees were obtained from their managers.

Also, not only the incongruence between actual and ideal manager perceptions of the employees, but also the incongruence between self-reported leadership behaviours and employee evaluations of actual leader behaviours were compared, providing a broader perspective in perceptual differences. Finally, besides people- and task-orientation taxonomy, transformational, transactional, and instrumental leadership were investigated for exploratory purposes.

5.6 Limitations of the Study and Suggestions for Future Research

An important limitation of the present study was the use of a Western-based taxonomy in interpreting leadership behaviours. Use of a culture-based taxonomy could have provided results different from the reported ones.

Related to the above concern, results of the factor analyses on leadership measure used did not provide an interpretable factor structure. Again, the use of a culture-specific scale may have yielded a more interpretable factor structure and different results. Future studies using different taxonomies and/or culture specific measures are needed.

In the present study, a measure of subjective fit was used with the indirect assessment through comparisons made by the same source (i.e., job incumbents). Instead of subjective fit, a direct assessment of compatibility between person and supervisor could have been used. Furthermore, as argued by Kristof-Brown et al. (2005), similarity between managers' self descriptions and employee descriptions of the managers (i.e., perceptual similarity) may not have assessed the fit, but the accuracy of the perceptions. Additionally, besides the difference score,

polynomial regression approach could have been used, since it is reported to produce qualitative explorations of employees' cognitive schemas and to be a more precise tool for investigating the impact of fit. Related to this limitation, the use of multidimensional congruence measures (i.e., not only person-supervisor fit, but also person-organization, person-environment, person-group, person-job and person-vocation fit) can be suggested for future studies. At least, person-group fit can be investigated with respect to its association with person-supervisor fit, which was reported by Kristof-Brown and her colleagues (2005).

In order to explore the effect of leadership and leadership perceptions and to differentiate the individual effects of leadership, other possible variables (e.g., personalities, values, and coworkers of the participants, job and organizational characteristics) could have been included in the design of the study. Future research may include situational variables or characteristics that are likely to affect or contribute to the relationship between incongruences and work outcomes.

Finally, the data in this study were collected using a cross-sectional approach. A longitudinal analysis may allow for a more accurate test of the present hypotheses.

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APPENDICES

APPENDIX A

QUESTIONNAIRE INFORMATION FORM



YÖNETİCİ DAVRANIŞLARI ANKETİ



YÖNETİCİ DAVRANIŞLARI ANKETİ /

Sayın katılımcı,

Bu anket, Orta Doğu Teknik Üniversitesi Endüstri ve Örgüt Psikolojisi Bölümü Yüksek Lisans öğrencisi N. İpek ÖZMEN tarafından Doç. Dr. H. Canan SÜMER'in danışmanlığında yürütülen "Türkiye'de Orta Düzey Yöneticilerin Liderlik Tarzları" konulu tez çalışması kapsamında yapılmaktadır.

Anketin amacı, yöneticilerin liderlik tarzlarını ve bu liderlik tarzlarının çalışanlar tarafından nasıl algılandığını belirlemek ve çalışanların algılamaları ile çalışan performansı, iş tatmini ve organizasyona bağlılığı arasındaki ilişkiyi incelemektir. Bu anlamda sizden anketteki sorulara her bölümde verilen açıklamalar doğrultusunda dikkatli ve özenli yanıtlar vermeniz beklenmektedir.

Anketin en son bölümünde sizden kimlik belirtici bazı bilgiler istenmektedir. Bu bilgiler sadece yönetici-çalışan eşleştirmesini yapabilmek amacıyla toplanacaktır. Kimlik bilgileri hiçbir şekilde kurum içinden ya da dışından kişilerle paylaşılmayacak, sadece araştırma amaçlı kullanılacaktır. Buna ek olarak, anket sorularına verilen bütün cevaplar gizli tutulacak ve anketi uygulayan kişi dışında hiçkimse tarafından incelenemeyecektir.

