



ANKARA

HACI BAYRAM VELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ

LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ

**THE IMPACT OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND
PSYCHOLOGICAL OWNERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION:
A RESEARCH IN TOURISM ENTERPRISES**

Ahmet GÜNGÖR

Supervisor

Prof. Dr. Muharrem TUNA

**MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT
TOURISM MANAGEMENT (ENGLISH) PROGRAM**

NOVEMBER - 2019



**THE IMPACT OF AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP AND PSYCHOLOGICAL
OWNERSHIP ON JOB SATISFACTION: A RESEARCH IN TOURISM
ENTERPRISES**

Ahmet GÜNGÖR

**MASTER OF ARTS DEGREE THESIS
DEPARTMENT OF TOURISM MANAGEMENT
TOURISM MANAGEMENT (ENGLISH) PROGRAM**

**ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY**

NOVEMBER 2019

Ahmet GÜNGÖR tarafından hazırlanan "The Impact of Authentic Leadership and Psychological Ownership On Job Satisfaction: A Research in Tourism Enterprises" adlı tez çalışması aşağıdaki jüri tarafından OY BİRLİĞİ / ~~OY ÇOKLUĞU~~ ile Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi Turizm İşletmeciliği Anabilim Dalında Turizm İşletmeciliği (İngilizce) Bilim Dalında YÜKSEK LİSANS TEZİ olarak kabul edilmiştir.

Danışman: Prof. Dr. Muharrem TUNA

Turizm İşletmeciliği Ana Bilim Dalı, Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi

Bu tezin, kapsam ve kalite olarak Yüksek Lisans Tezi olduğunu onaylıyorum/~~onaylamıyorum~~

Başkan : Doç. Dr. Ece KONAKLIOĞLU

Turizm İşletmeciliği Ana Bilim Dalı, Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi

Bu tezin, kapsam ve kalite olarak Yüksek Lisans Tezi olduğunu onaylıyorum/~~onaylamıyorum~~

Üye : Prof. Dr. İbrahim BİRKAN

Turizm ve Otel İşletmeciliği Ana Bilim Dalı, Atılım Üniversitesi

Bu tezin, kapsam ve kalite olarak Yüksek Lisans Tezi olduğunu onaylıyorum/~~onaylamıyorum~~

Tez Savunma Tarihi: 04/11/2019

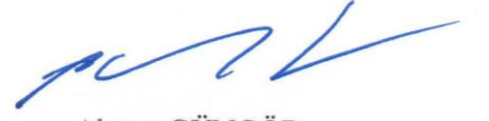
Jüri tarafından kabul edilen bu tezin Yüksek Lisans Tezi olması için gerekli şartları yerine getirdiğini onaylıyorum.

Prof. Dr. Figen ZAİF

Enstitü Müdürü

ETİK BEYAN

Ankara Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi Tez Yazım Kurallarına uygun olarak hazırladığım bu tez çalışmada; tez içinde sunduğum verileri, bilgileri ve dokümanları akademik ve etik kurallar çerçevesinde elde ettiğimi, tüm bilgi, belge, değerlendirme ve sonuçları bilimsel etik ve ahlak kurallarına uygun olarak sunduğumu, tez çalışmada yararlandığım eserlerin tümüne uygun atıfta bulunarak kaynak gösterdiğimi, kullanılan verilerde herhangi bir değişiklik yapmadığımı, bu tezde sunduğum çalışmanın özgün olduğunu, bildirir, aksi bir durumda aleyhime doğabilecek tüm hak kayıplarını kabullendiğimi beyan ederim.



Ahmet GÜNGÖR

04/11/2019

Otantik Liderlik ve Psikolojik Sahiplenmenin İş Tatmini Üzerine Etkileri: Turizm İşletmelerinde
Bir Araştırma

(Yüksek Lisans Tezi)

Ahmet GÜNGÖR

ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ ÜNİVERSİTESİ
LİSANSÜSTÜ EĞİTİM ENSTİTÜSÜ
Kasım 2019

ÖZET

Araştırma otantik liderlik, psikolojik sahiplenme ve iş tatmini kavramları arasındaki ilişkileri takipçiler tarafından algılandığı şekilde açıklamaktadır. Araştırma verileri Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa'nın (2007) otantik liderlik ölçeği ve Avey ve Avolio'nun (2007) psikolojik sahiplenme ölçeği ve Brayfield ve Rothe'nin (1951) iş tatmini ölçeği formları kullanılarak toplanmıştır. İstatistiksel analizler için Adana, Ankara, Antalya, İstanbul, İzmir, Muğla ve Nevşehir'de bulunan Türk otellerinin iş gören, alt / orta / üst düzey yöneticilerinden toplanan 446 örnek kullanılmıştır. Hipotezler, yapısal eşitlik modeli, Pearson korelasyon analizi, regresyon analizi, tek yönlü ANOVA ve t-testi kullanılarak test edilmiştir. Araştırma psikolojik sahiplenme ve otantik liderlik arasında pozitif bir ilişki olduğunu ve şeffaflık faktörünün psikolojik sahiplenme ile daha yüksek bir korelasyon değerine sahip olduğunu doğrulamaktadır. Psikolojik sahiplenme, özellikle aidiyet duyguları güçlendirildiğinde, daha yüksek iş tatmini sağlamaktadır. Bulgular aidiyet faktörünün iş tatmini ile güçlü bir ilişki içerisinde olduğunu ortaya çıkarmıştır. Araştırmada uygulanan yapısal eşitlik modeli, psikolojik sahiplenmenin otantik liderlik ve iş tatmini arasında kısmi aracılık etkisi olduğunu göstermiştir. Bulgular, liderlerin takipçilerin sahiplenme duygusu edinmesine ve iş tatminlerinin sağlanmasına yardımcı olan kilit rolünü doğrulamaktadır.

Bilim Kodu : 116905
Anahtar Kelimeler : Liderlik, Otantik Liderlik, Psikolojik Sahiplenme, İş Tatmini
Sayfa Adedi : 115
Tez Danışmanı : Prof. Dr. Muharrem TUNA

The Impact of Authentic Leadership and Psychological Ownership on Job Satisfaction: A Research
in Tourism Enterprises
(Master of Arts Degree Thesis)

Ahmet GÜNGÖR

ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY
GRADUATE SCHOOL FOR ANKARA HACI BAYRAM VELİ UNIVERSITY
November 2019

ABSTRACT

The study explains relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction constructs as perceived by the followers. Survey data was collected by using Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa's (2007) authentic leadership questionnaire and Avey and Avolio's (2007) psychological ownership questionnaire, and the Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) job satisfaction questionnaire form. 446 samples from employees, lower/middle/higher level managers of Turkish hotels located in Adana, Ankara, Antalya, İstanbul, İzmir, Muğla and Nevşehir used for statistical analysis. Hypotheses were tested by using structural equation model, Pearson correlation analysis, regression analysis, one-way-ANOVA and t-test. The study confirms that psychological ownership is positively connected with authentic leadership, and transparency component has higher relationship values with psychological ownership. Psychological ownership provides higher job satisfaction especially when the belongingness feelings are amplified. Findings revealed that belongingness feeling has a strong correlation with job satisfaction. The structural equation model performed in the research indicated a partial mediating effect of psychological ownership between authentic leadership and job satisfaction. The findings confirm the key role of the leaders in projecting ownership feelings onto followers and assisting their job satisfaction.

Science Code : 116905
Key Words : Leadership, Authentic Leadership, Psychological Ownership, Job Satisfaction
Page Number : 115
Supervisor : Prof. Dr. Muharrem TUNA

TABLE OF CONTENTS

	Page
ÖZET	iv
ABSTRACT.....	v
TABLE OF CONTENTS.....	vi
LIST OF TABLES.....	viii
LIST OF FIGURES	ix
ABBREVIATIONS	x
1. INTRODUCTION	1
2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND.....	5
2.1. Leadership Theories and Authentic Leadership.....	7
2.1.1. Trait Theory	7
2.1.2. Behavioral Theories.....	12
2.1.3. Contingency Theories	18
2.1.4. Neo-Charismatic Leadership Theories	26
2.1.5. Emerging Leadership Theories	34
2.1.6. Authentic Leadership Theory	39
2.2. Psychological Ownership.....	48
2.2.1. Self-Efficacy	52
2.2.2. Accountability.....	53
2.2.3. Self-Identity	53
2.2.4. Belongingness	54
2.2.5. Promotion and Prevention.....	54
2.2.6. Territoriality	55
2.3. Job Satisfaction	56
2.3.1. Hierarchy of Needs	58

	Page
2.3.2. Motivator-Hygiene Theory	59
2.3.3. Job Characteristics Model.....	60
2.3.4. Dispositional Approach	60
3. METHODOLOGY.....	63
3.1. Research Method and Design.....	63
3.2. Research and Hypotheses.....	63
3.3. Instruments	65
3.3.1. Authentic Leadership	65
3.3.2. Psychological Ownership.....	66
3.3.3. Job Satisfaction	67
3.4. Sample Population and Data Collection	67
4. FINDINGS	69
4.1. Reliability Analysis.....	69
4.2. Factor Analysis	69
4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	73
4.4. Descriptive Statistics.....	76
4.5. Results of Hypotheses Test.....	77
4.6. Results of T-test and Anova Tests	85
5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS	91
REFERENCES	95
APPENDIX.....	109
APPENDIX 1. Questionnaire Forms	110
RESUME	115

LIST OF TABLES

Table	Page
Table 2.1. Most Common Leadership Traits	11
Table 2.2. Fiedler's Contingency Model	20
Table 4.1. Reliability Analysis.....	69
Table 4.2. Authentic Leadership Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	71
Table 4.3. Psychological Ownership Exploratory Factor Analysis.	72
Table 4.4. Job Satisfaction Exploratory Factor Analysis.....	73
Table 4.5. Demographic Distribution of the Participants	76
Table 4.6. Pearson Correlations for ALQ, POQ and JSQ	77
Table 4.7. Pearson Correlations for the components of ALQ, POQ and JSQ.....	77
Table 4.8. Linear Regression Analysis of ALQ and JSQ	79
Table 4.9. Male/Female POQ Mean Table	85
Table 4.10. Married/Single POQ Mean Table	86
Table 4.11. Age Group's POQ Mean Table.....	86
Table 4.12. Education Level POQ Mean Table	87
Table 4.13. Work Experience POQ Mean Table	87
Table 4.14. Seniority POQ Mean Table	88
Table 4.15. Age Group's JSQ Mean Table	88
Table 4.16. Seniority JSQ Mean Table.....	89
Table 4.17. Hypotheses Results Table.....	90

LIST OF FIGURES

Figure	Page
Figure 1.1. Research Model.....	3
Figure 2.1. The Managerial Grid	15
Figure 2.2. The Conceptual Framework For Authentic Leader And Follower Development.....	47
Figure 4.1. Authentic Leadership Confirmatory Factor Analysis.....	74
Figure 4.2. Psychological Ownership Confirmatory Factor Analysis	75
Figure 4.3. Established Mediation Model.....	81
Figure 4.4. Model Results for Testing Authentic Leadership and Job Satisfaction	82
Figure 4.5. Model Results of Authentic Leadership, Job Satisfaction and PO.....	83
Figure 4.6. Model Results of Psychological Ownership's Mediator Role in the Relationship Between Authentic Leadership and Job Satisfaction.....	48

ABBREVIATIONS

Abbreviations

AL

ALQ

JS

JSQ

PO

POB

POQ

Descriptions

Authentic Leadership

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire

Job Satisfaction

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire

Psychological Ownership

Positive Organizational Behavior

Psychological Ownership Questionnaire



1. INTRODUCTION

Problem Statement

Leadership is a major element of the management science, which amplifies the effectiveness to achieve objectives. With the industrial revolution, the organizations have become much larger than before suggesting greater complexity. In parallel with this, the educational level and the welfare of the working class have increased. Organizational structures and environmental factors have gradually become more complex, more uncertain, more dynamic and more competitive. Thus, the need for the scientific management and the organizational theories have gained more importance than before (Baransel, 1979: 7). Leadership theories have developed since the industrial revolution explained by different approaches. Authentic leadership is accounted be one of the positive leadership theories appeared within the past two decades (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 96). “Authenticity in leaders is an important leadership multiplier, and is foundational for producing a virtuous cycle of performance and learning for leaders, followers and the organization” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 6).

One can observe from the literature that authentic leadership and positive organizational behavior (POB) shows the same direction. Authentic leadership construct theoretically has significant consequences on job performance and psychological well-being of employees (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004). Psychological ownership contributes to the job satisfaction, and the commitment in the workplace (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). “The feeling of ownership in an organization, drives the employees to act in positive behaviors with the sense of responsibility” (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2009). “Psychological ownership is positively related with employee’s organizational commitment, job satisfaction, self-perceptions of extra-role behavior and self-perceived changes in attitudes and work-related behaviors” (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). “Organizations can use psychological ownership construct as a tool to achieve performance goals and competitive advantage by measuring, investing, developing and managing similar to other psychological resources” (Avey et al., 2009).

“Vandewalle, Van Dyne, and Kostova (1995) have shown that psychological ownership was positively related to extra role/organizational citizenship behaviors. Wagner, Parker, and Christiansen (2003) provided further support showing a positive connection between individuals’ beliefs about their ownership and the financial performance of the organization. Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) also found that psychological ownership for the organization was positively related with employee levels of organizational commitment, job satisfaction,

and organization-based self-esteem, as well as work behavior and performance” (Fred Luthans, Youssef, & Avolio, 2007: 5).

A considerable amount of study points that job satisfaction positively affects job performance (T. A. Judge, Thoresen, Bono, & Patton, 2001: 376), cooperative behavior (Neil, David, & Krista, 2008), altruism, organizational citizenship behavior (Organ & Ryan, 1995), and individual innovative behavior (Niu, 2014). “Empirical studies on authentic leadership have less than eight years, and there is still much to analyze and discover regarding this construct” (Salcedo, 2016). A recent review of Turkish literature pointed out that authentic leadership and psychological ownership constructs were rarely studied within the organizational context. The research on the correlations between authentic leadership and psychological ownership constructs will likely present fortification for forthcoming researches on psychological ownership that might discover critical connections in positive organizational behavior (POB) research. The study will add value to the progress of authentic leadership and psychological ownership literature and further related studies in Turkey.

Purpose of Study

The explanatory quantitative correlational study investigates the relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction as perceived by the followers by using Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa’s (2007) Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) and Avey and Avolio’s (2007) Psychological Ownership Questionnaire (POQ), and the Brayfield and Rothe’s (1951) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire (JSQ) form. The study was built on the constructs of authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction. “Authenticity in leaders is an important leadership multiplier, and is foundational for producing a virtuous cycle of performance and learning for leaders, followers and the organization” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 6). Authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction all can amplify positive organizational behavior and inspire excellent organizational outcomes.

“The authentic leadership construct has four sub-dimensions: self-awareness, balanced processing, internalized moral perspective, relational transparency. Self-awareness refers to deep awareness of their values, emotions, goals, motives, strengths and weaknesses and how they exposure to others. Balanced processing refers to how leaders analyze all relevant data before coming to a decision. Internalized moral perspective refers to how leaders make decisions based on values and high internal ethical standards. Relational transparency refers

to how leaders are open in presenting one’s true self to others” (Hannah, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2011). “Psychological ownership construct consists of self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belongingness and self-identity sub-dimensions” (Avey et al., 2009). Alok (2014) states that there is a “significant evidence when followers perceive their leaders as authentic, they feel as if the organization they work for is theirs” (Alok, 2014). The research works with the samples of employees and lower/middle/upper level managers who happen to work in Turkish hospitality industry. Collected samples were examined with the descriptive and inferential statistical analysis to investigate the relationships. The research has an objective to provide value and further insight in the quest of authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction in Turkey.

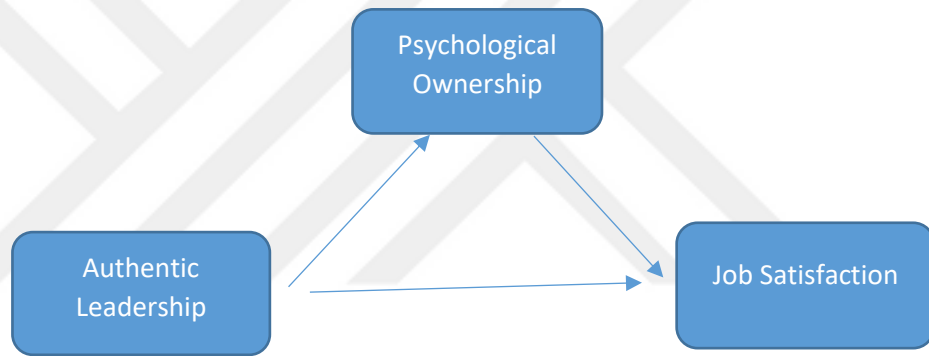


Figure 1.1. Research Model



2. THEORETICAL BACKGROUND

Leadership is one of the intensely investigated few topics in management, business and organization. The leadership literature is huge and expanding quickly (Richard Bolden, 2004; Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 67; Storey, 2004: 2-3). A search done by the author for Leadership on Amazon.com shows a devastating more than 100.000 results, and on google books, it shows 3.910.000 results in 2018. According to Storey (2004) the huge literature on Leadership confirms the cultural meaning of the concept at least in the eyes of writers, archivists and publishers (Storey, 2004: 2). “Leadership is a challenge and an opportunity facing leaders and followers in their professional and personal lives” (George R. Goethals, Sorenson, & Burns, 2004: xxxiii). Leadership is presented as a way out for the majority of the organizational issues at every turn. People say if principals show robust educational leadership, schools will work. Directors and supervisors universally tell that their organizations would flourish only if senior management ensured strategy, vision and real leadership (Palestini, 2008: 1-2).

Mankind have always been eagerly involved in leaders and in leadership (George R. Goethals et al., 2004: xxxiii). Leadership has attracted the attention of the humanity and has become the subject of literature for centuries (Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 2). “Men (and sometimes women) who were masters at hunting and in touch with supernatural world” led the minor hunter and gatherer groups that formed the community “over a period of more than 2 million years”. As human society expanded and accepted a settled life, individuals with superior communication talents were regarded as leaders. Inheritance and an exclusive bond with the gods and the spirits provided the base of leadership in many communities. As larger communities turned into states, the initial works on leadership were composed. Confucius looked for the order of law between the leader and the followers in old China. Plato portrayed an optimal republic ruled by “philosopher kings with wise and righteous leadership”. Plato and his associates also founded “a school of leadership” that was called the Paideia in ancient Greece. “Niccolo Machiavelli unveiled another side of leadership” in the 16th century Italy the one that keeps on attracting attention even five hundred years later (George R. Goethals et al., 2004: xxxiii). “Machiavelli’s The Prince and the biographies of great leaders are early examples” (Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 2).

“The word leader first appeared in the English language in the 1300s; it stems from the root *leden* meaning to travel or show the way. The term leadership followed some five centuries

later.” The research of leaders especially “by historians and psychologists” was replaced by the “systematic study of leadership”. The scientific studies on leadership developed mainly and almost exclusively “in the United States since the beginning of the twentieth century” (George R. Goethals et al., 2004: xxxiii).

Management science has existed for thousands of years as a thought. In comparison with the earlier centuries management science appeared right in 20th century, because giant organizations required order and consistency (Elearn, 2007: 1). The industrial revolution with a development in the machine technology enabled the growth of the organizations in the West (Chen & Lee, 2008: 274; Markham, 2012; Nahavandi, 2009: 66) increasing the concern in leadership and management studies (Elearn, 2007: 2; Porter, Smith, Fagg, & Winfield, 2006). The need for leadership is global, but what the term means is much less clear (Palestini, 2008: 2) “Defining Leadership is as nebulous, amorphous and elusive as defining Quality or Governance” (Balasubramanian, 2007: 8).

Nahavandi (2009) informs that “dictionaries define leading as guiding and directing on a course and as serving as a channel. A leader is someone with commanding authority or influence.” Researchers came out with numerous leadership definitions. These definitions have many similar sides, on the other hand they all refer to another distinct aspect of leadership (Nahavandi, 2009: 3). “Some of them define leadership as a complementary part of the group process. Some define it mainly as an influence process. Some consider leadership as the initiation of structure and a tool of goal achievement. Some regard leaders to be servants of their followers” (Nahavandi, 2009: 4).

Stogdill (1974) indicates that “There are almost as many different definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept” (Stogdill, 1974: 7) whereas he considers leadership “as the process of influencing the activities of an organized group in its efforts toward goal setting and goal achievement” (Stogdill, 1950: 3). “Bass & Stogdill (1990)” later regarded Leadership as “an interaction between two or more members of a group that often involves a structuring or restructuring of the situation and the perceptions and expectations of members” (Bass & Stogdill, 1990: 19). Hollander (1978) plainly states that “leadership is a process of influence between a leader and those who are followers” (E.P. Hollander, 1978: 1). Hersey et al. (1988) suggest that “leadership is the process of influencing the activities of an individual or a group in efforts toward goal achievement in a given situation” (Hersey, Blanchard, & Johnson, 1988: 86). Goodnight (2004) defines

leadership as “an interactive process that provides needed guidance and direction” (Goodnight, 2004: 820).