Değerlendirmenin daha sağlıklı yapılabilmesi için tüm maddelerin cevaplandırılması gerekmektedir. Lütfen, tüm maddeleri dikkatlice okuyunuz ve boş bırakmayınız. Katkılarınız ve yardımlarınız için şimdiden teşekkür ederiz.

Çalışma hakkında detaylı bilgi edinmek veya sorularınız için;

N. İpek ÖZMEN

e-mail:

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APPENDIX B

TASK-ORIENTATION ITEMS
of
LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE (LOQ)
by
Fleishman (1953)

Aşağıdaki maddelerin tanımladığı davranışları **şu anki yöneticinizin** (çalışmalarınızı denetlemekten sorumlu olan ve size birebir yönlendirmelerde bulunan kişi) / **size göre ideal bir yöneticinin** ne sıklıkla gösterdiğini verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. Her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Nadiren	3 Bazen	4 Sıkça	5 Her zaman	
1. Az çalışan elemanlarını daha çok çalışmalarını için teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bütün bir birimin/kuruluşun esenliğini elemanlarının tek tek refahından daha üstün tutar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Elemanlarının neyi nasıl yapmaları konusunda ayrıntılı kararlar verir.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Elemanlarının aldığı kararlardan kendisini haberdar etmelerini ister.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Kötü yapılan işleri eleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. İşte kendi fikirlerini dener.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kurallarından taviz vermez bir şekilde yönetir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bütün bir birimin iyiliği için elemanlarından fedakarlıkta bulunmalarını ister.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Elemanlarını daha fazla çaba harcamaları konusunda “dürtükler”.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Verilen işlerin zamanında bitirilmesi gerektiğini özellikle belirtir.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Elemanlarının her birine ayrı görevler verir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Elemanlarıyla yalnızca daha önceden tayin edilmiş zamanlarda toplantılar yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Rakip gruplardan daha önde olmaları konusunda elemanlarına baskı yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Elemanlarının bir işi en iyi bildikleri biçimde yapmalarına izin verir. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
15. Elemanlarından varolan standartlara harfi harfine uymalarını ister.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Sorunlara yeni yaklaşımlar getirir.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Elemanlarını normal süreden (mesai dışında) daha fazla çalışmalarını konusunda teşvik eder.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Elemanlarının mümkün olduğunca çok çalışmalarını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Ne kadar iş yapılması gerektiği konusunda elemanlarına talimatlar verir.	1	2	3	4	5
20. Elemanlarının yeni fikirler üretmeleri için sabırla bekler. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX C

**PEOPLE-ORIENTATION ITEMS
of
LEADERSHIP OPINION QUESTIONNAIRE (LOQ)
by
Fleishman (1953)**

Aşağıdaki maddelerin tanımladığı davranışları **şu anki yöneticinizin** (çalışmalarınızı denetlemekten sorumlu olan ve size birebir yönlendirmelerde bulunan kişi) / **size göre ideal bir yöneticinin** ne sıklıkla gösterdiğini verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. Her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sıkça	Her zaman

1. Elemanlarıyla konuşmadan onların görevlerini değiştirebilir. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Elemanlarına danışmadan hareket etmez.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bir konuda geri adım atmaya karşı çıkar. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Elemanlarına ayrıcalıklar yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Değişikliklere açıktır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Elemanlarının önerilerini hayata geçirir.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Önemli konularda harekete geçmeden önce elemanlarının onayını alır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Tek tek kişiler yerine bir davranışı eleştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Sorgulanmaya izin vermez bir tarzda konuşur. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Davranışlarının nedenini açıklamayı reddeder. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
11. Elemanlarıyla fikir ayrılıkları olduğunda kendi fikirlerinden vazgeçebilir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Herşeyin kendi istediği şekilde yapılması için ısrar eder. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
13. Elemanlarının yapabileceklerinden daha fazla iş ister. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
14. Başkalarının hoşuna gitmese de elemanlarının hakkını savunur.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Değişime yönelik önerilerden hoşlanmaz. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
16. Elemanlarına kendisiyle eşitlermiş gibi davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Elemanlarına kişisel problemlerinde yardımcı olur.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Elemanlarının yaptıklarını destekler.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Yeni fikirleri kabul etmekte ağır davranır. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşlerin alışılmışın dışında yapılmasına karşı çıkar. (R)	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX D

**TRANSFORMATIONAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS
of
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (LPI)
by
Posner & Kouzes (1988)**

Aşağıdaki maddelerin tanımladığı davranışları **şu anki yöneticinizin** (çalışmalarınızı denetlemekten sorumlu olan ve size birebir yönlendirmelerde bulunan kişi) / **size göre ideal bir yöneticinin** ne sıklıkla gösterdiğini verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. Her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sıkça	Her zaman

1. İşler beklendiği gibi gitmediği zaman “Bu durumdan ne öğrenebiliriz?” diye sorar.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kuruluşumuzu etkileyecek en son gelişmeleri günü gününe takip eder.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Yetenek ve becerilerini gösterebileceği iddialı işlerin peşinden koşar.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Elemanlarının, yaptıkları işlerde daha iddialı olmalarını ister.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Elemanlarının yaptıkları işi daha iyi hale getirecek yeniliklerin arayışı içindedir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Başarısızlık olasılığı olsa bile yeni yaklaşımları dener ve riske girer.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Elemanlarına, onlar için nasıl bir gelecek istediğini anlatır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Diğerlerini, gelecekle ilgili hayallerini paylaşmaya davet eder.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Geleceğe dönük olumlu ve umutlu bir bakış açısı aşılar.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Elemanlarına uzun vadeli menfaatlerini ortak bir hedef doğrultusunda nasıl gerçekleştirebileceklerini gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Gelecekle ilgili beklentiler ve tahminler geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Gelecekteki fırsatlarla ilgili heyecanını ve hevesini herkese aşılar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Eylem planları yaparken başkalarının da bu işe katılımını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İnsanlara değer verip, saygı gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Kendi kararlarını verebilmeleri için elemanlarına geniş yetki verir.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Elemanlarının çalıştıkları projeyi benimsemelerini sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Beraber çalıştığı insanlarla işbirliğine yönelik bir ilişki geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Yönettiği projelerde karşılıklı bir güven ortamı yaratır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX E

**TRANSACTIONAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS
of
LEADERSHIP PRACTICES INVENTORY (LPI)
by
Posner & Kouzes (1988)**

Aşağıdaki maddelerin tanımladığı davranışları **şu anki yöneticinizin** (çalışmalarınızı denetlemekten sorumlu olan ve size birebir yönlendirmelerde bulunan kişi) / **size göre ideal bir yöneticinin** ne sıklıkla gösterdiğini verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. Her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Nadiren	3 Bazen	4 Sıkça	5 Her zaman
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1. Üzerinde anlaşmaya varılmış değerlere bağlı kalınmasını sağlamak için zaman ve enerji harcar.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kendi liderlik felsefesini çok net bir biçimde ortaya koyar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Sorumlu olduğu birim/bölümün en iyi nasıl yönetileceği konusundaki inançlarını başkalarına da anlatır.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Sahip olduğu değerlere uygun davranır.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Yönettiği projeleri kolayca halledilebilir parçalara ayırmaya özen gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Ekibinin kendine açık hedefler saptayıp, planlar yaparak bunların aşamalarını belirlemelerini sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Önemli aşamalara ulaşıldığında bunları kutlamak için zaman ayırır.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kendi ekibinin başarılı olduğu işleri, diğer ekiplere de duyurmayı amaçlar.	1	2	3	4	5
9. İyi bir iş çıkarıldığında elemanlarını takdir eder.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Projelerimizin başarısına katkıda bulunanların takdir edilmelerini sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Kendi ekibindeki kişileri yaptıkları katkılar için destekler ve takdir eder.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Başarıları kutlamanın yollarını bulur.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX F