Palestini argues that researchers of the leadership theory have struggled to identify one best leadership style that would be most effective. “Contemporary approach suggests that there is no one best style”. This approach maintains that “a combination of styles, depending on the situation” where the leader finds him-or herself in, are more appropriate for the leadership (Palestini, 2008: 1, 2). Initial leadership theories centered on the features of successful leaders, their traits, behavior, power, influence and situational approaches have concentrated on the role of followers and the associated character of leadership. “Recently, leadership features have shifted to leadership styles/behaviors” (Cirstea & Constantinescu, 2012).

2.1. Leadership Theories and Authentic Leadership

2.1.1. Trait Theory

The history remembers the “virtue and braveries of great men” such as “prophets and philosophers, commanders and rulers”. “The interest in the rich and powerful continues until today”. One can understand that a substantial concern was showed to leaders in human organization studies (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 67). Great man or trait theories were the first emerging theories (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 96; Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 2). The great man leadership theory was widespread in the 19th century (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 94; Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 2). The theory was once very well-known and highly disputed (Matthew & Sternberg, 2004: 731). Northouse (2015) suggests that “the early trait approach theories were called great man theories because they focused on identifying the innate characteristics and behaviors of successful leaders”. Another reason why “the great leader theory is often referred to as the trait theory is because of the general belief that a hero is great not only because of what he does but because of what he is—because of his traits” (Ciulla et al., 2008: 29).

“Thomas Carlyle's Heroes and Hero Worship (1907)” and “William James's The Essential Writings (1880)” were the well-known works of the era with a focus on innate qualities that shaped human personality and behavior (George R. Goethals & Sorenson, 2006: 55; Marquardt, 2015; Meuser et al., 2016; Nahavandi, 2009: 67). Individuals such as “Martin Luther King, Jr, Abraham Lincoln, Julius Caesar, Mahatma Gandhi”, and many others influenced the progression of this theory. Although the theory can be suitable to women, the

Great man leadership traits primarily were perceived as “male quality, especially in terms of military leadership” (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 94, 95). “It was once believed that leaders were a special kind and quite a few were born to lead, leaders are born rather than made” (Pardey, 2007: 45). A certain class of men was allowed to become leaders (Pardey, 2007: 45) Principally male individuals succeeded and preserved positions of influence. It was assumed that they were born to be leaders and would. “The assumption was that these people were born to be leaders and would outshine by virtue of their character alone” (Richard Bolden, 2004). If the capability to lead was for some reason innate, it could “be inherited, so only the sons of leaders could become leaders”. (Pardey, 2007: 45). The theory sees great leaders differ from followers and the fate is a major determinant and they are “destined by birth to become leaders” (Cawthon, 1996). Furthermore, “the belief was that great leaders would emerge when confronted with the appropriate situation” (Leadership-central.com, 2017). “The theory often reflects great leaders as heroic, mythic, and destined to rise to leadership when needed” (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 94).

In the last half of the century, few thoughts have had more powerful and more popular validity among both the public and researchers than leadership. In both of these spheres, the modern prevalent opinion of leadership is exceptionalism (Gronn, 2004: 351-352). The Great man theories of leadership were dominant in early studies but are now considered as not just out-of-fashion but established on an extremely “limited definition that restricts leadership to a very few, exceptional individuals” (Ford, Harding, & Learmonth, 2008: 100). Trait theories of leadership forms the foundation for the “phenomena of leadership”. “In its earliest form, Trait theory enabled a simple explanation for the complicated set of personal features that together make a leader” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 163). One can find the source of trait theory in the works of the English thinker Thomas Carlyle (1840) and his great man theory. Carlyle had the idea that “some of the people were born to lead” and their “genetic inheritance”, or certain natural traits and persona made them distinct from other individuals. Carlyle, while pointing to a new era of leadership study, adhered to the “European and Victorian ideal of the heroic person” having qualities of persona that others wouldn’t be able to learn or achieve by the means of “experience” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 163).

Leadership trait studies started in the 1920s and researchers came out with trait theories that specify key attributes and features that distinguish leaders from followers (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007). Both management scientists and social psychologists contributed to the trait

theory with the latter having the dominant part in the trait studies. (Rost, 1991: 24). Leadership traits were studied by Bowden (1926), Bernard (1926), Bingham (1927), and Stark (1970) (Adjibolosoo, 2001: 324). William V. Bingham (1927), who abided by the theory, describes a leader as somebody who “possesses the greatest number of desirable traits of personality and character”. Tead (1935) considers Leadership as a composition of traits that allows one to motivate others to achieve a specific task. Trait theory supposes that leader’s distinct characteristics contribute to leadership effectiveness (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22). “Examples of traits associated with leadership include masculinity and dominance, intelligence, persistence, initiative, and sociability” (Mann, 1959; Stogdill, 1948; cited in Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22).

Bass (1990) regarded leadership equated with the ability of personality. The researchers who followed this view consider leaders as people who own a range of diverse personality traits and distinctive persona. Bernard (1926) suggests that this kind of leaders, must prescribe high levels of esteem and be capable of motivating people to “accept, own and work” toward the success of crucial goals (Adjibolosoo, 2001: 324). A trait is a feature that an individual has which inclines to be associated with a specific sort of behavior. The trait theory of leadership assumes that individuals have a series of traits, persona that allows them to effective leaders. Trait theory is about essentially personality traits; different aspects of someone’s personality rather than people’s physical size or racial characteristics. People once believed that certain rank of people innately possess these traits (Pardey, 2007: 45). A great deal of people still believe that “leaders are born” with natural capabilities that make them potentially to be good leaders (Ferraro, 2008). Today, many people have the idea that whether someone has leadership skills or not, he or she can develop the capabilities to become leaders (Pardey, 2007: 45).

Trait theory, likewise great man theory, argues that people inherit or obtain certain qualities, characteristics, and traits that enable them to lead better. It defines certain personality or behavioral features common to leaders and attempt to predict potential individuals who will become successful and effective leaders (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 95; Palestini, 2008: 2). It posits that leaders are distinguished from “non-leaders” in terms of their “drive, desire to lead, honesty and integrity, self-confidence, cognitive ability, and knowledge of the business they are in” (Palestini, 2008: 2). The trait theory fundamentally suggests that leaders are “born with certain traits” or persona that enable them to lead. It is important to point out that the traits do not necessarily need to “come from royalty but can come from non-royal

parents”. We can call “the trait theory as a joint group of theories that attempts to define leadership” by means of a series of matching individual features or traits. The theory tries to detect certain physical, psychological and individual features connected with Leadership success and link those traits to specific success criteria. Trait theory presumes that a restricted number of personal traits of effective leadership can be detected and gauged by analyzing proven leaders. Therefore, “there are probably as many different traits as there are leaders studied”. (Bertocci, 2009: 20).

Trait theory of leadership postulates that successful leadership is interconnected to “personality traits such initiative and creativity, self-confidence, vision, and personal relations talent” (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 111). Researchers attempted form a list of leadership characteristics, the most common features are as follows; “intelligence, self-confidence, decisiveness, courage, empathy, determination, integrity, and sociability”. Goleman, McKee, and Boyatzis (2002) are the recent contributors of the trait theory of leadership with their emotional IQ approach who believe that leadership traits can be mastered through self-assessment and counseling (Morse, Buss, & Kinghorn, 2007: 158).

It is possible that Leadership will only be efficient when the position is occupied by individuals who possess the certain characteristics. Nevertheless, the research suggests “little consistency in the in terms of how much of an impact these traits have on leadership and leadership capability” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 164-165). Bird (1940) collected 79 traits from 20 psychological studies (Bass & Stogdill, 1990: 38). Another study by the Centre for Excellence in Management and Leadership (CEML 2002; Perren and Burgoyne 2001) compiled over 1,000 traits, filtered to 83 different features. On one hand possessing some, many or all of them does not secure successful leadership, on the other hand evidence suggests that efficient leaders are distinguished from others in particular key aspects. The present recapitulation of the trait theory indicates that leaders share specific individual traits that separates them from followers. Based on the studies, these traits are shown in figure 2.1. (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 164-165)

Achievement	Humor	Problem-Solving Skills
Alertness	Initiative	Responsibility
Ambition	Insight	Self-Confidence
Athletic Ability	Intelligence	Sociability
Cognitive Ability	Judgement	Social Judgement Drive
Cooperativeness	Leadership Motivation (<i>the desire to lead but not to seek power as an end in itself</i>)	Solution-Construction Skills
Critical Thinking	Motivation	Status
Emotional Stability	Originality	Tenacity
Energy	Persistence	Tolerance
Honesty and Integrity	Popularity	Verbal Facility

Table 2.1. Most Common Leadership Traits (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 164-165)

Scholars studied physical and psychological traits, or attributes such as “high energy level, appearance, aggressiveness, persuasiveness, and dominance” to define a series of traits that all efficient leaders had. The set of traits was meant to be used as a prior condition for promoting nominees to leadership positions. Leadership positions would be given only to nominees who possessed the identified traits. Many trait researches were carried out from 1930s to 1950s to expose a list of attributes. However, none of the researches identified a universal list of traits that all efficient leaders had, or traits that would secure successful leadership. No list of trait that secures successful leadership was found but traits that are linked to leadership success have been detected (R. N. Lussier & Achua, 2010: 16). The researchers who had confidence in the power of personality and other innate characteristics were influenced to start a “massive hunt for leadership traits with the introduction of personality and individual characteristics testing such as IQ in the early twentieth century” (Nahavandi, 2009: 67). After a couple of years, it was obvious that “no consistent traits could be identified”. Besides “traits were hard to measure among other things” (R. Bolden, Gosling, Marturano, & Dennison, 2003). The approach fell into disfavor in the face of both empirical evidence and strong theoretical claims (George R. Goethals & Sorenson, 2006: 55). Studies of leadership traits were prevalent until 1940s (Bass & Stogdill, 1990: 38; Palestini, 2008: 2).

The opinion that leaders are born with distinct characters is not accepted without a criticism anymore. Additionally, the thought that only one list of traits will secure leadership efficiency has also been rejected evidence. (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 163) The traits do not do much help foresee future leaders or estimate leader behavior. Furthermore, they are of even less helpful in training the future leaders. New, more practically precise theories were needed and researchers shifted on another approach, it was the leader's behavior (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009: 9).

2.1.2. Behavioral Theories

Early leadership studies centered around innate characteristics and behaviors of efficient leaders, but later it was seen evident that "it was impossible to predict a potential for leadership based on personal traits" (Johns & Moser, 1989). The certain qualities of an individual could not alone be a predictor of leadership ability (McCauley-Bush, 2013: 95). "The systematic social scientific study of leadership" started after the early 1930s (House & Aditya, 1997). Researchers focused their attention on what leaders did instead of who they were starting from 1940s (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22). The shift was the result of failure mainly from the trait theory that was unable produce a consistent set of attributes that guarantees a successful leadership. Behavioral approaches takes the actions of the leaders in to account they took concerning their followers (Bogardus, 2009: 38; Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22). The transition, which was named as behavioral approach later, can be best described by leader's behavior model rather than his or her individual traits. It assumes that efficient leaders use a certain behavioral style when they lead followers communities to succeed determined goals, meanwhile providing increased performance and follower satisfaction (Bedeian & Glueck, 1983: 498). The leadership theories began to consider "the role of followers and the context nature of leadership" (R. Bolden et al., 2003; Cirstea & Constantinescu, 2012).

Behavioral theory considers effectiveness of leadership because of leader's actions. The efficiency of certain actions depending on the situation it is applied (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 112). Behavioral theory was shaped through monitoring the actions and attitudes of leaders (Ferraro, 2008: 278). The theory posits that one can learn to be an effective leader by monitoring the behaviors of leaders and copying them. Behaviorist scientists tries to evaluate the behaviors of leaders, by monitoring to establish the way they lead. Thereafter, aspiring leaders can copy or master these attitudes to become efficient leaders (Dionne et al.,

2014; Ferraro, 2008: 7). So everyone could transform him or herself into a leader with the accurate knowledge (Bogardus, 2009: 38).

The University of Michigan and Ohio State University researchers delivered study programs in insurance, manufacturing, and railroad industries those formed the foundation for behavioral leadership theory to develop. These were carried out at similar times and both developed the key parameters that ruled over the leadership understanding, including whether “leaders’ focus was on the task and/or on people” (Chance & Chance, 2002: 93; French, 2011: 452). The University of Michigan researchers intended to specify the leadership pattern that provides efficient output. They came up with two primary forms of leader behavior resulting from “interviews of high- and low-performing groups in diverse organizations”; employee centered and production centered behavior (French, 2011: 452; Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22). Job-centered behavior focuses on subordinates’ behavior, efficiency, and work process. Employee-centered behavior concentrates on forging cohesive work groups and follower satisfaction. In these researches, the two styles of leadership behavior were regarded to be polar opposites. Employee oriented the leaders would be less job-centered leaders (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 22). Contrarily, production-centered leaders are inclined to emphasize efficient performance rather than the welfare of the employees. Employee-centered leaders were happen to enjoy more productive work groups than those of the production-centered leaders (French, 2011: 452).

Ohio State University conducted an important research program in leadership science at about “the same time as the Michigan studies”. A survey was implemented in both industrial and military facilities to evaluate subordinates’ perceptions of their seniors’ leadership behavior. The researchers specified two categories resembling those “found in the Michigan studies: consideration and initiating structure” (French, 2011: 452). Consideration contains leadership attributes such as “trust, respect, and a good relationship with followers”. Initiating structure comprises of leadership behaviors that allow followers to accomplish their objectives and yield superior results (Bertocci, 2009: 55). Extremely considerate leaders are responsive to people’s emotions and are similar the employee-centered leaders found by the Michigan researchers. In contradiction, leaders with a high initiating structure are more interested in job requirements and expressing other aspects of the work process; it can be viewed as identical to production-centered leaders (French, 2011: 452). The theory accepts that leader’s behavior effects a follower’s performance and result. Nevertheless, studies suggest that a follower’s output can also affects a leader’s behavior. For instance, a

follower's high productivity can decrease a "leader's initiating structure behavior" and rise "consideration behavior", and low productivity has the adverse impact. The theory presumes that leaders display the identical behavior among followers. However, findings point out that leader behavior vary among followers. "Many studies have stated there is a low level of agreement between perceptions of a leader's style by leaders and followers" (Bertocci, 2009: 55).

2.1.2.1. The managerial grid model / leadership grid

Innovatory research on leadership behavior were carried out at Ohio State University and the University of Michigan, meanwhile perhaps the most reputable model of leadership behavior was presented to "leadership practice and development by Blake and Mouton (1964)" (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 12). The Managerial Grid is another important behavioral approach which refers to task and follower orientations of leaders, besides the combinations of the two opposite sides (Richard Bolden, 2004). It compares the "level of concern" for people to "level of concern" for performance (Ferraro, 2008: 284). It may deliver a structure which managers need to understand their trouble of supervision which has previously been deficient (Blake & Mouton, 1967).

"The managerial grid displays concern for production on the horizontal axis and concern for people on the vertical axis plotting five primary leadership styles" (Richard Bolden, 2004). It indicates five leader types: "impoverished, country club, authoritarian, middle of the road and team leader":

- Impoverished leaders (1, 1 score) have "little concern for both people and production" thus causing "impoverished" organizations. Such leaders do not show accountability for the work. In this model leadership is nonexistent.
- A country club leader (1, 9 score) is someone who attaches a high importance to people with a low importance to production. The leader brings about a friendly atmosphere where objectives may or may not be achieved.
- An authoritarian leader (9, 1 score) is more interested in production than people who pursues a Theory X attitude to leadership. The approach may suggest an effective operation, but the outcome may still be poor.

- Middle of the road (5, 5 score) leaders have an average concern for both people and production. The understanding will likely accomplish sufficient performance and an acceptable atmosphere will exist.
- Team leaders (9, 9 score) display “high concern for both people and production”. They can form a strong team structure where the high outcomes achieved and mutual respect prevails (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 53).

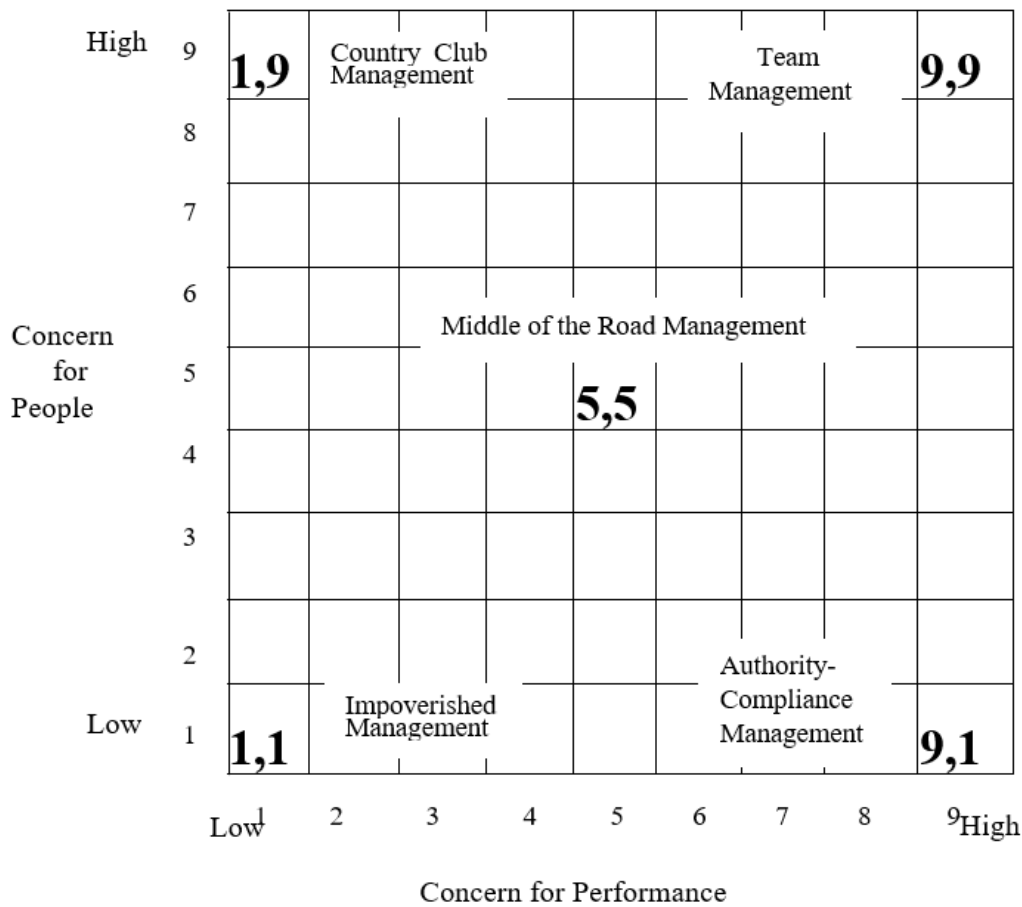


Figure 2.1. The Managerial Grid (Blake & Mouton, 1967)

2.1.2.2. Role theory

Role theory proposes that members of the teams will convey messages to the leader stating their expectations based upon their necessities; within the boundaries of their understanding of leadership. Leaders who are socially conscious of their communities and the requirements of the individuals around them will then comply with the roles (Ferraro, 2008: 278). The role concept of leadership in a hypothetical way covers a great amount of notions from the sociological role theory and implements these notions on leader-follower relationships. The

role notion is viewed as an essential connection between the individuals and the community, and for this reason regarded as a fundamental component of social structures. Role theory of leadership comprehends leadership within a community as a consequence of a development phase by which the community members accomplish community objectives quicker and “whereby they meet” their own personal necessity. Leadership is regarded as being “a part of the problem-solving machinery of groups” (Gibb, 1958: 103; cited in Winkler, 2010: 75). According to Neurberger (2002) the role theory can be subdivided by the next three fundamental methodologies depending on the distinct methodologies (Winkler, 2010: 75):

- The structuralism assumes that the person is constantly affected by behavioral anticipations. The person is commonly regarded as the central point of an ambiguous number of social interactions (e.g., father, superior, and colleague). As a result, the person constitutes the center of behavioral prospects of various role granters, like other persons or organizations. This situation explains specific behavioral necessities, which the person possessing a specific role needs to carry out and adjust one against another. For instance, the leader of a division is thought to be the central point of the members’ anticipation, of those holding different “positions at the same hierarchical level”, and additionally of seniors from greater levels of the hierarchy. The anticipations of these role granters alongside diverse structures and regulation of the workplace describe the behavioral requirements of the division leader (Winkler, 2010: 75).
- The functionalist approach concentrates on the social network the person involved. From this perspective, leadership role is no longer attributed to a single person but to the individuals holding diverse positions in the organization, whether they are leaders or members. For instance, it doesn’t matter who carry out the task of a division – it can be the leader or a member. The important thing is that the mission is achieved. Therefore, the “role is described as a set of functions existing together with other roles, supplementing or replacing them”. Hence, this methodology does not lay stress on the specific effect of “leader or member roles” on accomplishing goals. Although the functionalist approach of role theory accepts the existence of formal roles, it puts great value on the fact that organizational goals are achieved not on the particular contributions of leader or members (Winkler, 2010: 75).
- The third methodology symbolic interactionism that comprehends the conduct of a person as the result of his/her background and alongside with the individual attempts to make use of experienced events and to pursue his or her concern. The roles are born within a

community through reciprocal influence, that is to say, the roles will be built up and by means of dynamic support of the individual (Seers, 1989; cited in Winkler, 2010). Roles, in this way, are neither target nor remotely characterized yet are continuously the aftereffect of the particular conditions under which they appeared. For instance, the role of the leader of a division fundamentally differs from division to division inside an association and between associations. The specific role is the aftereffect of a rising procedure mirroring the specific setting. Surely, certain desires regarding the conduct of a person exist. Such desires develop with specific positions inside particular settings that are credited to people. These situational titles (e.g., instructor, son, big man, or spouse) represent the signs of expected conduct (Stryker & Statham, 1985; cited in Winkler, 2010: 76). Nonetheless, other than such desires what a man is making out of a job linked specifically to the individual himself or herself and is the aftereffect of cooperation with different people. Stated another way, a “role is itself emergent and inherently incomplete, allowing selves not only to perform, but also to improvise and play with the multiplicity of roles that they encounter in their social and intersubjective experiences” (Simpson & Carroll, 2008: 43; cited in Winkler, 2010: 76). In difference to predefined behavioral models, this methodology centers around the development furthermore, dynamic interchange of roles because of communications (Winkler, 2010: 76).