INSTRUMENTAL LEADERSHIP ITEMS

by

Antonakis & House (2004)

Aşağıdaki maddelerin tanımladığı davranışları **şu anki yöneticinizin** (çalışmalarınızı denetlemekten sorumlu olan ve size birebir yönlendirmelerde bulunan kişi) / **size göre ideal bir yöneticinin** ne sıklıkla gösterdiğini verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği kullanarak belirtiniz. Her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Hiçbir zaman	2 Nadiren	3 Bazen	4 Sıkça	5 Her zaman
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1. Hatalardan nasıl kaçınılabileceğine ilişkin olarak elemanlarına gerekli bilgileri verir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kendi görüşlerinin kesin ve açık bir şekilde anlaşılmasını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Elemanlarının hatalarından ders çıkarmalarına yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu kuruluşun sorun ve sıkıntılarının bilincindedir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Dış çevrenin sunduğu fırsatlardan yararlanır.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Elemanlarının hedeflerine ulaşmaları için izlemeleri gereken yolu onlara açıkça anlatır.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Görüşlerini desteklemek için özel politikalar geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Elemanlarının hedeflerine ulaşmalarını sağlamak için engelleri ortadan kaldırır.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Kuruluşta nelerin değişmesi gerektiğinin farkındadır.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Elemanlarının hatalarını düzeltmelerine yardım eder.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bu kuruluşun güçlü yönlerinin farkındadır.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Bir görevin tamamlanabilmesi için detaylı hedefler koyar.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Elemanlarının hedeflerine ulaşmaları için yeterli kaynağa sahip olmalarını sağlar.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Yaptıkları hatalarla ilgili olarak elemanlarına yapıcı geribildirim verir.	1	2	3	4	5
15. Bir görevi belirli hedeflere dönüştürür.	1	2	3	4	5
16. Elemanlarının hedeflerine ulaşmalarını kolaylaştırır.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX G

MINNESOTA SATISFACTION QUESTIONNAIRE (MSQ)

by

Weiss, Dawis, England, & Lofquist (1967)

BÖLÜM II

Aşağıdaki ifadeler için kendi kendinize "**İşimin bu yönüyle ne kadar tatmin oluyorum?**" sorusunu sorunuz ve verilen 5 basamaklı ölçeği ölçeği kullanarak, her maddenin sonunda uygun gördüğünüz rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Hiç tatmin etmiyor	2 Genelde tatmin etmiyor	3 Ne ediyor ne etmiyor	4 Genelde tatmin ediyor	5 Çok fazla tatmin ediyor	
1. İşimle sürekli meşgul olabilme fırsatı.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşimde kendi kendime çalışma fırsatı.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Zaman zaman farklı şeylerle meşgul olma şansı.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Toplumda, işim sayesinde bir yer edinme olanağı bulma.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Amirlerin çalışanlara karşı gösterdiği davranış biçimi.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Amirimin karar vermede yeterli olması.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Vicdanıma ters düşmeyen şeyleri yapabilme olanağı elde etmem.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Sürekli olan bir işe sahip olma şansı (güvencesi olan bir iş).	1	2	3	4	5
9. Başkaları için bir şeyler yapabilme şansı.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Diğer insanlara ne yapacaklarını söyleme fırsatı.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Yeteneklerimi kullanabilme imkanı bulma.	1	2	3	4	5
12. İş kurallarının uygulamaya konulma tarzı.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Yapılan işe karşılık aldığım ücret.	1	2	3	4	5
14. İşte ilerleme şansı elde etme.	1	2	3	4	5
15. İşimde kendi kararımı verme özgürlüğü.	1	2	3	4	5
16. İşimi yaparken kendi yöntemlerimi deneme imkanı bulabilmek.	1	2	3	4	5
17. Çalışma koşulları.	1	2	3	4	5
18. Çalışma arkadaşlarımla birbirleriyle olan ilişki düzeyi.	1	2	3	4	5
19. Yaptığım iyi işten dolayı aldığım övgü.	1	2	3	4	5
20. İşimden edindiğim başarı duygusu.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX H