The three methodologies are scarcely at any point found in their pure frame in leadership studies. Despite the fact that the structuralist approach is prevailing, these days it is especially enhanced and halfway supplanted by thoughts of the symbolic interactionist point of view (Winkler, 2010: 76). The behavioral theories have brought two effective notions into the advancement of an extensive leadership theory into the area of “leadership training and development: the focus on tasks and the emphasis on relationships”. In this way, proof has been given that attaching administrative exercises to leader behaviors expanded the capacity to figure out employee satisfaction, engagement and productivity (Wren, 2005; cited in Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 14). With the earlier attention on personal characteristics of leaders by examining leadership styles, the behavioral approach has plainly contributed an essential measurement to the debate and comprehension of the effect of leaders on the Leadership procedure; it also shows first signs of proof on the viability of participative leadership. Nevertheless, many researchers were not successful cover an adequately steady design regarding the connection between people and task-oriented leadership styles or the

relationship between the behavior of the administration and its impact on followers or hierarchical appropriateness. (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 14, 15).

2.1.3. Contingency Theories

Some researchers argued that trait and behavioral theories were unable to explain enough variance in the 1960s and 1970s. Universal leadership traits were insufficient to firmly decide effective leadership on all occasions (Daft, 2007: 64). Therefore, researchers brought in “contingency theories, which explained leader performance and effectiveness depended on the situation and other contingencies” (Cawthon, 1996; Dionne et al., 2014). Since behavioral methodologies are excessively shortsighted, making it impossible to clarify leadership in complex circumstances, these hypotheses offered route to the situational approach that contrasts from past portrayals as it first time incorporates the subordinates. Contingent upon the circumstance, efficient leaders utilize diverse practices relying upon the necessities of the subordinates (Hernon & Rossiter, 2007: 23).

Contingency is the dependency among one another and an effective leader must fit his or her behavior and manner to the circumstances in the situation. An effective leadership style may not work in another situation. “There is no leadership style that works in every situation” (Daft, 2007: 64). “Contingency theory was first developed and defined by psychologist Fred Fiedler in the late 1960s” (Hoffman-Miller, 2013; Palestini, 2008: 6), and is also “known as a leader-match theory” (Hoffman-Miller, 2013). Contingency theory focuses on “the importance of both the leader’s personality and the specific situational variables” in which the leader set to work (Hoffman-Miller, 2013; Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 2). “Leader, follower and task factors affect the appropriate leadership style in a given situation” (Palestini, 2009: 5). It assumes that “leadership style can be adapted to the situation”, and that, therefore, the theory have “a strong potential for developing and improving leadership” (Pinto, Thoms, Trailer, Palmer, & Govekar, 1998: 14).

Johns and Moser (1989) point out that in the light of empirical studies “leadership is a dynamic process that varies from situation to situation with changes in leaders, followers and situations”. According to Hersey and Blanchard (1979) the situational approach focuses on the observed behaviors of leaders, followers and various situations (Johns & Moser, 1989). A leader must adapt his or her “leadership style to meet the demands of the environment”. He or she must have the personal flexibility and variety of skills required to change his or her own behavior. If his or her subordinates possess different the needs and motives then they must be treated differently (Hersey et al., 1988: 169). University

Associates (1986) asserts that situational leadership model became the most widely accepted managerial philosophy of the time (Butler & Reese, 1991). “The classical leadership approaches, such as the trait approach, the behavior or style approach, and the situational leadership approach are criticized for their determined and narrow perspective, which fails to cover leadership reality” (Winkler, 2010: 5).

2.1.3.1. Fiedler's contingency theory

Famous American social psychologist Fred E. Fiedler, introduced a situational theory, widely recognized as the “*Fiedler's Contingency Theory of Leadership*”. In his broadly examined book, “*Theory of Leadership Effectiveness*, 1967, New York,” he describes the way the contingency theory functions. He maintains that “there is no ideal style of leadership suitable to every situation”. “Positive, participative, and democratic” leadership styles are not always viable in all circumstances. Leadership style is effectively defined by the situation. That means “the leadership style depends on the situation”. It should conform with the organizational needs of the “situation”. A leader is expected to examine situational factors and implement the proper style (Rudani, 2013: 555-556).

Fiedler’s model allows leaders to understand the organizational needs and the leadership style requirement. The foundational aspect of the theory is the degree to which the leader is “task or relationship oriented”. Leaders with relationship orientation sets reciprocal trust and respect with the followers and get feedback from them. On the other hand, leaders with task orientation are essentially driven by the task achievement. They establish performance standards and give detailed instructions (Alizor, 2013: 83; Bertocci, 2009: 35; Daft, 2007: 66; Hughes, Ginnett, & Curphy, 2009: 101).

Fiedler (1974) built his contingency model on the notion of a task-oriented leader and a relationship-oriented leader. He had the faith that leader follower relations, task structure and the power position of the leader together would define the appropriateness of a specific situation. After studies and testing he discovered that certain leadership styles worked better in some situations than others, for instance, task-oriented leadership style worked best where the circumstances were considered unsuitable. In a moderately convenient environment, relationship-oriented leadership style got the best results. The most desirable atmosphere is formed when leader follower relation is good, the task is structured and the leader has a robust power position. The model was set on eight probable octants of favorableness. (Bertocci, 2009: 35-36; Norton, 2008: 56).

<i>The Favorableness of the Situation</i>	<i>Leader-Member Relations</i>	<i>Task Structure</i>	<i>Power Position</i>
	Octant		
	1	Good	Structured Strong
	2	Good	Structured Weak
Favorable	3	Good	Unstructured Strong
	4	Good	Unstructured Weak
Moderate	5	Poor	Structured Strong
	6	Poor	Structured Weak
Unfavorable	7	Poor	Unstructured Strong
	8	Poor	Unstructured Weak

Table 2.2. Fiedler’s Contingency Model (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; cited in Norton, 2008: 57)

Fiedler’s model explains the favorable and unfavorable situation based on three main components: the characteristic of “leader- member relations, task structure and position power”. “*Leader-member relations*” refers to organizational environment and followers’ behaviors and recognition of the leader. Leader member relations are counted as “good”, when follower trust, respect and believe the leader. “When there is no trust, respect and confidence”, “leader member relations” are considered poor. “*Task structure*” is the degree of the definition of the tasks fulfilled by the followers, which includes certain procedures, apparent and evident goals. For example, assembly-line work has a high degree structure. Inventive, undetailed tasks like research, development and strategic planning possess a low degree of task structure. Higher the task structure more favorable situation to the leader. “*Position power*” refers to the degree which the leader has formal authority over followers, position power is considered as “high when the leader has the power to reward or punish them”. High position power offers favorable situation to the leader (Daft, 2007: 68).

Fiedler had the idea the leadership style was adopted naturally and could not be changed to fit the situation. Instead the situation could be adjusted to fit the leadership style. (Norton, 2008: 57). Fiedler’s model has been widely implemented in multicultural organizations. A further study conducted by Bennett (1977) over bank managers of Philippines and Hong Kong, presents proof that culture acts as a moderator in the contingency model (Punnett & Shenkar, 2004: 289).

2.1.3.2. Hersey-blanchard situational leadership theory

Dr. Paul Hersey and Ken Blanchard (1977) introduced their own situational leadership theory. They suggest that effective leaders should fit their style to the “maturity level of their followers” instead of holding on one particular style. (Bagad, 2008: 154; Herson & Rossiter, 2007: 23; Mittal, 2015: 80). The theory puts forward task and relationship behavior dimensions and a four-quadrants in parallel to the “structure” and concepts of the previous Ohio State studies (Silverthorne, 2005: 61). Hersey and Blanchard added the maturity or readiness of the followers as third dimension to the contingency theories. They emphasized on two types of maturity; job maturity and psychological maturity. Job maturity is about subordinates’ experience and education. A teacher with extensive experience and skills has a strong job maturity. Psychologically mature teachers are always industrious and they are aware that their students have confidence in them. Such subordinates fundamentally have a higher achievement motivation and are more inclined to assume responsibility (Fiore, 2004: 29). Task Behavior refers to the leader’s one-way communication with subordinates. Each subordinate is given specific instructions. As it is one-way communication, the subordinates cannot transmit their feedback to the management. Relationship Behavior means two-way communication. The leader collects feedback and provides support and guidance (Fiore, 2004: 29). Followers are led depending on their task maturity or task readiness in a particular situation. Maturity or readiness is about willingness or confidence of followers to carry out necessary tasks. The model includes four the probable leadership styles composition resulting from task-oriented and relationship-oriented attitudes:

- “*Delegating*”—letting the followers assume responsibility for task choices; “low-task, low-relationship style”.
- “*Participating*”—emphasizing the agreed thoughts and joint decisions on task instructions; “a low-task, high-relationship style”.
- “*Selling*”—clarifying task instructions in a helpful and convincing way; a high-task, high-relationship style”.
- “*Telling*”—providing detailed “task” instructions with a tight inspection; “a high task, low-relationship style” (Schermerhorn, 2010: 321).

Hersey and Blanchard maintain that leaders should prioritize readiness of the followers to find out the best performing leadership style among directing, coaching, supporting or delegating. Additionally, leaders should understand that subordinates' maturity is task specific. That means a subordinate might be mature in one specific situation where as immature in another (Fiore, 2004: 29). The theory attracted attention in the United States and elsewhere in the world and it was largely recognized in management schools (Silverthorne, 2005: 61).

2.1.3.3. Path-goal theory

Robert House came up with the path-goal theory to elaborate business leadership (Levine & Hogg, 2009: 635). He intended to estimate followers' motivation, satisfaction and productivity (Punnett & Shenkar, 2004: 290). The theory is constructed mainly on goal setting and expectancy theories. Goal setting theory assumes that establishing accessible goals and awarding the achievements are powerful tools to motivate followers. Expectancy theory suggests that people will put their best effort into their work to reach their goals, when they are convinced the goal achievement will earn them what they value such as payment increase and promotion, they will show behaviors leading to goal succession. Otherwise, they will not feel the drive to perform better (Hughes et al., 2009: 111; Levine & Hogg, 2009: 635; Rudani, 2013: 558). The path-goal theory is most effective initiative among the contingency theories. It was established on the works of Basil S. Georgopoulos (1957), Martin Evans and Robert House conducted researches independently from each other and reached the Path-goal Theory in 1971 (Rudani, 2013: 558)

The leader helps followers find their path and clears off the roadblocks to attain their work goals. It is leader's responsibility to supply their followers with knowledge, assistance and other required tools for the positive outcomes. The leader underlines the positive results of the probable job accomplishment to the followers and feeds their belief that positive job attitudes may bring them the goal accession (Levine & Hogg, 2009: 635; Rudani, 2013: 558). The theory proposes that, interconnected with the followers and the situation, certain leadership behaviors make the followers accept the leader, boost their satisfaction level and raise their trust that "their hard work will result in the valued rewards" (Hughes et al., 2009: 112)

2.1.3.4. Vroom-yetton-jago decision-making model of leadership

The Vroom-Yetton-Jago model is one of the contingency theories that concentrate on decision making (Jex & Britt, 2014: 388; Vroom, 2004: 323). The model offers the leaders a range of guidelines in order to select best decision-making style. The leaders who fit their decision making style to the situation will be more efficient (Jex & Britt, 2014: 388). The leaders share their decisions to some degree with the followers through face to face talks (J.B. Miner, 2011: 83; Vroom, 2004: 322).

The model suggests miscellaneous leadership styles to that can be utilized in decision-making. In the first decision-making style AI, the leader solves an issue or decides single handedly with the situational information. In the other decision-making style, AII the leader acquires feedback from the followers before reaching an individual conclusion. In CI style, the leader shares the issue with the related followers in a one to one meeting and makes an individual decision. In CI decision-making style, the leader shares the issue with the followers in group meetings and makes an individual decision. Finally, in GII style the leader holds group meetings with the followers to make a decision on a consensus. “A stands for autocratic, C stands for consultative, and G stands for group.” (Jex & Britt, 2014: 388; Vroom, 2004: 322).

As indicated by the model, so as to figure out most proper style, leaders must study the problem for the availability or non-availability of the accompanying eight characteristics: (1) the requirement for a fine decision; (2) whether the leader has adequate data to settle on the choice alone; (3) how much the issue is organized; (4) whether subordinates’ acknowledgment is required for endorsement; (5) whether subordinates will acknowledge the leader’s choice; (6) how much subordinates share the association’s objectives; (7) whether there will probably be disagreements among subordinates with regards to the most favored choice; and (8) whether subordinates have enough pertinent data to settle on a choice all alone. With respect to the model, these eight situational characteristics will decide an attainability set of decision-making strategies. The attainability set is just the reflection of those decision-making strategies that might be fit for a specific situation. The situational questions are asked in a consecutive design similar to a flowchart. In particular, the leader’s reaction to each question shortens the attainability set until finally one style is prescribed. For a leader to utilize this hypothesis, the person in question would essentially address every one of the inquiries concerning the choice to be made, and, at last, a favored technique for decision making would develop (Jex & Britt, 2014: 389).

From a business perspective, the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model is one of the more valuable leadership theories that has been created. In comparison with the related theories, the model guides the leaders with certain principles for decision making, as opposed to just depicting leadership procedures. The most serious issue with the Vroom-Yetton-Jago model is that it has an oversimplistic approach to the decision-making process. For instance, it is usually troublesome for a leader to give yes or no responses to the inquiries. Further corrections of this model will be expected to beat these shortcomings (Jex & Britt, 2014: 389).

2.1.3.5. Cognitive resource theory

Fred Fiedler and Joe Garcia (1987) presented cognitive resource theory (CRT) as one of the leadership theories. They introduced a revised perspective to the trait theory by including the addition of leader's cognitive resources to organizational groups and task accomplishment in a challenging situation (Ayman & Hartman, 2004: 1430; Murphy, 2013: 120; Russell, 2012: 107). Fiedler's examination found that intelligence did not reliably anticipate success of a leader. Some of the time, intelligence was irrelevant, adversely identified with success. In particular, while leaders were under high-pressure circumstances, intelligence did not help efficiency; on the other hand, in a low-pressure state, a leader's intelligence grade helped success. Fiedler and his associates analyzed the impacts of various kinds of high-pressure work situations such as professions of military, firefighters and sports crews. High level of pressure would create anxiety and distract the leader from the current situation. When the pressure level was low and the leader acted in a directive way, the intelligence would help the group success (Ayman & Hartman, 2004: 1431; Murphy, 2013: 120; Stangor, 2004). Directiveness is the leader's ability to communicate "wishes, expectations, and commands to his followers" which unless the leader cannot form his or her plans, though he or she has high levels of intelligence (Russell, 2012: 106) When the pressure was high, the leader's directive manner would not work. On the other hand, Fiedler and his associates found that experience made a significant contribution in performance in high-pressure conditions. Experience is frequently characterized as the time served in a specific organization, position, or field. In states of high pressure, they discovered that leaders with more experience were more efficient than the leaders with less experience. Contrarily in low-pressure situations more experienced leaders were not more successful than less experienced ones, they were sometimes even less efficient (Ayman & Hartman, 2004: 1431; Murphy, 2013: 120; Russell, 2012: 106).

A leader's experience may improve his or her capacity to adapt to stressful circumstances in various ways. To start with, Fiedler and Garcia proposed that expanded experience might amplify efficiency as it exemplifies the predominant reaction as per Robert Zajonc's social facilitation theory. As stress rises, the capability to focus on the issue diminishes and basic or very much learned reactions will in general come to the light. In this way, experience on a work brings the superior results, when the individual carries out the work under high pressure. Second, experience may influence the evaluation of a stressful occasion. No doubt, leaders with a large number of experiences have encountered a wide range of high-pressure circumstances that another stressful issue may appear as a lesser degree danger in comparison with the past comparable circumstances. Third, experience may work to improve a leader's confidence in his or her capability to adapt to a stressful circumstance. Finally, a leader may see that a specific circumstance can possibly be stressful, however the leader's faith in his or her capability to overcome any troubles in the circumstance will guide to better outputs (Murphy, 2013: 120).

2.1.3.6. Strategic contingencies theory

Hickson, Hinings, Lee, Schneck, and Pennings (1971) introduced the theory in their "strategic contingencies theory of intra-organizational power" study. The theory concentrated on the importance of the organizational units in relation to each other. In other words, the strength of unit X over unit Y is controlled by X's capability to provide on Y. Strategic contingencies can incorporate factors such as absence of sources and data, or whatever other condition that makes it troublesome for Y fulfill its task confidently. Hickson et al. (1971) indicated that if unit X had irreplaceable sources the other units' dependency on X's capabilities expands and the scope of X's strength increases. This irreplaceability connects the theory to the monopoly concept in monetary theories. The strategic contingencies theory suggests that the units that gained sources needed by other units will also gain strength over them. If subunit X can obtain sources that are crucial for the viability of other subunits, X protects them from uncertainty, "makes them dependent, and gains power over them". When the other subunits also possess sources that are vital for X, the dependence is mutual, and there is a "balance of the power relationship" between X and the other units. (Tsoukas & Knudsen, 2005: 350).

Contingency or situational leadership has enjoyed significant consideration in studies of human resources, team building, participative management and human relationships (Norton, 2008: 57). "Situational leadership is usually appealing to students and practitioners

because of its commonsense approach as well as the ease of understanding” (Hughes et al., 2009: 107). Traits, behaviors and situational contingencies affect a leader’s success. “Therefore, the answer to the question, is there a universal leadership characteristic? must be, based on situational and contingency approaches, it depends. Contingency factors can manifest in various ways through particular traits, skills, or behaviors, depending on the person, the method of assessment, and the leadership situation. Therefore, if we want to really understand the leadership phenomenon, contingencies must not be ignored” (Ayman & Hartman, 2004: 1434).

2.1.4. Neo-Charismatic Leadership Theories

“The neocharismatic leadership approach basically deals with the process of change and consequently the transformation of followers. This process contains charismatic and visionary aspects which are especially understood as located in the characteristics and subsequent patterns of behavior of the leading person. Leadership must be visionary; it must transform those who see the vision, and give them a new and stronger sense of purpose and meaning” (Van Seters & Field 1990; cited in Winkler, 2010: 31). “Resulting from that idea the main research focus of scholars adopting the perspective of this theoretical approach is on how to distinguish charismatic from ordinary leaders and on how charismatic or transformational leaders affect followers” (Winkler, 2010: 31).

2.1.4.1. Transactional leadership theory

Ever changing business environment forced the organizations to adapt and their way of dealing with the change developed over time as a result broadly recognized transactional leadership and transformational leadership theories appeared (Bertocci, 2009: 48). The transactional leadership theory developed through research on the military and business organizations from around 1945 to 1975 (East, 2018: 3). Hollander (1978) first used the term of transactional leadership (Hoover, Petrosko, & Schulz, 1991: 4). James McGregor Burns (1978) was the one who explained that the transactional and transformational leaders were two separate leadership styles (Humphrey, 2013: 377). “Bernard Bass, in 1985, developed the transformational/transactional model of leadership based on the work of James McGregor Burns. Bass's model included two predominant modes of leadership, transactional and transformational leadership, along with a third less common mode of leadership called laissez-faire leadership” (Flynn, 2013).

Transactional leaders are those who identify the components of associates' satisfaction resting on their activities, and then "encourage subordinates to achieve the organizational goals by offering rewards or sanctions" (Bass and Avolio, 1997, cited in Quintana, Park, Cabrera, & 2013). Miner (2005) explains that the "transactional leaders can be found at the lower levels of hierarchic organizations and the key factors they use are contingent reward and management by exception". Pay for performance is applied in the approach. "Management-by-exception is described as involving a situation where the leader intervenes only when something goes wrong" (John B. Miner, 2005: 365).

Transactional leaders are fundamentally task oriented and they lead with certain methods to achieve objectives. They try to obtain followers' respect through reward and punishment. They have little interference with the followers. They interfere when the organization fails (Martin, Breunig, Wagstaff, & Goldenberg, 2018: 90). Transactional leadership is essentially a method for administering or coordinating as opposed to a regular leadership style with the focal point being short-run obligations. Nevertheless, it keeps on being a standard style in different associations and families (Spears, 2012: 17). Transactional leaders, seek after a "cost benefit exchange approach" with the followers. Such leaders set objectives and give rewards and feedback to subordinates as a way of support in accomplishing predefined goals. This methodology does not bring change or challenge, but implements positional power to inspire followers to meet the organizational goals (Kuhnert & Lewis, 1987; Ragins & Kram, 2007: 152).

"Transactional leadership occurs when the leader rewards or disciplines a follower depending on the adequacy of the follower's performance" (B.J. Avolio & Bass, 2001: 3). The transactional leader enables the followers to find out what is needed to achieve the target goals. The leader accounts the individual's self-concept and esteem needs, while helping followers figure out required actions. The transactional methodology practically barrows from the path-goal theory. The leader depends on contingent reward and on management by exception to endorse the transactional style. Research demonstrates that when contingent reinforcement is utilized, followers display better work outcomes and fulfillment; they have the confidence that achieving the job targets will result in receiving expected prizes. When the leader acts on management by exception notion, he or she will not interfere followers as long as the organizational goals are accomplished (Bertocci, 2009: 49; Jain, 2005: 344). Transactional leaders identify the necessary behaviors followers must display to accomplish objectives. Transactional leaders explain these actions and task requirements to the followers

to boost their confidence, and then can confidently put their best effort. Transactional leaders also identify followers' necessities and desires needs and wants and explain the way to satisfy them by reaching performance goals (Bass, 1985).

Transactional leadership theories are established on exchange; "leadership is a process whereby the designated leader uses motivations, rewards, and punishments to get an individual or group of individuals to achieve planned outcomes" (East, 2018: 3). Transactional leaders are portrayed by contingent reward and management-by-exception styles of leadership. Basically, they establish exchanges or agreements with the followers indicating what the followers will encounter as the outcome of proper or improper behavior. They act and decide in accordance with the organizational culture and standards (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transactional leaders rely on contingent rewards either positive or negative. It has been proved quite efficient to inspire the followers to higher levels of work outcomes (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 4). Contingent reward concept suggests that leaders inspire subordinates with prospects, honoring, and prizes or penalize them with negative input, criticism, intimidation and disciplinary measures. As contingent reward notion requires, the leader decides the task assignment or negotiates a due task with followers resulting in "implicit or explicit rewards and the desired allocation of resources" (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 8; Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). As the leader uses "active management by-exception", they keep a track of their followers' efficiency and fix them where they fail. As they implement "engage in passive management-by-exception" they remain idle and do not fix the failures until the followers bring them the issue. Laissez-faire leaders abstain from leading (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). Active management by exception concept implies that the leader identifies the job requirements to meet by the followers describing the inefficiency and the penalty for failure to meet requirements. The leadership style hints tight inspection for "deviances, mistakes, and errors" and immediate action to fix as soon as possible. Passive management by exception implies that the leader does not move to solution before failures arises or remains completely idle which makes him or her passive-avoidant or laissez-faire leader. Passive-avoidant leaders refrain from detailing contracts, explaining prospects and defining objectives and norms to be accomplished by the subordinates. (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 4; Bass, Avolio, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Timothy A, Ronald F, & Remus, 2004).

The transactional leaders set open communications channels and explains to followers what is necessary to attain the work objectives and the rewards they receive for accomplishments. Discipline is not often referred, but they are also well known and a disciplinary system is

always present. Transactional leadership begins with an agreement either composed or verbal, whereby followers are paid a wage and other profits and (indicating the follower's manager) the organization possess power over the followers. When the leader assigns tasks to followers, they are regarded completely liable for it, whether or not they have the necessary sources or abilities to fulfill the task. When the followers display poor performance, they are viewed as faulty and therefore they are punished for their incompetency (just as they would be rewarded for accomplishment). (Bertocci, 2009: 58).

“The success of this type of leader–follower relationship depends on the acceptance of hierarchical differences and the ability to work through this mode of exchange. Transactional leadership is based on the assumption that subordinates and systems work better under a clear chain of command” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 166). “The limits of transactional leadership hinge on the behaviorist assumption that a ‘rational person’ is largely motivated by money and simple rewards, and hence his behavior is predictable. In practice this assumption often ignores complex emotional factors and social values present in work environments and interpersonal relationships” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008: 70). “Despite numerous leadership studies highlighting the limitations of this approach, transactional leadership remains popular among leaders and managers. Along the spectrum leadership versus management, this approach is clearly closer to the management end” (Mackenzie, Podsakoff, & Rich, 2001).

2.1.4.1.1. Leader-member exchange (lmx)

Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) is another transactional leadership theory, which can be counted under human services work category. The theory emerged in 1970s (Graen & Cashman, 1975; cited in East, 2018: 19). Previous transactional theory mainly covered the leaders' behaviors; on the other hand, LMX theory has more consideration over the process of exchange between leaders and followers. LMX theory considers the closeness between leaders and followers as the central point in grasping leader's influence on the members of the organization. LMX theory assumes that leaders act more sincerely, more involved and more articulate with a small group of the members as a result of leader's limited time and the positional closeness of the members. Such members form the in-groups who get more attention from the leader. Other members form the out-groups; they spend less time with the leader and receive fewer rewards. Their relationship with the leader is reduced to the context of job description. The concept points out that the leader identifies in-groups and outgroup in the earlier phase of the leader member relations and that relationship is

moderately steady after some time. Leaders create LMX by rewarding the in-group members with those they seek closer relationship and punishing outgroup members with those they do not seek closer contacts (Bauer & Erdogan, 2015: 3; East, 2018: 20; Robbins, 2009: 301).

2.1.4.2. Transformational leadership theory

Transformational leadership theory was introduced by James MacGregor Burns (1978) and Bernard Bass (1985). It emphasizes the extensive approaches those lead to organizational success (Lynch, 2012: 2). Transformational leadership states that the leader assists the followers to accomplish “higher levels of performance for the benefit of the organization” (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Flynn, 2013). Bass (1985) explains that a “transformational leader motivates followers to do more” (a) “by raising followers’ level of awareness and consciousness about the importance and value of designated outcomes, and ways of reaching them”, (b) by getting them to overrun their own self-interests for the sake of the team and the organization, (c) by moving their “need level on Maslow’s hierarchy or expanding their portfolio of needs and wants” (John B. Miner, 2005: 363). The transformational approach is regarded as a natural evolution of the trait approach because the transformational leadership theory combines components of the early trait theory approach with the more contemporary situational or contingency models. (Meuser et al., 2016; Palestini, 2008: 20). As its name suggests, transformational leadership is a procedure that modifies and transforms individuals. It is related with feelings, values, morals, benchmarks, and long-haul objectives. It incorporates evaluating followers' inspirations, fulfilling their necessities, and regarding them as full individuals. Transformational leadership includes an uncommon type of impact that inspires followers to achieve more than what is generally regarded standard for them. It is a procedure that frequently includes charisma and visionary leadership (P.G. Northouse, 2012: 186).

Burns distinguished between “*transactional and transformational leadership theories*”. Transactional leadership is a leadership model, which has more consideration over the “exchanges that take place between leaders and their followers”. Politicians who got elected with a slogan of no new taxes are displaying transactional leadership. Likewise, administrators who promise promotions to subordinates who achieve their objectives are showing transactional leadership. In school, lecturers are acting transactional when they award students with grades for a successful exam result. The exchange measurement of transactional leadership is widespread and can be tracked at many stages in every kind of organizations (P.G. Northouse, 2012: 186).

Transformational leadership and transactional leadership are often the opposite sides of the continuum. Transactional leadership is the more conventional norm of leading by using social exchange between leader and the member. Transactional leaders propose satisfaction of certain member needs in exchange of the follower's devotion, commitment, and adequate performance. In many situations, transformational leadership outperforms transactional leadership because it is constructed on the concept that leaders and members get together by some higher-level joint objective or task (Riggio, Orr, & Shakely, 2004: 50). Transformational leadership is an evolved version of transactional leadership. Transactional leadership underlines the transaction or exchange that occurs among leaders and followers. This exchange is established on the agreement that the leader negotiates the work requirements with followers and elaborates the situation and rewards the followers will be given if they meet the requirements (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3)

A transformational leader possesses the capacity to induce followers to manage better performance that surpass anticipations. This capacity comprises of primarily “charisma, individual attention, and intellectual stimulation” attributes. Charisma refers to the “leader’s capability to communicate a vision” and condition people with a feeling of importance, self-esteem and pride. Individual attention is the leader’s capability to respond to followers’ necessities and help them improve individually and professionally. Intellectual stimulation means the leader supports followers to assess an issue logically and act creatively (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 4; Bertocci, 2009: 49). James MacGregor Burns (1978) suggests that “transformational leadership happens when leaders and followers act to raise one another to higher levels of motivation and morality.” (Rost, 1991: 164). Transformational leadership begins with establishment of a vision of tomorrow that will evoke the prospective followers. The rest of the process is almost entirely about persuading the people of probable success of the vision. This will require effort and engagement because few people will adopt the vision right away and a number of them will take longer to participate than the rest. Therefore the leader seizes any possibility and uses anything practical to persuade others unite with him/her in the mission to take care of business (Bertocci, 2009: 59).

Bernard Bass (1985) mentions three functions that epitomizes transformational leadership. First, “Transformational leaders increase subordinates’ awareness of the importance of their tasks and the importance of performing well”. Second, “Transformational leaders make subordinates aware of their needs for personal growth, development, and accomplishment”. Finally third, “Transformational leaders motivate their subordinates to work for the good of

the organization rather than exclusively for their own personal gain or benefit”. Transformational leadership is repeatedly mistaken for charismatic leadership, because, transformational leaders often have charisma apart from being able to express a vision and being responsive to the followers’ requirements. Charisma is frequently a decisive attribute among transformational leaders alongside logical perspective on the issues, consideration and rewards. “Thus, in contrast to charismatic leadership, transformational leadership theory attempts to provide a rational, if not empirical, approach to leadership theory by observing how leaders actually motivate and reward followers to achieve a vision and by measuring leadership in real terms” (Bertocci, 2009: 51).

Transformational leaders have been portrayed by four different segments or qualities signified as the “4 Is of transformational leadership” (Avolio et al., 1991; cited in Bass & Avolio, 1993). These four components incorporate “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, “intellectual stimulation”, and “individualized consideration”. Transformational leaders incorporate innovative understanding, constancy and strength, instinct and sensitiveness to the necessities of others to "forge the strategy culture alloy" for their organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

“In a highly innovative and satisfying organizational culture we are likely to see transformational leaders who build on assumptions such as: people are trustworthy and purposeful; everyone has a unique contribution to make; and complex problems are handled at the lowest level possible. Leaders who build such cultures and articulate them to followers typically exhibit a sense of vision and purpose. They align others around the vision and empower others to take greater responsibility for achieving the vision. Such leaders facilitate and teach followers. They foster a culture of creative change and growth rather than one which maintains the status quo. They take personal responsibility for the development of their followers. Their followers operate under the assumption that all organizational members should be developed to their full potential” (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Transformational leaders and their followers accomplish better work than plain exchanges. They reflect attitudes to carry out better outcomes by implementing at least one of the four I’s (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3). Transformational leaders have been portrayed by four distinct segments or qualities signified as the “4 Is of transformational leadership” (Avolio et al., 1991; cited in Bass & Avolio, 1993). These four components incorporate “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, “intellectual stimulation”, and “individualized consideration”. Transformational leaders incorporate innovative understanding, consistency

and strength, instinct and sensitiveness to the necessities of others to "forge the strategy culture alloy" for their organizations (Bass & Avolio, 1993). "Factor analytic studies from Bass (1985) to Howell and Avolio (1993), and Bycio, Hackett, and Allen (1995) to Avolio, Bass, and Jung (1997) have identified the components of transformational leadership" (Bass & Riggio, 2006: 5-6).

2.1.4.2.1. Idealized influence

Transformational leaders maintain attitudes that enable them function as role models for their followers. Besides appreciating, regarding, and trusting the leader, the followers also relate themselves with the leader and desire to model themselves on him or her. The followers endow the leader with unprecedented capacities, consistency and willpower. Therefore, two elements of idealized influence emerge; the leader's attitudes and the virtues linked to the leader by the followers. The leader attaches more importance to followers' necessities than their own to earn this respect. The leaders who possess considerable idealized influence are prepared to "share risks with followers" and are rational instead of discretionary. They are trusted that they are accurate on their actions displaying "high standards of ethical and moral behavior". (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6).

2.1.4.2.2. Inspirational motivation

Transformational leaders show attitudes that encourage their followers by offering value and setting high performance goals. Solidarity is established. Energy and positive thinking are shown. The leaders include the followers in anticipating appealing future conditions; "they create clearly communicated expectations that followers want to meet and also demonstrate commitment to goals and the shared vision" (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6).

2.1.4.2.3. Intellectual stimulation

Transformational leaders encourage their followers' endeavors to be innovative and creative by questioning beliefs, reframing issues, and reexamining old cases in new perspectives. Creativity is supported. People do not get criticized for their failure in public. Followers who involves in the process are asked for fresh ideas and "innovative solutions are solicited from followers, who are included in the process of examining problems and figuring out solutions". followers are invited to develop new perspectives, and their thoughts are not reprimanded in light of the "fact that they vary from the leader's thoughts" (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6; Lynch, 2012: 3).

2.1.4.2.4. Individualized consideration

Transformational leaders individually address every “follower’s requirements for accomplishment and development” by displaying a mentor behavior. Followers one by one surpass their potential. Individualized consideration is rehearsed when new learning possibilities are offered alongside an encouraging atmosphere. Individual distinctions as far as necessities and wants are identified. The leader’s conduct exhibits “acknowledgment of individual distinctions” (e.g., some subordinates get more “support”, more “independence”, others more rigid “benchmarks”, and more “task structure”). Communication with followers are personalized “(e.g., the leader recalls past discussions, knows about individual issues, and sees the individual as a whole person as opposed to as only an employee)”. “The individually considerate leader listens effectively. The leader delegates tasks as a means of developing followers. Delegated tasks are monitored to see if the followers need additional direction or support and to assess progress; ideally, followers do not feel they are being checked on” (Bass & Avolio, 1994: 3; Bass & Riggio, 2006: 6).

Van Wart (2008) explains that transactional leaders largely depend on authority, reward and punishment understanding, whereas transformational leaders depend on personal skills and charisma. Transactional leadership approach assumes that organizational environment is steady. The difficulties the organization faces are limited to minor corrections and improvements in a viable system. On the other, transformational leadership concept suggests that change is unavoidable, continuous, and healthy that the organizations need wide range of efforts to conform new methods, technologies and systems (Van Wart, 2008: 80-81). “While transactional leadership represents the social exchange nature of leader–follower relations, transformational leadership provides a deeper level of connection with followers through the leader’s ability to be a role model for the followers, inspire them through a vision, intellectually challenge them and demonstrate a genuine concern for the individual follower’s wellbeing” (Marturano & Gosling, 2008; 94).

2.1.5. Emerging Leadership Theories

New leadership theories started to change its course from great man leadership theories to shared and social leadership theories, and rising through channels of communication and relations in the organizations. The compositions of organizations are changing in terms of connection, communication channels, and relations. As a result of the changes, contemporary concepts are starting to rise and the leadership studies concentrate on social

systems with modified roles and relations rather than individual leaders depending on positional power (Schyns & Meindl, 2005: 103-104).

2.1.5.1. Servant leadership

“The servant-leadership concept was introduced by Robert Greenleaf (1977)”. According to him “servant leaders” differ from other leaders by their true concern in serving followers, while the other leaders focused on organizational outcomes. Servant leaders who are assigned to the position usually enjoy an extensive support from followers because of mutual trust and leaders’ commitment. Servant leaders tend to improve the capacities of followers, on the other hand they do not seek respect and engagement through manipulation. Empowerment and persuasion are the characteristics of their behavior. On the personal level, they are portrayed as honest, authentic, brave, empathetic, humble and forgiving. “Both these attitudinal and interpersonal aspects create a safe and nourishing environment that helps people fulfill their need for autonomy, environmental mastery, relatedness, vitality, and self-actualization, that builds on their strengths, and, therefore, that provides personal growth and well-being by integrity, authenticity, courage, objectivity, empathy, humility, and forgiveness” (Wisse & Tjosvold, 2009: 320-333)

Servant leadership promotes expanded service to followers, fostering solidarity within followers, and participation in decision-making (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010: 13).

It is considered as helpful in subordinates’ commitment and empowerment (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010: 151). Servant leaders are driven by their organizations and subordinates’ necessities. Current studies indicate that servant leadership supports organizational objectives concerning development, following ideals, and team efficiency (van Dierendonck, 2011; cited in Nielsen, Marrone, & Ferraro, 2013).

2.1.5.2. Adaptive leadership

In a changing business environment, the use adaptive leadership is necessary. Uhl-Bien and Marion (2009) posit that “adaptive leadership helps produce a rich flow of information (in the forms of ideas, innovations, changes, technologies, etc.) to enhance dynamic complexity processes”. Adaptive leaders always promote innovation in whole organization, and try to reveal the creative side of followers. They are experts at scanning and understanding the business environment and drawing meaningful inferences (Humphrey, 2013: 421). Heifetz et al. (2009) coined the construct and described it as "the practice of mobilizing people to tackle tough challenges and thrive". Meanwhile, Schore (1994), proposed that every system

develops producing more “complexity”, “stability”, and “adaptability”. As the system evolves the related parts must comply with the context and adapt themselves everchanging environment (Grossman & Valiga, 2016: 5). Adaptive leaders show integrity and act conscientiously. They are capable to sell their visions. They learn from the past experiences, on the other hand they always keep scanning the environment to predict the future changes (Galuska, 2014; cited in Grossman & Valiga, 2016: 6).

2.1.5.3. Distributed leadership

Gronn (2000; 2008) suggests that distributed leadership concept was initiated by Gibb in 1954. It can mean distribution of “leadership task performance” or distribution of “influence”. Formal leadership authorities and obligations are scattered among the organizational community (Harris, 2009: 223). “Spillane and Sherer (2004)” informs that “scholars and practitioners often use shared leadership, democratic leadership and distributed leadership interchangeably, suggesting that, at least for some, distributed leadership may be no more than a new label for a familiar phenomenon” (Spillane & Sherer, 2004: 3; cited in Brooks & Kensler, 2011: 56). Distributed leadership concept acknowledges that in particular circumstances, one might be a leader, and in another circumstance, he or she might take over a follower’s position. “Leadership, then, is a fluid phenomenon that happens between leaders and followers; it is not a quality vested in an organizational position. The theory does not prescribe any specific skills, traits, characteristics, dispositions, attitudes, organizational positions, roles, or behaviors as leadership practice” (Brooks & Kensler, 2011: 56)

2.1.5.4. Entrepreneurial leadership

Renko et al. (2015) states that entrepreneurial leadership is a unique leadership type that could be available at any workplace of any length, and sort. Entrepreneurial leadership happens at the crossroads of entrepreneurship and leadership. Renko et al. (2015) propose that “entrepreneurial leadership entails influencing and directing the performance of group members toward the achievement of organizational goals that involve recognizing and exploiting entrepreneurial opportunities”. Studies revealed the characteristics of entrepreneurial leadership such as “vision, opportunity-focus, influence (on both followers and on a larger constituency), planning, motivating others, achievement orientation, creativity (of the leader as well as followers), flexibility, patience, persistence, risk-taking, high tolerance for ambiguity, tenacity, self-confidence, power orientation, proactiveness, and internal locus of control”. Entrepreneurial leaders set an example and clearly support

their subordinates to entrepreneurial objectives. Entrepreneurial leaders display behaviors and effect their followers to encourage “opportunity recognition and exploitation”. As a role model displaying entrepreneurial behaviors, they inspire followers to adopt their attitude and defy the status quo. “The entrepreneurial leader’s passion, creativity, and vision motivate others to experiment and learn for themselves. Such leadership is an integrated characteristic of organizations that seize and profit from new opportunities as they arise” (Renko, El Tarabishy, Carsrud, & Brännback, 2015).

Mastrangelo (2015) asserts that entrepreneurial leadership means more than establishing an organization, on the contrary the majority of people believe. It is a process of creating a new business. The process includes identifying an opportunity to follow and composing a workforce to accomplish it. As the driving force in creating new businesses entrepreneurial leaders are crucial to all kind of organizations at all phases of growth. (Mastrangelo, 2015: xiii).

2.1.5.5. Inclusive leadership

Hollander (2009) argues that inclusive leadership means achieving common interests by the means of interactions. Organizational success does not solely depend on leader’s capacity, on the contrary it includes followers’ participation in the decision-making process. Four Rs “respect”, “recognition”, “responsiveness”, and “responsibility” are the pillars of leader-follower relationship. It fosters the objectivity of input and output to all followers, on the other hand it encourages “competition” and “cooperation” within the organization (Edwin Paul Hollander, 2009: 3).