ORGANIZATIONAL COMMITMENT QUESTIONNAIRE

by

Meyer, Allen, & Smith (1993)

BÖLÜM III

Aşağıdaki ifadeler, kişilerin çalıştıkları kuruluşlar hakkında çeşitli duygu ve düşüncelerini yansıtmaktadır. Lütfen bu ifadelere **şu anda çalıştığınız kuruluş** açısından ne ölçüde katıldığınızı belirtiniz. Her madde için, verilen ölçeği kullanarak katılım derecenizi belirten rakamı daire içine alınız.

1 Hiç katılmıyorum	2 Katılmıyorum	3 Bir parça katılıyorum	4 Katılıyorum	5 Tamamen katılıyorum
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AFFECTIVE COMMITMENT ITEMS

1. Meslek hayatımın kalan kısmını bu kuruluşta geçirmek beni çok mutlu eder.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Kuruluşuma karşı güçlü bir aitlik hissim yok. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
3. Bu kuruluşun benim için çok kişisel (özel) bir anlamı var.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Bu kuruluşun meselelerini gerçekten de kendi meselelerim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Bu kuruluşta kendimi “duygusal olarak bağlı” hissetmiyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
6. Buradaki işimi kendi özel işim gibi hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Kendimi kuruluşumda “ailenin bir parçası” gibi hissetmiyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bu kuruluşun bir çalışanı olmanın gurur verici olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bu kuruluşun amaçlarını benimsiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

CONTINUANCE COMMITMENT ITEMS

1. Şu anda kuruluşumda kalmak istek meselesi olduğu kadar mecburiyetten.	1	2	3	4	5
2. İstesem de, şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak benim için zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Şu anda kuruluşumdan ayrılmak istediğime karar versem, hayatımın çoğu alt üst olur.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Yeni bir işyerine alışmak benim için zor olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Başka bir işyerinin buradan daha iyi olacağını garanti yok, burayı hiç olmazsa biliyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Bu işyerinden ayrıлып başka bir yerde sıfırdan başlamak istemezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu kuruluştan ayrılmamanın az sayıdaki olumsuz sonuçlarından biri alternatif kısıtlılığı olurdu.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Bu kuruluşu bırakmayı düşünemeyeceğim kadar az seçeneğim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Eğer bu kuruluşta kendimden bu kadar vermiş olmasaydım, başka yerde çalışmayı düşünebilirdim.	1	2	3	4	5
10. Zaman geçtikçe mevcut kuruluşumdan ayrılmamanın gittikçe zorlaştığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5

NORMATIVE COMMITMENT ITEMS

1. Daha iyi bir imkan çıkarsa, mevcut kuruluştan ayrılmamın ayıp olmadığını düşünüyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
2. Bu işyerinden ayrılıp burada kurduğum kişisel ilişkileri bozmam doğru olmaz.	1	2	3	4	5
3. Kuruluştan çok şey borçluyum.	1	2	3	4	5
4. Buradaki insanlara karşı yükümlülük hissettiğim için kuruluştan şu anda ayrılmazdım.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Biraz daha para için mevcut işyerimi değiştirmeyi ciddi olarak düşünmezdim.	1	2	3	4	5
6. Benim için avantajlı olsa da, kuruluştan şu anda ayrılmanın doğru olmadığını hissediyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
7. Bu kuruluşa sadakat göstermenin görevim olduğunu düşünüyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
8. Kuruluşum maddi olarak zor durumda olsa bile, sonuna kadar kalırdım.	1	2	3	4	5
9. Bu kuruluşa gönül borcu hissediyorum. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
10. Mevcut işverenimle kalmak için hiçbir manevi yükümlülük hissetmiyorum.	1	2	3	4	5
11. Bu kuruluş sayesinde ekmek parası kazanıyorum, karşılığında sadakat göstermeliyim.	1	2	3	4	5
12. Mevcut kuruluştan ayrılıp birlikte çalıştığım insanları yarı yolda bırakmak istemem.	1	2	3	4	5
13. Kuruluştan şimdi ayrılısam kendimi suçlu hissederim.	1	2	3	4	5
14. Bu kuruluş benim sadakatimi hakediyor.	1	2	3	4	5