Inclusive leadership is about handling the diversified opinions and reaching the efficient ideal results. Inclusive leaders do not only receive different opinions, but always look for different opinions to ensure followers’ perspective considered. “Inclusive leaders ask people what they think, stop to listen to the answers and actively engage through positive participative implementation”. Accurate decision-making and obtaining the ideal outcomes achieving desired ends are the aspects of inclusive leadership depending not only leader’s abilities but also on the followers’ participation. (Morgan, 2017: 13-13).

2.1.5.6. Strategic leadership

Strategic leadership employs the “strategy process” as a regular way of “decision making” that combines “reciprocal leadership” with its theories and implementations. Leaders employ strategy not only a management medium, but also a way of interactive leadership that

explains objectives and preferences, activates drives and resources, and determines the course of the organization (Morrill, 2010: xi). Boal explains that strategic leadership refers to “a series of decisions and activities, both process-oriented and substantive in nature, through which, over time, the past, the present, and the future of the organization coalesce”. Strategic leadership considers the “past” and the “present” to shape the future of the organization with its core values and character in an uncertain environment. “Strategic leadership develops, focuses, and enables an organization’s structural, human, and social capital and capabilities to meet real-time opportunities and threats. Finally, strategic leadership makes sense of and gives meaning to environmental turbulence and ambiguity, and provides a vision and road map that allow an organization to evolve and innovate” (Boal, 2004: 1503). Strategic leaders possess charismatic and architectural roles; with their charismatic role they create vision and direction, empower and energize employees; and with their architectural roles they form the organizational structure and operate control and reward systems. A strategic leader should make sure goals and strategies specified and backed by the subordinates. As the organizational goals are more rational and accessible, they are more likely enjoy the support of the subordinates (Thompson & Martin, 2005: 444-446).

2.1.5.7. Team leadership

Guttman (2008) suggests that team leadership mainly focuses on “motivating a group of people” to act together to accomplish a shared goals, while reducing disagreements or obstacles in the process (Gutman, 2008; cited in Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009: 244). A team refers a group of individuals who works through common goals in harmony depending on each other. Team members contribute to create a constructive culture based on trust. Such environment enables members to internalize the culture and the objectives and creates synergy among members. Team participation requires leader’s and member’s physical, mental and emotional dedication. It also needs expanded individual feeling of responsibility through involvement (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009: 115). “The leadership style in a group tends to be very hierarchical, while in a team it is more likely to be participative or empowerment-oriented. In a team, performance measures create direct accountability for the team and incentives are team-based; in contrast, a group is characterized by individual self-interest, with a mentality of what’s in it for me.” (Fairholm & Fairholm, 2009: 281). “Team leadership encompasses how a person sees himself or herself as a leader of others, from forming a team that possesses balanced capabilities to setting its mission, values and norms, as well as to holding the team members accountable individually and as a group for results,

socialization, and professional development. Team leadership includes cross-cultural sensitivity and an ability to interact productively with different personality types; taking a personal interest in coaching and mentoring high-potential leaders; and the leader's responsibility to understand his or her impact on others and to improve his or her capabilities, as well as the capabilities of others" (Heron & Rossiter, 2007: 245).

2.1.6. Authentic leadership theory

In 21st century, new leadership approaches emerged such as authentic leadership, spiritual leadership and servant leadership. Among them authentic leadership approach enjoys strong interest (Peter Guy Northouse, 2015: 3). From a macrolevel point of view, a rise in exceedingly "publicized corporate scandals", administration abuses, and wider "societal challenges" confronting "public and private organizations" drew attention to authenticity and authentic leadership (Fred O. Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing, & Peterson, 2008). Authentic leadership is categorized under the "ethical/moral leadership theories" (Dinh et al., 2014). "Authenticity in leaders is an important leadership multiplier, and is foundational for producing a virtuous cycle of performance and learning for leaders, followers and the organization" (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 6). "Authentic leadership is a pattern of leader behavior that includes self-awareness, balanced processing of information, relational transparency with followers, and an internalized moral perspective. Authentic leader-follower relationships arise when both leaders and their followers remain true to their inner thoughts, beliefs, and experiences" (Gardner & Carlson, 2015: 245). Authentic leadership and psychological ownership have similar stage of evolution in some degree though this is not only the similarity. "The idea of human self and identity is principal to both of these constructs" (Alok, 2014).

Northouse (2012) points out that that authentic leadership is a complicated process and hard to define although it looks easy to describe. Northouse maintains that there is a number of approaches to describe authentic leadership those include intrapersonal, developmental, and interpersonal approaches. "Shamir and Elam (2005) focused on the intrapersonal experiences of authentic leaders". According to the "intrapersonal perspective", authentic leadership emphasizes on the leader and his or her inner values. It combines the "leader's self-knowledge, self-regulation, and self-concept". "The developmental perspective was exemplified in the work of Avolio and his associates (2005)". From the point of view of developmental definition, authentic leadership is regarded as skills those can be taught, rather than as unchanging traits. Authentic leaders are built over a lifetime and can be

initiated by “major life occasions”, such as a serious disease or a new career. Eagly (2005) suggests that “authentic leadership is an interpersonal process”. The approach argues that authentic leadership is relational, formed by leaders and followers together (P.G. Northouse, 2012: 206-208).

“S. Harter (2002) defined the authenticity as owning one’s personal experiences, be they thoughts, emotions, needs, preferences, or beliefs, processes captured by the injunction to know oneself and behaving in accordance with the true self as conceptualized within the field of positive psychology” (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). “Shamir and Elam’s (2005)” definition of authentic leadership indicates that “authentic leaders can be distinguished from less authentic or inauthentic leaders by four self-related characteristics: 1) The degree of person role merger i.e. the salience of the leadership role in their self-concept, 2) The level of self-concept clarity and the extent to which this clarity centers around strongly held values and convictions, 3) The extent to which their goals are self-concordant, and 4) The degree to which their behavior is consistent with their self-concept” (Shamir & Eilam, 2005). Luthans and Avolio describe that authentic leadership “as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organizational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviors on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development” (F. Luthans & Avolio, 2003: 243). Sparrowe explains that modern leadership theory and studies define authenticity considering self-awareness of leader’s principal values and goals, and connects the inspirational influence of the leader to the consistency of values and behaviors and the harmony between the values of leader and followers (Sparrowe, 2005). “Walumbwa et al. (2008) define authentic leadership as a pattern of leader behavior that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development” (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Authentic leaders stand for not only inspiration rather they empower the followers to take responsibility and lead. Authentic leaders are “genuine people who are true to themselves and to what they believe in”. They create trust and establish true bonds with followers. Because of the trust in their leadership, they can to encourage followers to a higher level of productivity. They do not let the expectations of followers guide them; they act on their own. Instead of their own achievement and recognition they are more interested in serving

others as they evolve as authentic leaders. Thus George et al. (2010) proposes a new definition “The authentic leader brings people together around a shared purpose and empowers them to step up and lead authentically in order to create value for all stakeholders” (B. George, Sims, & Gergen, 2010: xxxi). Gardner et al. (2005) argue that authenticity should not be regarded as sincerity. It is larger than a sensation, and related to fundamentally with “one’s true self”. It is the leader’s self-adequacy, and he or she does not need someone else to reflect it. Sincerity requires interaction with others to reflect it. The leaders who accomplished authenticity is the same person whether he or she is alone or with followers. (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 6). Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) point out that authentically transformational leaders reflect main transformational leadership aspects of “idealized influence”, “inspirational motivation”, “intellectual stimulation”, and “individualized consideration”. Authentic transformational leaders act as “moral agents”. They amplify the space of flexibility, the borders of conscience and the extension for selfless purpose. Their movements target the noble outcomes, rightful means, and fair conclusions. They improve their followers morally and empower them to realize their visions (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999). “Authentic leadership means to know oneself, to be consistent with one self, and to have a positive and strength-based orientation toward one’s development and the development of others. Such leaders are transparent with their values and beliefs. They are honest with themselves and with others. They exhibit a higher level of moral reasoning capacity, allowing them to judge between gray and shades of gray. We refer to authentic leadership as the root construct that is necessary, but not sufficient to be transformational” (B.J. Avolio, 2005: 197).

Authentic leaders display the attributes of self-awareness and self-acceptance, and adopt authentic behaviors and relationship to obtain authenticity. Nevertheless, the concept of authentic leadership means more than the authenticity of leaders as individuals to cover authentic relations with subordinates. Authentic relationships are described as: a) “transparency, openness, and trust,” b) “guidance toward worthy objectives”, and c) “an emphasis on follower development” (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, May, & Walumbwa, 2005). Neider & Schriesheim informs that Walumbwa et al. (2008) developed the theory and the scale of authentic leadership. With the support of “social psychology”, “moral and ethical philosophy” studies they came up with the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ) comprising of four components and provided initial results for future researchers (Neider & Schriesheim, 2011).

2.1.6.1. Authenticity

The notion of authenticity dates back to at least the old Greece with their immortal advice “be true to oneself” (S. Harter, 2002; cited in Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). In spite of the fact that the concept of authenticity roots to the ancient Greece, the contemporary idea of authenticity developed within eight decades (Erickson, 1995a; cited in Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). Harter (2002) explains that “positive psychologists understand the authenticity as both owning one’s personal practices (thoughts, emotions, or beliefs, the real me inside) and behaving in accordance with the true self (behaving and expressing what one really thinks and believes)” (S. Harter, 2002; cited in F. Luthans & Avolio, 2003: 242).

Kernis (2003) suggests that one can describe authenticity as “the unobstructed operation of one's true, or core, self in one's daily enterprise”. He introduced four components of authenticity those were “awareness”, “unbiased processing”, “action”, and “relational” (Kernis, 2003). The awareness component postulates that one has consciousness of, and faith in his or her “motives”, “feelings”, “desires”, and “self-relevant cognitions”. One knows his or her “strengths” and “weaknesses”, “trait characteristics”, and “emotions”. Unbiased processing includes fairness and recognition of favorable and unfavorable elements, characteristics and qualities. It does not mean withholding, falsifying, overrating, or disregarding exclusive information, inner practice, and outer survey information. Action component refers to the reflection of one’s true self in his or her behaviors. Kernis has the opinion that authentic behavior is the exhibition of manners those are consistent with “one’s values, preferences, and needs” in contrast to showing behavior only to obtain rewards or satisfy others or refrain from penalties. The relational component means appreciating and accomplishing straightness and correctness in interactions. Relational component includes the advocating the significance of showing real personality in one’s relations with followers (Kernis, 2003).

Ilies et al. (2005) views the authenticity as a “broad psychological construct reflecting one’s general tendencies to view oneself within one’s social environment and to conduct one’s life according to one’s deeply held values”. In greater detail, authenticity shows itself in perceivable dimensions of one’s actions and presence, for example, when one leads people. When leaders show their true self in their behaviors as their routine, they accomplish self-actualization and contribute to the followers’ “eudaemonic well-being”. Ilies et al. (2005) suggested four-factor authentic leadership model which comprises self-awareness, “unbiased processing”, “authentic behavior/acting” and “authentic relational orientation”.

Self-awareness and unbiased processing are expected to result in increased self-acceptance and environmental mastery assisting to describe one's life goal. "Authentic relational orientation" forms fine connections. Self-awareness and unbiased processing lead to improved "personal growth through self-development". "Authentic behaviors and actions are by definition self-determined" (Remus Ilies, Morgeson, & Nahrgang, 2005; Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008).

Gardner et al. (2005) tried to combine different opinions and descriptions of authentic leadership and suggested an authentic leadership and followership development model. Their model concentrated on the self-awareness and self-regulation components. They specified some distinctive qualities linked to "authentic self-regulation processes", consisting of "internalized regulation", "balanced processing of information", "relational transparency", and "authentic behavior" (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008).

2.1.6.2. Self-awareness

As self-awareness being the related concept, a construct that seems within close conceptualizations about authentic leadership assumption up to expectation authenticity or authentic leadership needs increased ranges of self-awareness. Though an individual might also not stay absolutely conscious of entire the factors concerning his or her identity, self-awareness refers to the degree to which "which people are aware of a number of factors of their identities and the amount to which their self-awareness are internally built-in yet suitable along the way others perceive them". Thus, the identity is an account over what the feeling of self is; in as much as self-awareness includes an evaluative component, referring to attribute yet precision (i.e., settlement with others) of self-awareness. Self-awareness is a measurement over the person's potential to be mindful regarding the elements of the self without a doubt yet to watch it fully and fairly (Klenke, 2007).

Awareness as much an aspect about authenticity means one's consciousness of, yet have confidence "in one's very own personal characteristics, values, motives, feelings, and cognitions". Self-awareness consists of advantage on one's inherent reverse self-aspects and the function concerning the "contradictions" into affecting one's ideas, emotions, actions and conducts (Remus Ilies et al., 2005). Self-awareness could be seen as the exhibiting a comprehension of how an individual extract and gives "meaning of the world" and how the process of making that meaning influences the way in which one considers herself or himself over time. Moreover, Kernis (2003), stated that "Self-awareness refers to showing an understanding of one's strengths and weaknesses and the multifaceted nature of the self,

which includes gaining insight into the self through exposure to others, and being cognizant of a one's impact on other people" (Kernis, 2003; cited in Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008)

Self-awareness consists of both central and peripheral referents. Central referent deals with the "leaders' self-understanding" of their "psychological states", which include their "beliefs, desires and feelings", while peripheral referent means the leaders' "reflected self-picture" (how others distinguish the leader). Leaders with excessive self-awareness conduct are noticeable to apply both self-understanding and mirrored "self-image" to boost their efficiency as a leader (Fred O Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010). A primary element that contributes to the improvement of authentic leadership is the self-awareness or individual understanding of the leader. Gardner et al. (2005) consider self-awareness partially as being connected to "self-reflection"; by demonstrating self-observation, authentic leaders obtain openness and harmony regarding their "core values, identity, feelings, motives and desires" (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005).

As initially described, the self-awareness concept includes a cognitive condition where one dedicates a mindful interest on some components concerning the self (Duval & Wicklund, 1972); it does not provide information concerning the degree of correctness or incorrectness of the self-understanding. As back right here then by Gardner et al. (2005), however, self-awareness emerges through self-reflection in regard to "one's values, beliefs, characteristics, and drives". Gardner et al. (2005) are confident that self-reflection may assist authentic leaders to be aware of themselves or acquire openness and harmony concerning their "core values, identity, beliefs, feelings", drives, and objectives. In addition, they suggest that unique factors concerning the "leader's self-system" will remain active at any given period by the means of "priming cues" supplied by means of the "context", the followers, and self-observation (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 13).

2.1.6.3. Balanced processing

Balanced processing is the objective gathering and rendition of self-relevant knowledge, whether it is characteristically effective or poor. That means, the leader never twist, overplay, or skip external assessments regarding the self or inner experiences and individual information may notify self-development (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). Balanced processing is the procedure of fair evaluation of all proper information and seeking followers' feedback before landing on a conclusion (Luthans & Avolio 2003; cited in Giallonardo, Wong, & Iwasiw, 2010). Unbiased processing means the lack of "distortion"

in the “self-related information” procedure. Because this is the core of the integrity, it must be an essential selection standard (Remus Ilies et al., 2005).

2.1.6.4. Relational transparency

Relational transparency means submitting one’s “authentic self” (contrary to false or distorted self) to others (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). Such actions foster trust via declarations that include publicly information exchange and statement of one’s genuine opinions and emotions while attempting to limit demonstration of improper thoughts (Kernis, 2003; cited in Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). Relational transparency refers to the “openness, self-disclosure and trust” the leader shows in intimate relations (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). Bruce et al. (2005) view relational transparency as a more descriptive construct than the relational authenticity expression, as it better displays clear and fair whereby authentic leaders and followers are supposed to exchange info among themselves (Bruce J. Avolio & Gardner, 2005). Followers opt for transparency in their interactions with the leader, because it arouses the emotions of longevity and predictability. Transparency happens to be more often in leaders who make their values, beliefs, purposes known to the followers and stand by them (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 27)

2.1.6.5. Authentic behavior

Behavior component refers to the actions whether individuals take in line with their true self. Kernis (2003) believes that “behaving authentically means acting in accord with one’s values, preferences, and needs as opposed to acting merely to please others or to attain rewards or avoid punishments through acting falsely.” (Kernis, 2003). Authentic behavior is the behavior emerging from “leader’s true self” as demonstrated by core “values”, “beliefs”, ideas, and emotions regardless of external dependencies and pressures (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). “They display authentic behavior that reflects consistency between their values, beliefs, and actions” (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). Leaders who take action depending on their internalized values have more probability of experiencing flow in the workplace, enjoying internal motivation and individual impression when leading (Remus Ilies et al., 2005).

“Authentic behavior is positively related to self-esteem. Individuals with true self-esteem reflect secure, well-anchored feelings of self-worth that do not need continual validation” (Kernis, 2003). Hannah et al. (2005) suggest that leader’s value inclusive commitment might correlate with the leader’s inner merits virtues since they view self-coherent actions as an

ethical matter and obligation (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 17). Inauthentic behavior will decrease “self-verifying feedback” and generate “cognitive imbalance”, which will lead to self-ambiguity and poor welfare (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 33). Gardner et al. (2005) suggest that authentic leaders, as an outcome of their dedication to self, will be inclined to continue behavioral manners linked to their object attitudes, and will have a great tendency to remain genuine to those attitudes, keeping their actions constant, presumable, and compatible with their inner values. Such predictability catches out stronger “follower attributions” and “trust” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 24).

2.1.6.6. Antecedents of authentic leadership

Gardner et al. (2005) consider “authentic followership as a vital aspect and result of authentic leadership progress. According to them “authentic followership development is largely modeled by the authentic leader to produce heightened levels of followers’ self-awareness and self-regulation leading to positive follower development and outcomes” (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005). They consider the leader’s individual past and main trigger events as preliminary stages of authentic leadership progress. Leader’s individual past might cover family effects, archetypes, life experiences, academic and business background. Trigger events essentially create powerful and occasionally subtle changes in one’s conditions that help individual growth and development. In a workplace, trigger events can also occur as a result of interior or exterior factors that push leader’s capacity requesting for creative and nontraditional answers. Their model argues that trigger events work as activator for “higher levels of leader’s self-awareness” and might be regarded as favorably or disagreeably (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005).

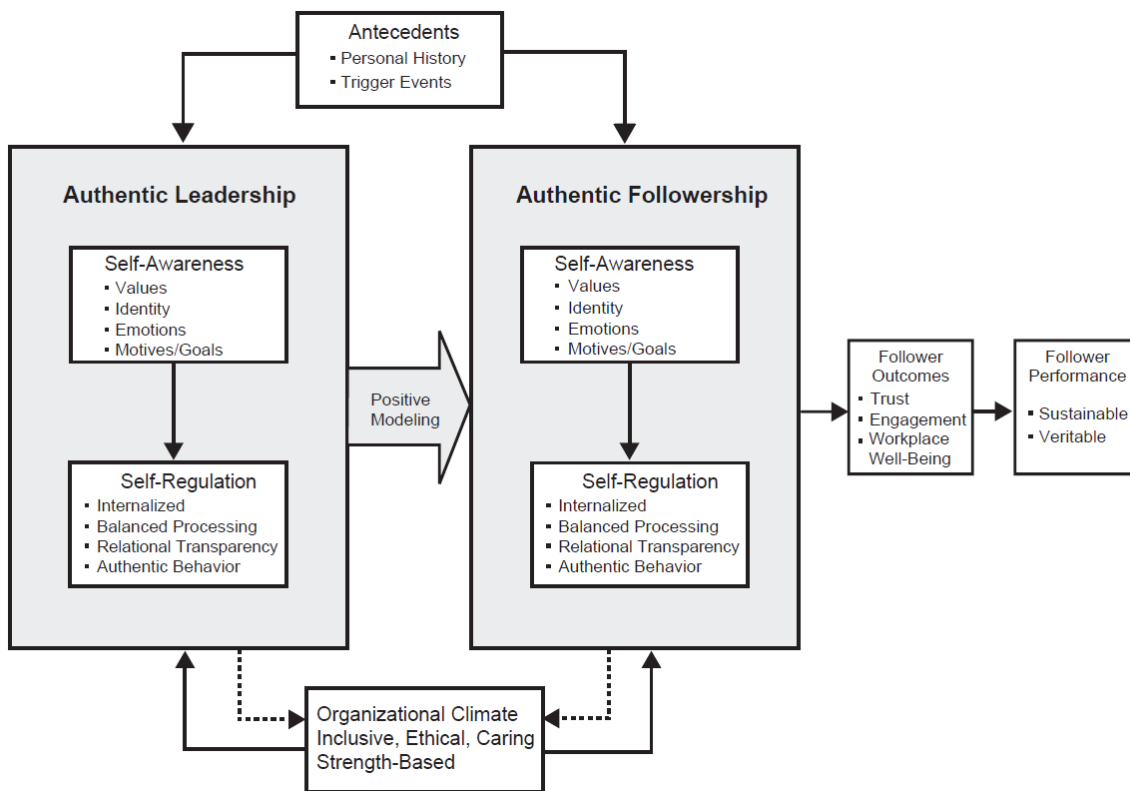


Figure 2.2. The Conceptual Framework for Authentic Leader and Follower Development (Gardner, Avolio, Luthans, et al., 2005).

2.1.6.7. Consequences of authentic leadership

Allen (2004) argues that the construct and the related characteristics of authenticity are usable in the implementation of leadership for multifold causes. Regardless of their profession, when positional leaders are perceived with a sweeping pessimism, public gravitate toward authentic leaders. When subordinates meet “inauthentic” leadership attitude in their workplace, they will become defensive and alert in their exchanges, have a tendency toward self-concern, and give out false answers when their view is inquired. When such attitudes are prevalent, the organization eventually collapses. If they accept it is risky to talk about the reality in the workplace, they will usually react defensive and stay uncommunicative. If they voice their opinions their directors might ignore them because the knowledge, they convey might express the incapability or contradiction of a greater program of their directors. Suppressing the annoying ideas would be minimized if a “culture of authenticity” ruled. An enterprise that merits authenticity in its leaders and the workforce would support a climate of free exchange of ideas, “because maintaining appearances and egos would not be as important as being true to one’s values, beliefs, and perceptions” (Allen, 2004: 67)

“Luthans and Avolio (2003) introduced an authentic leadership development model”. Their model underlines the value of leaders who possess charismatic and transformational attributes (delivering “intellectual stimulation” and “individual consideration” to the followers and encouraging their growth professionally) besides being “confident, hopeful, optimistic, and resilient”. “Because such leaders demonstrate behaviors that reflect confidence, hope, optimism, resiliency, transparency, and ethics, they are capable of developing their followers to become as positive as they are. This process results in the “cascading” or contagion effect of positivity and authenticity from leaders to their followers, even to the lowest levels in an organization” (Luthans & Avolio, 2003; cited in Youssef & Luthans, 2005: 283-284).

When leaders personally exercise *integrity* between their behaviors and values, their followers view them as authentic. When the followers consider leaders’ call to engage with them and the workplace to be authentic, it allows them to be authentic too. This enhances the interactions among followers and increases the standard of their connections with each other (Allen, 2004: 65). Gardner et al. (2005) posits that “leaders who are authentic to themselves are able to achieve this leadership multiplier effect because they display behaviors that engender trust and allow followers to easily and confidently infer authenticity from their actions”. Authentic leadership provides genuine, maintainable follower achievement (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 25).

Depending on the studies and reasoning, Gardner et al. (2005) declare that authenticity is a leadership multiplier. followers react more positively to interferences by authentic leaders because they have higher probability to identify themselves with, and “trust leaders who are true to themselves”. followers also can more accurately to foretell the leader’s style and adapt themselves to the relationship for common interest (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 27). Authenticity in leadership generates more coherent and presumable leader attitude, and therefore promotes heightened “integrity, trust, and positive affective reactions among followers” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005: 28).

2.2. Psychological Ownership

In the new age, organizations would like to achieve better work outcomes, avoid “counter-productive behavior” and high labor turnover, and keep talented staff. “The fight for talent has become a very important factor in the current organizational context” (Somaya and Williamson, 2008; cited in Simo, Enache, Sallan, & Fernandez, 2010). “Attracting, retaining and assuring the satisfaction of key employees constitutes one of the fundamental factors in

obtaining sustainable competitive advantages. Therefore, promoting organizational commitment of talented workers ensures a higher level of intellectual capital in organizations” (Ulrich, 1998; cited in Simo et al., 2010). So the organizations felt compelled to establish contemporary research-based knowledge and practical implementation to keep talent (Coetzee & Gunz, 2010; cited in Olckers, van Zyl, & van der Vaart, 2017: 3). “In this regard employees take part in developing new career strategies, which support and promote their own career success” (Bailout, 2009; cited in Olckers et al., 2017: 3). “This input has led to a renewed interest in career development and in factors that influence individuals’ commitment to the organization. A psychological phenomenon that can impact employees’ attachment to their organization and/or their career is psychological ownership” (Olckers et al., 2017: 3).

“Employee-owned companies taking the form of producer cooperatives and characterized by employee ownership and employee management existed as long ago as 1791 and increased in number substantially during the 19th century” (J. L. Pierce & Furo, 1990). “Pierce, Rubinfeld and Morgan (1991), in a review of the employee ownership literature, theorize that formal ownership may produce positive attitudinal and behavioral effects through psychologically experienced ownership” (Jon L. Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2001). “Vandewalle, Van Dyne, and Kostova (1995) have shown that psychological ownership was positively related to extra role/organizational citizenship behaviors. Wagner, Parker, and Christiansen (2003) provided further support showing a positive connection between individuals’ beliefs about their ownership and the financial performance of the organization” (Fred Luthans et al., 2007: 5). “An increasing number of scholars and practitioners have emphasized the importance of 'feelings of ownership' for the organization (even when employees are not legal owners). Our research demonstrate positive links between psychological ownership for the organization and employee attitudes (organizational commitment, job satisfaction, organization-based self-esteem), and work behavior (performance and organizational citizenship)” (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

Pierce and Jussila (2011) informs that some number of studies concerning the psychological ownership started “since the early 1990s” those inspired by “psychological processes of work life” (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 15). “VandeWalle et al. (1995) examined psychological ownership of housing cooperative residents and showed relationships of psychological ownership with commitment and satisfaction to the cooperative and self-perceptions of extra-role behavior. Pendleton et al.’s (1998) study of four U.K. bus

companies showed feelings of ownership were related to satisfaction, involvement, integration, commitment, and self-perceived changes in attitudes and work-related behaviors. Finally, Parker, Wall, and Jackson's work on quality management (1997) showed production ownership was linked to concerns for unfinished work" (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

"A sense of possession (feeling as though an object, entity, or idea is 'MINE' or 'OURS') is the core of psychological ownership" (Furby, 1978; cited in Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). psychological ownership at the greater tiers depicts people who are willing to foot up and accept accountability for the task that might not be in their area of responsibility however it is vital for the whole performance of the association (Avey, Avolio, Crossley, & Luthans, 2008; cited in F. Luthans, Youssef-Morgan, & Avolio, 2015: 125). Feeling of ownership shows itself in the connotation and sensation is normally related to the "possessive pronouns" "my", "mine", and "ours". psychological ownership is viewed as reply to the question "What do I feel is mine?" As it is considered diverse and different from "legal ownership", some may accept and sense as if an object is virtually theirs, despite they bear no argument of ownership which is lawfully binding (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 16).

Pierce and Jussila (2011) propose that individual sense of ownership breaks into no less than two types. In some cases one might sense ownership towards a certain target (for instance, "that PC is mine?"), and in some other cases feeling of ownership might be collective in the object, one accepts that others feel the ownership for the same item (for instance, "this is our college library"). Parker et al. (1997) described ownership in framework of "a concern for or felt responsibility for the target". "Parker et al. (1997)" pointed out that one obtains a powerful ownership exposure when they are interested in the target (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 16). Brown (1989) assuming a sort of behavioral approach argues that psychological ownership is individuals who act like the owner of the place. O'Reilly (2002) describes psychological ownership as "a feeling on the part of employees that they have a responsibility to make decisions that are in the long-term interest of the company" (Brown, 1989; cited in J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 17). Avey et al. (2008) view the description of psychological ownership from the standpoint of a series of matching situations. They posit that when someone practices a feeling of ownership for the workplace, this situation will expose itself via synchronic rehearsal of sense of "belongingness", "accountability", self-identity, and self-efficacy. Consequently, they seem to rationalize that when matching situations synchronically get together it points out that feeling of ownership is obvious (J.L.

Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 18). “The state of psychological ownership is complex in that it is both cognitive and affective in nature. It is a condition where one is aware through intellectual perception that they feel and believe that the target of possession is theirs” (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 16). Pierce et al. define psychological ownership as “a cognitive-affective construct stated as, ‘the state in which individuals feel as though the target of ownership or a piece of that target is theirs, and reflects an individual’s awareness, thoughts, and beliefs regarding the target of ownership” (Pierce, Kostova, & Dirks, 2003; cited in Avey et al., 2009). Psychological ownership is referred as “the psychological state of ownership is based on feelings of possessiveness and being psychologically tied to an object that is material or immaterial in nature”(J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 16)

Psychological ownership is frequent to individuals throughout the associations, seeming to connect itself objects tangible or intangible (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 31). When individuals develop a feeling of ownership, they practice a tie between themselves and diverse material and immaterial targets (Dittmar, 1992; cited in Avey et al., 2009). The phrase target in the psychological ownership studies is pretty extensive and is about what people define themselves with the object of connection. The target can be small item like chair “in the company cafeteria or can be large like the organization as a whole” (Avey et al., 2009). Van Dyne & Pierce (2004) propose that “psychological ownership is different from other work-related attitudes and has unique explanatory power because its conceptual core is feelings of possession that trigger affect-driven behaviors. In other words, psychological ownership consists, in part, of an emotional attachment to the organization that transcends the mere cognitive evaluation of the firm” (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

Avey et. al. (2009) informs that “conventional wisdom suggests that people will take better care of, and strive to maintain and nurture the possessions they own. This sense of ownership, and this motivation to protect and improve the object of the ownership, has stimulated organizational behavior scholars to better understand the positive construct of psychological ownership”. They propose that “such psychological ownership falls within the emerging literature of positive organizational behavior or POB” (Avey et al., 2009). “Owning things makes people feel better about themselves. Psychological ownership is even more important than physical top-down, control organizations more and more employees are demanding their freedom back” (Cook, 2008: 85)

Psychological ownership has strong ties with the positive organizational behavior (POB) and understandings of “psychological capital” (Fred Luthans et al., 2007: 5), “positive

organizational scholarship” (Bernstein, 2003) and “psychological well-being” (Quick & Quick, 2004). “When employees feel ownership in an organization, they tend to engage in positive behaviors driven by the sense of responsibility accompanying feelings of ownership. Psychological ownership can potentially relate to all facets of individual, group, and organizational effectiveness and ultimately competitive advantage” (Avey et al., 2009).

Pierce et. al. (2001) maintains that psychological ownership is based on in three main motives: (1) “efficacy and effectance”, (2) “self-identity”, and (3) "having a place”. Thus, they propose that “people use ownership for the purpose of defining themselves, expressing their self-identity to others, and ensuring the continuity of the self across time”. Furthermore they posit that “psychological ownership manifests itself in organizations much as it does in other contexts because, as suggested in organizational behavior research, the motives for efficacy and effectance, self-identity, and having a place can be satisfied in organizations” (Jon L. Pierce et al., 2001). “Psychological ownership construct consists of self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belongingness and self-identity sub-dimensions” (Avey et al., 2009). Research and social practice point out that “(1) the feeling of ownership is part of the human condition; (2) people develop feelings of ownership toward a variety of objects, both material and immaterial in nature; and (3) feelings of ownership have important behavioral, emotional, and psychological consequences” (Jon L. Pierce et al., 2001).

2.2.1. Self-Efficacy

Self-efficacy is an idea created by therapist Albert Bandura (1997) and means “task specific confidence”. Self-efficacy varies from confidence in that the last is a by and large (worldwide) gauge of one's self-esteem and ability. The higher a person's self-efficacy concerning a particular duty, the higher the objectives the individual will set. The more dedicated the individual will be to harder objectives, the stronger and steady the individual will be even with ineffectiveness, the better the assignment methodologies the individual will probably create, and the better the individual will perform. Self-efficacy is fabricated fundamentally through preparing and practice (Golembiewski, 2000: 46). “Freedom to control one’s actions is a psychological component that results in feelings of self-efficacy and may promote a sense of psychological ownership concerning a particular task, process, and procedure” (Avey et al., 2009). Being the reason through one's control or activities results in emotions of adequacy and joy and furthermore makes extrinsic fulfillment as particular wanted results are obtained. The craving to encounter “causal efficacy” in

changing the environment pushes to acquire ownership and to the rise of ownership emotions (Jon L. Pierce et al., 2001).

2.2.2. Accountability

Accountability can be viewed as a segment of psychological ownership basically through two systems: (1) the expected right to consider others responsible and (2) the expectation for one's self to be considered responsible. To begin with, people who experience higher sentiments of psychological ownership expect to have the option to demand an explanation from others for impacts on their target of ownership. The expectation for knowledge exchange and authorization to impact the course of the target are results of this expected right to consider others responsible. Second, people not just have expected rights about considering others responsible, they have anticipated duties regarding oneself, some of the time depicted as a feeling of “burden sharing” (Avey et al., 2009). According to Beaglehole (1932) and Furby (1978) “possessions and feelings of ownership trigger a sense of responsibility for the entity. This includes improvements and controlling or limiting access by others” (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

2.2.3. Self-Identity

“Self-identity at the interface between the individual and society. Each individual's identity arises out of a socio-cultural context” (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 41). People build up, keep up, replicate and change their self-identity through relationships with material and immaterial (Avey et al., 2009). Pierce et al. (2001) posits that “people use ownership for the purpose of defining themselves, expressing their self-identity to others, and ensuring the continuity of the self across time” (Jon L. Pierce et al., 2001). “As a part of the developmental process, people find comfort and pleasure in the meaning ascribed to certain objects. The individual seeks out and becomes psychologically tied to those objects that provide them with this comfort and pleasure. Across time, the individual slowly comes to see and define themselves in terms of the meaning ascribed to those objects”. Object of possession serves as a “symbol of identity” to self, in addition, possession plays a vital role in expressing oneself to others. It has often been seen that people gather and openly show assets as emblematic articulations of their self-identity. As people get more established their history turns into an inexorably significant piece of their self-identity (J.L. Pierce & Jussila, 2011: 56).

Albert et al. (2000) posits that “by internalizing the organizational identity as a definition of the self, the individual gains a sense of meaningfulness and connectedness. Since people are expressive and seek opportunities to affirm their self-identity, the need for self-identity can be considered a potential component of psychological ownership” (Avey et al., 2009). Self-identity is associated yet separate from possessing a sense of belongingness. For instance, “individuals can feel a sense of belongingness in a place or with a group and not necessarily identify with that place or group” (Gardner, Avolio, & Walumbwa, 2005).

2.2.4. Belongingness

“Ardrey (1966) argued people will take ownership of, and structure their lives around, possessions in an effort to satisfy their need for belonging. This example is highlighted by Mehta and Belk (1991) who note that immigrants tend to retain possessions as “security blankets” to provide them with a sense of place or belongingness. Feelings of psychological ownership through attachment to a place or an object, becomes a “home” or place for the individual” (Pierce et al., 2001; cited in Avey et al., 2009). “When people feel like owners in an organization, their need for belongingness is met by “having a place” in terms of their social and socio-emotional needs being met. The need to belong in a work place may be satisfied by a particular job, work team, work unit, division, organization or industry as a whole” (Avey et al., 2009).

2.2.5. Promotion and Prevention

“Higgins (1997, 1998) developed the regulatory focus theory, which describes important differences in the processes through which people approach pleasure and avoid pain” (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007). “The basis for examining two unique and independent forms of psychological ownership comes from the work of Higgins’ (1997, 1998) regulatory focus theory. He proposes that individuals have two basic self-regulation systems: promotion and prevention” (Avey et al., 2009). People who work basically inside the “promotion focus” are progressively worried about achievements and ambitions, are probably going to be delicate to the nearness or nonappearance of rewards, use approach as a “goal attainment strategy”, are increasingly innovative in critical thinking forms, show more eagerness to go out on a limb. Interestingly, people who work principally inside the prevention focus are progressively worried about obligations and commitments, are probably going to be delicate to the nearness or nonappearance of disciplines, use evasion as an objective accomplishment technique, and experience feelings going from unsettling or tension to peacefulness or serenity (Kark & Van Dijk, 2007).

As indicated by “Higgins (1997, 1998)”, “self-regulation” implies the manner in which people select objectives. The individuals who utilize a promotion-focused methodology seek after objectives that mirror their expectations and desires. Then again, those that utilize “prevention goals” focus around what to maintain a strategic distance from for lessening discipline, staying with guidelines and commitments (Avey et al., 2009). When utilized in investigating psychological ownership, individuals that are more promotion based may encounter feelings concerning targets of ownership. In contrast, those who are with more preventive focus may thoroughly observe and suppress information from others because they seek to prevent changes and preserve stability (Avey et al., 2009).

2.2.6. Territoriality

“Territoriality refers to the behaviors and psychological states associated with the perceived ownership of a physical space. Territorial behavior includes the tendency to defend claimed areas against intruders” (Wortley, 2011: 197). Brown et al. (2005) describe territoriality as “an individual's behavioral expression of his or her feelings of ownership toward a physical or social object”. “Territorial behaviors serve to construct, communicate, maintain, and restore territories around those objects in the organization to which one feels proprietary attachment toward” (G. Brown & Zhu, 2016). Feelings of ownership and territoriality likely fortify each other. Ownership can make individuals secure and guard “what they feel is theirs” (Hall, 1966; cited in G. Brown & Zhu, 2016). “Similarly, people who feel they have rights to something are more likely to protect and enhance what they feel is theirs, and even control and limit access to their possessions” (Wilpert, 1991; cited in G. Brown & Zhu, 2016).

Pierce et al. (2001) suggests that “organizations may benefit from this state, because it leads to felt responsibility toward the target and to protective, stewardship, and other altruistic behaviors toward it” (Jon L. Pierce et al., 2001). Brown and Zhu (2016) postulate that “individuals who engage in territorial behaviors may satisfy the need to have a place of one's own in the organization by claiming an object and then signaling that claim to others. Feelings of ownership may increase territorial behavior. In turn, territorial behavior may also serve to increase and reinforce feelings of ownership” (G. Brown & Zhu, 2016). “Territoriality leads people to become too preoccupied with “objects of ownership,” at the expense of their performance or other pro-social behaviors. Furthermore, the fear of losing one's territory and associated self and social identity may promote politicking and prohibit transparency, collaboration, and information sharing” (Avey et al., 2009).

2.3. Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction, perhaps the almost extensively well-acquainted notion into organizational psychology and occupies a central role within many “theories and models” of one’s attitudes and behaviors (Timothy A. Judge, Parker, Colbert, Heller, & Ilies, 2001: 25-26). Frazier (2005) posits that the essential research over job satisfaction did not come into existence till the 1930s, however, the study on workers' attitudes started out much earlier. In 1912, Mayo started a collection of studies recognized as like the Hawthorne Studies. Although the studies’ main focus was once “employee production and efficiency”, it laid a significant foundation for further studies. The Hawthorne Studies had been the first research project to strive in quantifying the employee attitudes and correlate attitudes with average job efficiency. In the mid-1930s, couple of years after Hawthorne Studies were concluded, Hoppock (1935) published the comprehensive study on job satisfaction. This milestone study shed more light about job satisfaction from a much more elaborated approach. Hoppock noticed “job satisfaction being impacted by the following independent variables”: (a) “fatigue”, (b) “monotony”, (c) “working conditions”, (d) “supervision”, and (e) “achievement” (Frazier, 2005).

Job satisfaction is an output of motivation. “The pioneering studies of motivation from the mid-1900s by Maslow, Herzberg, and Adams continue to have relevance for today’s work force” (Topping, 2002: 99). “Herzberg and his colleagues at Psychological Service of Pittsburgh” formed the basis of the theory following the extensive literature review on “job attitudes” and “satisfaction” (Balasubramanian, 2007: 27; John B. Miner, 2005: 61). “Herzberg et al. suggest that job satisfaction is caused by motivators (for example, achievement, recognition, advancement, responsibility), whereas job dissatisfaction is caused by hygiene factors (for example, pay, working conditions, peer relations)” (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010: 151).

The Hoppock and Herzberg’s theories are considered as a conceptual framework for many further surveys on job satisfaction. These studies, united along earlier research, assisted Locke (1976) to differentiate the following key factors as most influential when carrying a study on job satisfaction: (a) “work”, (b) “pay”, (c) “promotion”, (d) “verbal recognition”, and (e) “working conditions” (Frazier, 2005).

Hackman and Oldham’s (1974) job diagnostic survey recognized five job features that regulate job satisfaction: “skill variety”, “task identity”, “task significance”, “autonomy” and “job feedback”. Current study in the 1990s has begun to spot extra “determinants of job

satisfaction”. “Agho, Mueller and Price (1993) defined determinants such as distributive justice, supervisory support, the internal labor market, integration among coworkers, and pay” (Frazier, 2005). R. Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner (2009), define daily job satisfaction as “an attitudinal evaluation of one’s job or job experiences on a particular workday.” (R. Ilies, Wilson, & Wagner, 2009). Job satisfaction means individual’s sense of pleasure and enjoyment originating from a particular job (Bass & Avolio, 1994). “Job satisfaction in a broad sense is an attitude. Attitude is described as a characteristic way of responding” (Saiyadain, 2003: 58). Judge et al. (2001) propose that job satisfaction is “an individual’s overall attitude toward his/her Job”. Locke (1976) has provided an extensive and widely “popular definition of job satisfaction” (Saiyadain, 2003: 56). Locke (1976) defines job satisfaction as “a pleasurable or positive emotional state, resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (Gruneberg, 1979: 3). Thus, Locke presumes that job satisfaction “results from the interplay of cognition and affect, or thoughts and feelings” (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2001: 26).