APPENDIX I

PERFORMANCE ITEMS

1	2	3	4	5
Hiçbir zaman	Nadiren	Bazen	Sıkça	Her zaman

CONTEXTUAL PERFORMANCE ITEMS

1. Çalışma saatleri içerisinde zamanını etken bir biçimde kullanamaz ve iş planlarına uymaz. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
2. İşini belirlenen (kalite) standartlar(ın)a uygun olarak yapar.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşini yaparken karşılaştığı problemlerin çözümü için öneriler geliştirir.	1	2	3	4	5
4. İşini etkin bir şekilde yapabilmek için gerekli bilgi ve beceriye sahiptir.	1	2	3	4	5
5. İşiyile ilgili sahip olduğu bilgi ve becerileri etkin bir şekilde kullanır.	1	2	3	4	5

TASK PERFORMANCE ITEMS

1. İşini başarıyla tamamlamak için ekstra istek ve çaba gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
2. Başkalarına yardım eder ve işbirliğine açıktır.	1	2	3	4	5
3. İşinin bir parçası olmayan görevleri gönüllü olarak yerine getirmez. (R)	1	2	3	4	5
4. Organizasyonun hedeflerini benimser, destekler ve savunur.	1	2	3	4	5
5. Organizasyonel kural ve prosedürlere uyar.	1	2	3	4	5

GENERAL PERFORMANCE ITEM

1. Genel olarak yüksek performans gösterir.	1	2	3	4	5
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APPENDIX J

**DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS
(Subordinates)**

Son olarak sizden bazı kişisel bilgiler istenmektedir. Bu bilgiler sadece araştırma amaçlı olarak, yönetici-çalışan eşleştirmesinin yapılması aşamasında kullanılacak ve kurum içinden ya da dışından herhangi bir kişi / kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Katılımınız için tekrar teşekkür ederiz.

Adınız-Soyadınız:

.....

E K

Yaşınız:

Eğitim durumunuz:

Mesleğiniz:

Çalıştığınız kurum:

Çalıştığınız departman/bölüm:

Yöneticinizin adı:

Kaç yıldır bu kuruluştaki çalışıyorsunuz?

Kaç yıldır şimdiki yöneticinizle birlikte çalışıyorsunuz?

Toplamda kaç yıldır çalışma hayatı içindesiniz?

(Daha önce çalıştığınız kuruluşlar dahil olmak üzere)

Çalışmamıza sağladığınız değerli katkılarınız için çok teşekkür ederiz...

APPENDIX K

**DEMOGRAPHIC QUESTIONS
(Managers)**

Son olarak sizden bazı kişisel bilgiler istenmektedir. Bu bilgiler sadece araştırma amaçlı olarak, yönetici-çalışan eşleştirmesinin yapılması aşamasında kullanılacak ve kurum içinden ya da dışından herhangi bir kişi / kişilerle paylaşılmayacaktır. Katılımınız için tekrar teşekkür ederiz.

Adınız-Soyadınız:

E K

Yaşınız:

Eğitim durumunuz:

Mesleğiniz:

Çalıştığınız kuruluş:

Çalıştığınız departman/bölüm:

Hali hazırda size bağlı çalışan sayısı:
(Çalışmalarını denetlemekten sorumlu olduğunuz çalışanlar)

Kaç yıldır bu kuruluşta çalışıyorsunuz?

Toplamda kaç yıldır yöneticilik yapıyorsunuz?
(Şu anda çalışmakta olduğunuz kuruluş dahil olmak üzere)

Çalışmamıza sağladığınız değerli katkılarınız için çok teşekkür ederiz...