Locke (1976) states that “among the most important values or conditions conducive to job satisfaction are: (1) mentally challenging work which the individual can cope successfully; (2) personal interest in the work itself; (3) work which is not physically tiring; (3) rewards for performance which are just, informative, and in line with the individual’s physical needs and which facilitate the accomplishment of his work goals; (6) high self-esteem on the part of the employee; (7) agents in the work place who help the employee to attain job values such as interesting work, pay, and promotions, whose basic values are similar to his own, and who minimize role conflict and ambiguity” (Locke, 1976; cited in Frazier, 2005). Job satisfaction is theoretically defined as “the extent to which employees like their jobs” (Stamps 1997: 13; cited in Giallonardo et al., 2010). “Hoppock (1935) defined job satisfaction as any combination of psychological, physiological and environmental circumstances that cause a person truthfully to say I am satisfied with my job” (Brikend, 2011). “Vroom (1964) in his definition on job satisfaction focuses on the role of the employee in the workplace. Thus he defines job satisfaction as affective orientations on the part of individuals toward work roles which they are presently occupying” (Brikend, 2011). “Job satisfaction is simply how people feel about their jobs and different aspects of their jobs. It is the extent to which people like (satisfaction) or dislike (dissatisfaction) their jobs” (Spector, 1997: 2)

Because a regular worker consumes nearly “one third on his/her life” within the organization, there are some issues that are supposed to be mentioned specifically in the job satisfaction context. These deals with the balance of “satisfaction, work context, and supervisory behavior” (Saiyadain, 2003: 57). Campbell et al. (1970) separated job satisfaction theories into two categories, “content theories” and “process theories”. “Content theories refer to the factors which affect the job satisfaction; whereas process theories refer to the interaction between variables in their relationship to job satisfaction” (Gruneberg, 1979: 9-19).

The proportion which an individual admires and take pleasure in his/her work is known as job satisfaction. “Job satisfaction is composed of three components i.e. intrinsic, extrinsic and general job satisfaction. Intrinsic job satisfaction is based on the internal factors of the job itself. Extrinsic job satisfaction comes from the factors associated with the work place like salary, promotion etc. job satisfaction is also based on the working environment and relationship with other workers” (Brayfield & Rothe,1951; cited in Zhang, Ahmad, & Cao, 2018). Lu, Zhao, & While (2019) stated that “job satisfaction in the health sector nurses is carefully associated according to job environment, structural empowerment, organizational commitment, expert commitment, labor stress, patient satisfaction, patient-nurse ratios, neighborly capital, evidence-based practice yet national background.” (Lu, Zhao, & While, 2019).

2.3.1. Hierarchy of Needs

Maslow (1954) recognized a “hierarchy of needs” ranging out of the most “primitive”, which people share with the “lower stages of life”, to those people associated with the “higher stage of life”. Maslow highlighted that “man is a wanting animal and rarely reaches a state of complete satisfaction except for a short time. As one desire is satisfied, another pops up to take its place.” Thus, only if the decrease desires are at ease pleasure the greater wants show up Thus, unless the “lower needs” are satisfied will the “higher needs” become achievable (McKenna, 2000: 92). The theory of “hierarchy of needs” asserts that people have; 1) “Physiological needs for such things as food and sex”, 2) “Safety needs for a secure physical and emotional environment”, 3) “Belongingness needs for acceptance and friendship”, 4) “Esteem needs for recognition, attention, and appreciation”, 5) “Self-actualization needs for developing to one’s fullest potential”. The type of needs is laid out in rankings; that is, people care for more their biological and security needs first. As they satisfy their basic needs and their focus shifts to the higher ranking needs (Hodson & Sullivan, 2012: 60).

Individuals appear to have dissimilar preferences when it comes to defining most significant “human needs” at a specific time. Maslow states that “if a person has a history of chronic deprivation at a particular need level—e.g. an individual cannot find a job that adequately utilizes his or her abilities—this person is likely to be very sensitive to that particular need. On the other hand, where people have previously experienced adequate and consistent gratification of a lower need, they can become relatively unconcerned about subsequent deprivations of that need because their focus has shifted to higher need gratification—the artists' preoccupation with their work pushes problems of subsistence to one side” (McKenna, 2000: 94).

2.3.2. Motivator-Hygiene Theory

Herzberg et al. (1959) described the “dual factor” concept of job satisfaction which point out to two arrays of factors which specify job satisfaction or “job dissatisfaction”. Herzberg’s (1966) “two-factor theory” posits that factors alone linked to the job characteristics such as accomplishment, liability bring satisfaction. However, the other work aspects such as salary, insurance, work requirements bring job dissatisfaction but not satisfaction(Oshagbemi, 1997). “Herzerg et al. (1959) asked a group of two hundred accountants and engineers from Pittsburg to recall and describe incidents and situations that made them feel particularly good or particularly bad about their jobs” (Saiyadain, 2003: 60). Herzberg (1967) asserted that the aspects that result in satisfaction are frequently diverse from those that result in dissatisfaction. This conclusion was established on a sequence of meetings with of subordinates. When asked to think of elements linked to a moment then he when they perceived a sense of satisfaction with their jobs, people typically talked about innate elements such as the job itself, responsibilities, and accomplishments (motivators). Contrarily, when they were asked to reflect on aspects that result in dissatisfaction, most workers mentioned “extrinsic factors” such as organizational procedure, “working conditions”, and payment (hygiene factors). Herzberg later figured out that intrinsic factors had a stronger relationship with satisfaction, while extrinsic factors have had a better relationship with dissatisfaction. Depending on evidence, Herzberg maintains that “elimination of hygiene factors from a job would only remove dissatisfaction, but not bring satisfaction. To bring out job satisfaction, then, the organization must focus on motivator factors, such as making the work more interesting, challenging, and personally rewarding” (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2001: 28).

2.3.3. Job Characteristics Model

Another theory of job satisfaction is Hackman and Oldman's (1974) Job Characteristics Model that aims to demonstrate how "job redesign" and "job characteristics" influence the job satisfaction. Hackman and Oldman (1974) maintain that "intrinsic characters of work leads the job satisfaction" (Dierendonck & Patterson, 2010: 151; Korkut, 2017). The job characteristics model (JCM) posits that "jobs which contain intrinsically motivating characteristics will lead to higher levels of job satisfaction, as well as other positive work outcomes, such as enhanced job performance and lower withdrawal" (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2001).

The model, initiated by Hackman and Oldham (1976), however modified from former Hackman or Lawler (1971), focuses on essential job attributes. Five core dimensions can be calibrated to enhance the job performance in terms of productivity and work conditions (R. Lussier, 2008: 182): 1) "Skill variety is the number of diverse tasks that make up a job and the number of skills used to perform the job", 2) "Task identity is the degree to which an employee performs a whole identifiable task. For example, does the employee put together an entire television, or just place the screen in the set?", 3) "Task significance is an employee's perception of the importance of the task to others—the organization, the department, coworkers, and/or customers", 4) "Autonomy is the degree to which the employee has discretion to make decisions in planning, organizing, and controlling the task performed", 5) "Feedback is the extent to which employees find out how well they perform their tasks" (R. Lussier, 2008: 182). The theory assumes that jobs that are improved to deliver the core attributes have higher probability of satisfying and motivating than jobs that do not deliver the core attributes (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2001: 29).

2.3.4. Dispositional Approach

The dispositional approach argues that job satisfaction is the result of general patterns to practice favorable or unfavorable consequences. The approach proposes that particular individuals have inclinations that affect them toward feeling positive usually in their lives and includes being positive about their jobs (S. D. Brown & Lent, 2004: 191). Dispositional approach accepts that job satisfaction is the outcome of the individual personality (Timothy A. Judge et al., 2001: 25). Brief and Weiss (2002) maintains that "dispositions influence job satisfaction through mood at work and through affecting how an individual interprets objective circumstances of the job" (S. D. Brown & Lent, 2004: 192).

Most research which studied disposition have mainly concentrated on the characteristics of “positive affectivity”, “negative affectivity”, and “locus of control” as indicators of job satisfaction. According to Brown & Lent (2004), “negative affectivity” is the inclination to practice “negative mood states” such as pressure, antagonism, and depression, and “positive affectivity” is the inclination to practice “positive mood states” such as being optimistic, self-assured, and active (S. D. Brown & Lent, 2004: 192).





3. METHODOLOGY

3.1. Research Method and Design

The research focuses on the relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction. It tries to determine how subordinates perceive their leaders and how it affects their job satisfaction. It aims to help hospitality professionals achieve higher level psychological ownership and job satisfaction. The quantitative study utilizes the descriptive and inferential statistical analysis to explore the relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction as perceived by the followers. The main reason for the use of a quantitative design instead of a qualitative design is the sample size and distance limitations. A qualitative model design could have been an agreeable option; nevertheless, administering personal interviews with employees or executive officers would have caused unbearable burden on the time of a busy population. The quantitative method can contribute evidence of the feasibility and value of utilizing quantifiable data to measure fields linked to the soft or individual factors. Quantitative analysis is exceptionally advanced and constructed normally through the application of a featured, uniform series of data analysis methods designed towards interpreting patterns or relationships. Cronbach's coefficient alpha will be calculated to provide the reliability.

3.2. Research and Hypotheses

The quantitative study tries to provide empirical evidences on the relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction. Only one research exists which investigates the relationship between authentic leadership and psychological ownership, apparently more research is needed to provide consistent results. The study tries to discover the relationships and differences among authentic leadership, job satisfaction and psychological ownership, their subcomponents and the demographic variables. In order to do so the hypotheses were established as following:

H1: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their feeling of psychological ownership.

H2: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency behavior and their promotive self-efficacy feeling of psychological ownership.

H3: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's moral perspective behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.

H4: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.

H5: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of the leader's transparency behavior and their accountability feeling of psychological ownership.

H6: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their preventive territoriality feeling of psychological ownership.

H7: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's moral perspective behavior and their preventive territoriality component of psychological ownership.

H8: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their demographic variables such as age, sex, marital status, education and seniority.

H8a: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their sex.

H8b: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and marital status.

H8c: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their age.

H8d: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their education level.

H8e: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their work experience.

H8f: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their seniority.

H9: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction.

H10: There is a positive relationship between the followers' psychological ownership level and their job satisfaction.

H11: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction level with a mediator effect of psychological ownership.

3.3. Instruments

The survey data was collected by using Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa's (2007) Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and Avey and Avolio's (2007) Psychological Ownership Questionnaire, and the Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire form.

3.3.1. Authentic Leadership

ALQ comprises of 16 items where responder evaluates his or her closest senior. The scale was formed by Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa (2007). They started with 35 item scale with 5 components then reduced it to 16 items with 4 components. ALQ has 4 subdimensions: transparency, moral perspective, balanced processing and self-awareness. Walumbwa et al. (2008) administered a research in American companies from where they collected 478 samples. They report that Cronbach's alpha reliability coefficient for "each ALQ measure is as follows: self-awareness .73; relational transparency, .77; internalized moral perspective, .73; and balanced processing, .70". Their study revealed that authentic leadership is positively linked to job satisfaction and "Positive Organizational Behavior" (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). Alok (2014) conducted a survey with 182 Indian professionals. He found the "Cronbach's Alpha reliability coefficient" of ALQ and subcomponents greater than .70. His study indicates that psychological ownership is positively connected with authentic leadership especially when the transparency is established (Alok, 2014).

ALQ is a 16-item measure with four factors: self-awareness, relational transparency, balanced processing of information, and internalized moral perspective (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). The ALQ lets the participants rate their nearest supervisors on expressions such as "says exactly what he or she means" and "makes decisions based on his or her core values". ALQ is a "five-point scale" starting from "not at all=0" and ending with "if not always=4".

Tabak et al. (2012) pointed out in their study of reliability and validity analysis for the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire that overall ALQ reliability coefficient (Cronbach's Alpha) was calculated as 0.93 and for transparency subscale as 0.86, for moral/ethical subscale as 0.83, for balanced processing subscale as 0.85 and for self-awareness subscale as 0.90 (Tabak, Polat, Coşar, & Türköz, 2012). In confirmatory factor analysis of 371 samples 66.7% of the total variance were explained whereas KMO (0.938) and Bartlett ($p=0.00$) test results were found as satisfactory (Tabak et al., 2012). Kılıç's (2005) analysis on 260 academicians of Erzincan University reaches only two factors; Balanced Processing-Self Awareness and Transparency with KMO sampling adequacy 0,910 and Bartlett ($p=0.00$) (Kılıç, 2015).

3.3.2. Psychological Ownership

Avey and Avolio (2007) initiated psychological ownership construct based on Positive Organizational Behavior. Psychological Ownership Questionnaire allows responders rate themselves regarding their perception on their work. POQ has five components: "Territoriality", "Self-Efficacy", "Accountability", "Sense of Belongingness" and "Self-Identify". Territoriality component is viewed as preventive form of PO, on the other hand self-efficacy, accountability, sense of belongingness and self-identify components are viewed as promotive form of PO. Preventive PO is described as territoriality. It happens when an individual refrain from sharing items or ideas they possess in their workplace. They feel that they should be the one who decides how to use the item or idea. The items from 1 to 4 stated on POQ are related with preventive PO. Psychological Ownership Questionnaire (POQ) has 16 items with "six-point scale" ranked from "strongly disagree=1" to "strongly agree=6" which contains five sub-dimensions "with internal reliabilities for the components as follows: self-efficacy $\alpha = 0.90$, accountability $\alpha = 0.81$, sense of belongingness $\alpha = 0.92$, self-identity $\alpha = 0.73$, and territoriality $\alpha = 0.84$ " (Avey et al., 2009). POQ lets the participants evaluate themselves on expressions such as "I feel I belong in this organization". Van Dyne and Pierce (2004) conducted a research among 822 U.S. professionals. They formed three groups and used the group data separately and calculated their Cronbach's alpha coefficient as "0.87, 0.90, and 0.93". They found out that psychological ownership and Organizational Commitment were positively correlated (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004).

İspirli (2014) used five-point scale instead of six-point scale and calculated the Cronbach's coefficient alpha of Psychological Ownership Questionnaire (POQ) as 0.85 in his research of 305 samples conducted in Turkey (İspirli, 2014). His exploratory factor analysis determined four distinct psychological ownership dimensions different from its five-factor predecessor. The analysis also found that KMO measure of sampling adequacy for psychological ownership scale was 0.79 and the four-subcales explained the 67.80 % of the total variance. Two dimensions, self-identity and sense of belongingness were merged in one dimension in the exploratory factor analysis with "factor loadings" ranging from 0.57 to 0.82, and they were tagged as "identity and belongingness". "Identity and belongingness" subcomponent explained the 29.47 % of the "total variance". Territoriality subcomponent with four items explains the 16.07 % of the "total variance". Self-efficacy subcomponent has factor loadings ranging from 0.87 to 0.94 and accounts for 12.91 % of the total variance. The lowest and highest value of the factor loadings for accountability subcomponent were 0.80 and 0.90 with 9.33 % variance explained (İspirli, 2014).

3.3.3. Job Satisfaction

Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) job satisfaction scale have five items where responder rates his or her job satisfaction. Walumbwa et. al (2008) reports that the scale is dependable and used in several studies. They calculated its internal consistency as .82. (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008)

JSQ was developed by Brayfield & Rothe (1951) as 18-item measure with five-point scale (Brayfield & Rothe, 1951). They intended to provide a scale for the use of "global appraisal of job satisfaction applicable to various occupations". "Gürbüz, Erkuş, & Sığı (2010) and Kahya (2013) reduced the JSQ to five items" (Korkut, 2017). Kahya (2013) calculated the Cronbach's coefficient alpha of JSQ as 0.85 in his research conducted in Turkey with 105 samples. His exploratory factor analysis determined one dimension explaining the 0,67% of the variance. KMO measure of sampling adequacy for JSQ was found as 0.78 (Kahya, 2013).

3.4. Sample Population and Data Collection

The hotel managements and hotel unions in İstanbul, Antalya and Adana were contacted and requested to conduct a survey with the hotel staff in the first place, almost all of them informed that they were under intensive workload and could not afford to host a survey. Considering the heavy workload of hotel staff an online questionnaire form would be a more practical solution, because it could be answered at a more convenient time and their

workflow would not be interrupted. An online form was built consisting of ALQ, POQ, JSQ and demographic variables to collect feedback from the industry professionals by using “google documents”. Turkey is a tourist receiving country, İstanbul, Muğla and Antalya and Nevşehir are the main tourist destinations those host highest number of tourists and hotels. Ankara, İzmir and Adana are large cities those contain higher number of hotels than the average ones in Turkey. 2485 Hotel emails were collected manually by scanning the internet. The online questionnaire form was periodically sent to the hotels via email requesting their opinions between December, 2018 and May, 2019. 456 of the hotels replied positively. Employees, lower/middle/higher level managers of Turkish hotels located in Adana, Ankara, Antalya, İstanbul, İzmir, Muğla and Nevşehir voluntarily submitted their views. As the online questionnaire form did not allow unreplied items survey data contained no missing value. The collected data was transferred to SPSS and LISREL software programs for further analysis.

4. FINDINGS

4.1. Reliability Analysis

Job Satisfaction Questionnaire consisted of one reverse scaled item. 10 of the 456 samples removed from analysis because of inconsistent answers to reverse item. 446 consistent samples were found suitable for analysis.

	Cronbach's Alpha	Skewness	Kurtosis
Authentic Leadership	,942	-1,087	,637
Psychological Ownership	,813	-1,566	2,787
Job Satisfaction	,866	-1,406	2,456

Table 4.1. Reliability Analysis

Acock (2008) points out that “a normal distribution has skewness 0, and a normal distribution will have a kurtosis of 3.00.” (Acock, 2008: 229). George and Mallery (2016) suggests that “A kurtosis value between ± 1.0 is considered excellent for most psychometric purposes, but a value between ± 2.0 is in many cases also acceptable, depending on the particular application.” (D. George & Mallery, 2016). Most of the items range between -1 and +1 and almost all the items range between “-2 and +2 skewness/kurtosis” values which indicates that dataset is in the satisfactory range of normality.

The reliability analysis points out that the 16 item Authentic Leadership Questionnaire has an excellent Cronbach's alpha value of ,942, Psychological Ownership Questionnaire has a good Cronbach's alpha value of ,813, and the 5 item Job Satisfaction Questionnaire has a good Cronbach's alpha value of ,866. The reliability analysis show that our dataset is suitable for further analysis.

4.2. Factor Analysis

In order to test the structural validity of ALQ, POQ and JSQ an exploratory factor analysis was conducted. Principal component and maximum likelihood methods, and varimax rotation techniques were employed to determine the factor structure and to obtain meaningful interpretable factors. The 16 item ALQ was tested first. As a result of the factor analysis, Bartlett Test of Sphericity was 4696,056 and $p < 0.01$. Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) Sampling Adequacy value was 0,954. The values obtained from the test show that the data were suitable for factor analysis.

Authentic Leadership Questionnaire originally comprises of four factors. The exploratory factor analysis of ALQ revealed two factors which have eigenvalues over “+1”. SPSS exploratory factor analysis merged transparency, balanced processing and self-awareness components in one part. Kılıç’s (2005) analysis on 260 academicians of Erzincan University also defined two factors (Kılıç, 2015). On the other hand Ötken’s (2015) study showed only one factor (Ötken, 2015). The transparency component with 12 items has a high level of internal consistency value. It explains 43,769% of the total variance. Moral Perspective component with 4 items has a medium level of internal consistency value. It has an eigenvalue of 18,267 explaining the small part of the variance. Exploratory factor analysis of Walumbwa et. al (2008) showed a “satisfactory level” of Cronbach’s alpha internal consistency value: “self-awareness .73; relational transparency, .77; internalized moral perspective, .73; and balanced processing, .70” (Fred O. Walumbwa et al., 2008). Our analysis indicates that our dataset has a higher internal consistency value. Because of copyright holder’s restrictions only three items were shown in full sentence.

	Factor Loading	Explanation rate of total variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Transparency		43,769	,945
says exactly what he or she means	,558		
admits made	,640		
encourages mind	,770		
tells truth	,593		
makesconduct	,706		
solicits positions	,805		
analyzes decision	,813		
listens conclusions	,849		
seeks feedback to improve interactions with others	,817		
accurately capabilities	,692		
knows issues	,806		
shows others	,762		
Moral Perspective		18,267	,738
displays feelings	,695		
demonstrates actions	,581		
makes values	,767		
asks you to take positions that support your core values	,682		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy 0,954; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity 4696,056; Explanation rate of total variance 61,945			

Table 4.2. Authentic Leadership Exploratory Factor Analysis.

The 16 item POQ test showed “Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy” as 0,860, “Bartlett's Test of Sphericity” as 3298,301 and $p < 0.01$. It explains 66,193% of the total variance. The values obtained indicates satisfactory values for “factor analysis”. Avey and Avolio’s (2007) psychological ownership analysis originally demonstrated five components, on the other hand our analysis on our dataset demonstrated four components with eigenvalues above “+1”. Belongingness and self-identity components merged into one part. İspirli’s (2014) and Shouse’s (2017) studies also determined four distinct psychological ownership dimensions (İspirli, 2014; Shouse, 2017). Territoriality component with 4 items has a medium level of internal consistency value. It has an eigenvalue of 21,077 explaining the large part of the variance. Self-efficacy component with 4 items has a good level of internal consistency value. It explains the 13,189% of the total variance. Accountability component with 3 items has a good level of Cronbach’s alpha value. It explains the 12,466% of the total variance. Belongingness component with 6 items has a good level of Cronbach’s

alpha value. It explains the 9,124% of the total variance. Because of copyright holder's restrictions only five items were shown in full sentence.

	Factor Loading	Explanation rate of total variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Territoriality		21,077	,676
I feel I need to protect my ideas from being used by others in my organization.	,622		
I workspace.	,534		
I organization.	,524		
Imine.	,651		
Self-Efficacy		13,189	,871
I am confident in my ability to contribute to my organization's success.	,779		
Iorganization.	,870		
I organization.	,661		
Accountability		12,466	,827
I would challenge anyone in my organization if I thought something was done wrong.	,765		
I wrong.	,816		
I correct.	,618		
Belongingness		9,124	,870
I feel I belong in this organization.	,759		
This me.	,877		
I organization.	,834		
I feel this organization's success is my success.	,509		
I am.	,607		
I criticized.	,630		
Extraction Method: Maximum Likelihood. Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy 0,860; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity 3298,301; Explanation rate of total variance 66,193			

Table 4.3. Psychological Ownership Exploratory Factor Analysis.

	Factor Loading	Explanation rate of total variance	Cronbach's Alpha
Job Satisfaction		65,879	,866
For now, I can say that my work satisfies me.	,790		
For most other people, I think I'm happy in my job.	,813		
I find my job really fun.	,860		
I work with enthusiasm and willingness in most of my working days.	,879		
I often get tired of doing my work.	,705		
Extraction Method: Principal Component Analysis Rotation Method: Varimax with Kaiser Normalization			
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy 0,845; Bartlett's Test of Sphericity 1093,884; Explanation rate of total variance 65,879			

Table 4.4. Job Satisfaction Exploratory Factor Analysis.

Job satisfaction scale consists of one component explaining the 65,879% of the variance. “Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure” shows a satisfactory sampling adequacy of 0,845. It demonstrates a good value of internal consistency.

4.3. Confirmatory Factor Analysis

As indicated in the exploratory factor analysis, ALQ consists transparency and moral perspective subdimensions. The confirmatory factor analysis shows that Chi-square value of the model ($\chi^2 = 453,104$; $df = 103$), was found to be significant at $p = .000$ level. When the chi-square value was compared to the degree of freedom ($\chi^2 / DF = 4,399$) the ratio was found below “5” indicating to acceptable model-fit value. When the “goodness-of-fit indices” of the model are examined, it is seen that $RMSEA = ,87$, $RMR = ,055$, $GFI = ,882$, $AGFI = ,844$ and $CFI = ,925$, $NFI = ,905$ and $PNFI = ,777$. These values show that the model” has a very high “model-fit” values.

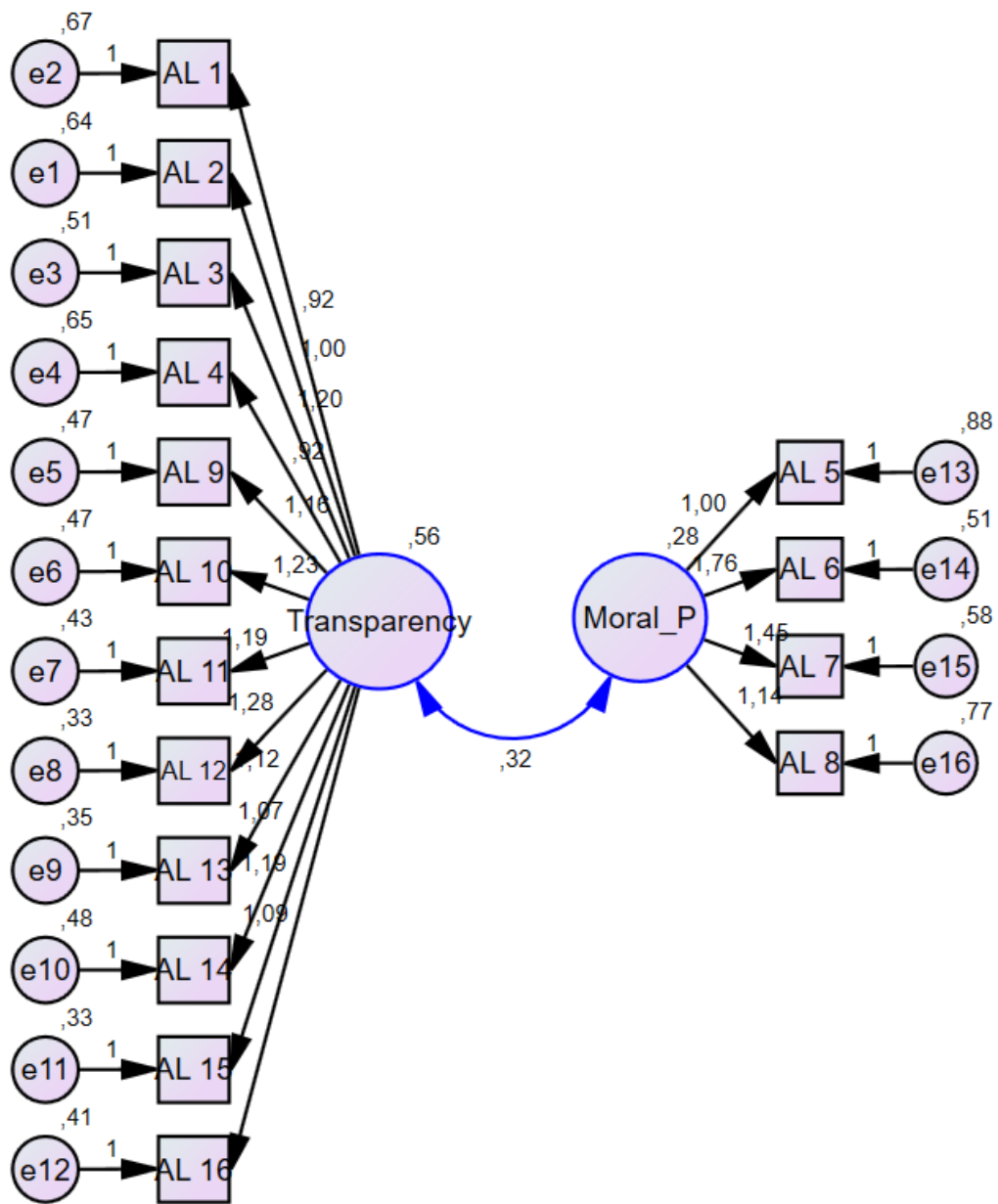


Figure 4.1. Authentic Leadership Confirmatory Factor Analysis

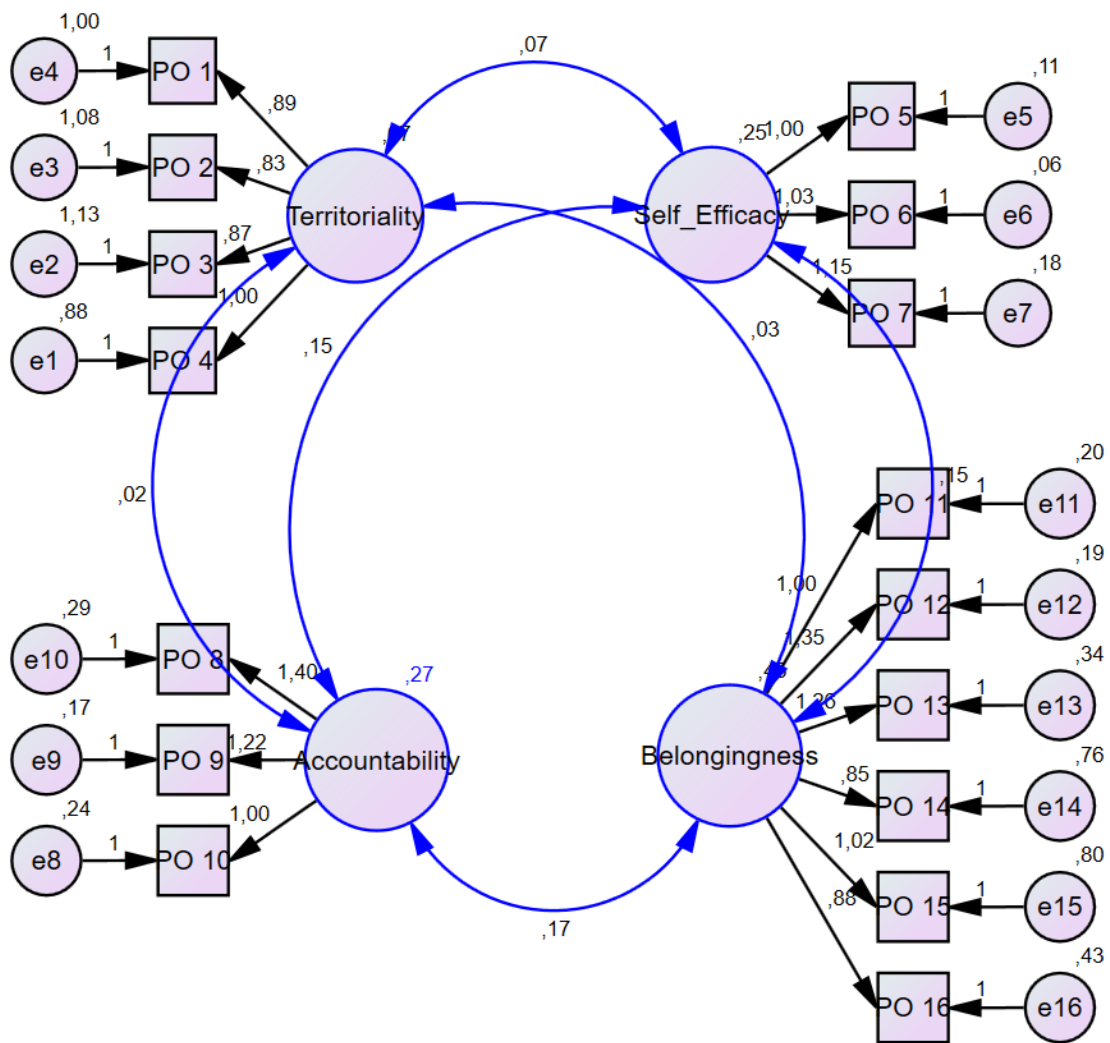


Figure 4.2. Psychological Ownership Confirmatory Factor Analysis

POQ has territoriality, Self-efficacy, accountability and belongingness subdimensions. The confirmatory factor analysis shows that Chi-square value of the model ($\chi^2 = 297,282$; $df = 98$), was found to be significant at $p = .000$ level. When the chi-square value was compared to the degree of freedom ($\chi^2 / DF = 3,033$) the ratio was found below “5” indicating to acceptable model-fit value. When the “goodness-of-fit indices” of the model are examined, it is seen that $RMSEA = ,068$, $RMR = ,054$, $GFI = ,922$, $AGFI = ,891$ and $CFI = ,938$, $NFI = ,911$ and $PNFI = ,744$. These values show that the model has a very high “model-fit” values.

4.4. Descriptive Statistics

		Frequency	Percent
Sex	Male	257	57,6
	Female	189	42,4
	Total	446	100
Age Group	18-24	32	7,2
	25-34	229	51,3
	35-44	119	26,7
	45-54	57	12,8
	55 and above	9	2
	Total	446	100
Marital Status	Married	226	50,7
	Single	220	49,3
	Total	446	100
Education Level	High School	46	10,3
	Associate Degree	75	16,8
	Bachelor's Degree	270	60,5
	Master's Degree	54	12,1
	PhD	1	0,2
	Total	446	100
Work Experience	9 years and below	182	40,8
	10 years above	264	59,2
	Total	446	100
Seniority	Employee	87	19,5
	Lower Level Manager	50	11,2
	Mid-Level Manager	159	35,7
	Senior Manager	150	33,6
	Total	446	100

Table 4.5. Demographic Distribution of the Participants

The frequency analysis of the sample group age, sex, marital status, education level, work experience and seniority s are given in this section. 446 tourism industry professionals participated in the survey from the various tourist destinations of Turkey. Half of the participants are in 25-34 age group. In the older age groups number of participants significantly decreases. There are only 9 participants in age group 55 and above. 60% of them possesses a bachelor's degree and 16,8 % of them has an associate degree. 70% of the respondents are mid-level and senior managers. 60% of the participants has more than 10 years of work experience in their organizations.

4.5. Results of Hypothesis Test

	1	2	3
ALQ	1		
POQ	,338**	1	
JSQ	,428**	,468**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N=446

Table 4.6. Pearson Correlations for ALQ, POQ and JSQ.

H1: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their feeling of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis employed to find to out whether there is a significant relationship between authentic leadership and psychological ownership perceived by the 446 participants. The analysis shows that ALQ and POQ have a moderate relationship with each other ($r_s = .338$, $p < .01$). A “significant positive correlation” exists between authentic leadership and psychological ownership ($p < .01$).

	1	2	3	4	5	6	7
1. JSQ	1						
2. ALQ Transparency	,422**	1					
3. ALQ Moral	,341**	,682**	1				
4. POQ Territoriality	-,049	-,023	,060	1			
5. POQ Self-Efficacy	,287**	,130**	,170**	,156**	1		
6. POQ Accountability	,289**	,199**	,194**	,036	,521**	1	
7. POQ Belongingness	,615**	,430**	,365**	,081	,418**	,409**	1

** . Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level (2-tailed). N=446

Table 4.7. Pearson Correlations for the Components of ALQ, POQ and JSQ.

H2: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency behavior and their promotive self-efficacy feeling of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis was administered to detect whether there is a significant relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency and their promotive self-efficacy component of psychological ownership. The analysis shows that transparency and self-efficacy components have a low-level relationship with each other ($r_s = ,130$ **, $p <$

.01). Analysis suggests that a “significant positive correlation” exists between transparency and self-efficacy components ($p < .01$).

H3: There is a positive relationship between followers’ perception of leader’s moral perspective behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.

Participants’ survey data were exposed to Pearson correlation analysis to determine if there is a significant relationship between moral perspective and belongingness components. Pearson correlation analysis suggests evidence that moral perspective and belongingness components have a moderate relationship ($r_s = .365$, $p < .01$). The findings indicate that there is a significant positive correlation between moral perspective and belongingness components ($p < .01$).

H4: There is a positive relationship between followers’ perception of leader’s transparency behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis was applied to the samples collected from 446 participants to specify the relationship between transparency and belongingness components. The analysis shows that transparency and belongingness components have a moderate level relationship with each other ($r_s = .430$, $p < .01$). Evidence suggests that a “significant positive correlation” exists between transparency and belongingness components ($p < .01$).

H5: There is a positive relationship between followers’ perception of the leader’s transparency behavior and their accountability feeling of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to determine whether there is a significant relationship between followers’ perception of leader’s transparency and the promotive accountability component of psychological ownership. The analysis shows that transparency and accountability components have a low-level relationship with each other ($r_s = .199$, $p < .01$). Findings confirms that a “significant positive correlation” exists between transparency and accountability components ($p < .01$).

H6: There is a positive relationship between followers’ perception of leader’s authentic leadership behavior and their preventive territoriality feeling of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to determine whether there is a significant relationship between followers’ perception of authentic leadership and the preventive territoriality component of psychological ownership. Pearson correlation analysis

demonstrated that authentic leadership and territoriality component have no relationship at all ($r_s = -.003$, Sig. (2-tailed) = ,946).

H7: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's moral perspective behavior and their preventive territoriality component of psychological ownership.

Pearson correlation analysis was administered to determine whether there is a significant relationship between followers' perception of moral perspective and the preventive territoriality component of psychological ownership. Pearson correlation analysis confirmed that moral perspective and territoriality component have no relationship at all ($r_s = .060$, Sig. (2-tailed) = ,204).

H9: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction.

A linear regression analysis was conducted to assess the impact of authentic leadership to predict job satisfaction with the data of 446 participants. Authentic leadership explained 18,3% of the variance in perceived job satisfaction ($R^2 = .183$, $F = 99.5$, $p < .000$). the regression equation ($Y = a + b * X$) for satisfaction was obtained as $JS = 2412 + 0.416 * AL$. The linear regression analysis suggests that the authentic leadership behavior is a significant independent predictor of perceived job satisfaction, showing the following standardized beta coefficients ($\beta = .416$, $t = 9.98$, $p < .000$).

Control Variable	Job Satisfaction			
	β	p	R^2	ΔR^2
Authentic Leadership	.416	.000*	.183	.181
* $p \leq .05$.				

Table 4.8. Linear Regression Analysis of ALQ and JSQ

H10: There is a positive relationship between the followers' psychological ownership level and their job satisfaction.

Survey data of 446 participants were processed with the Pearson correlation analysis to determine whether a positive relationship exists between psychological ownership and job satisfaction. Pearson correlation analysis determined a moderate level correlation ($r_s = .468$, $p < .01$) between POQ and "JSQ". Findings confirms that a "significant positive correlation" exists between psychological ownership and job satisfaction ($p < .01$).

Pearson correlation analysis was conducted to identify the relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction constructs. The analysis implied that the three constructs were moderately related to each other. Authentic leadership and job satisfaction has a moderate relationship ($r_s = .428, p < .01$). Psychological ownership and job satisfaction have a higher correlation ($r_s = .468, p < .01$). Authentic leadership and job satisfaction are in a moderate relationship ($r_s = .428, p < .01$). It can be assumed that as the employees' and managers' perception of authentic leadership increases their psychological ownership and job satisfaction levels will also increase in a moderate level.

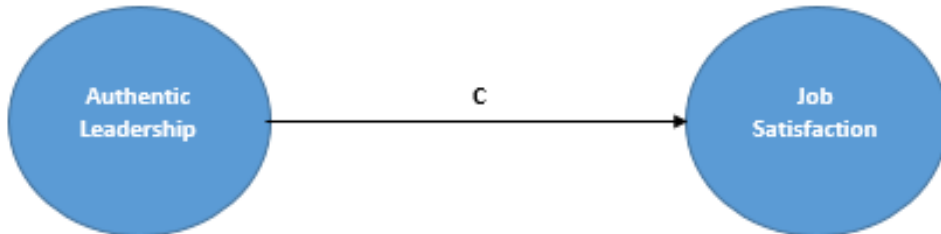
The JSQ and the belongingness component have a high correlation ($r_s = .682, p < .01$). It can be inferred that job satisfaction and belongingness component are in close relationship. Belongingness moderate Transparency components are in moderate relationship ($r_s = .430, p < .01$). If tourism enterprises would like to boost job satisfaction of their employees and managers, they should put an emphasis on belongingness and increase the transparent behavior. As their sense of belongingness increases their job satisfaction level will also increase considerably ($r_s = .615, p < .01$).

H11: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction level with a mediating effect of psychological ownership.

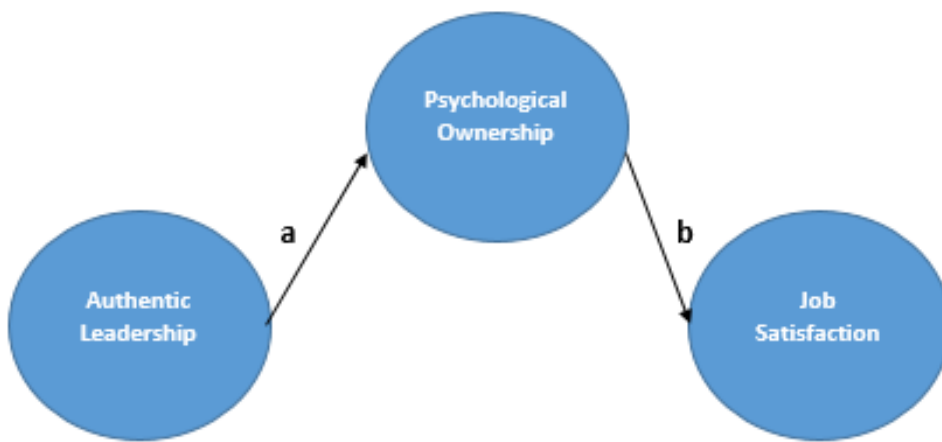
The mediating role of a variable can be tested by different methods in structural equation models. The "mediating role" of the psychological ownership variable in the model can be examined with two different methods. The first method is to compare the regression coefficients of the variables. In this analysis, the mediating role of the variable is tested in three steps. In the first step, regression coefficients a and b those are shown in the second model should be significant. In the second step, the regression coefficient b' in the third model is examined, whether it is significant. In the last step, the "direct relationship" of the "independent variable" in the third model with the result variable should be less significant than the relationship determined in the first model (Baron & Kenny, 1986). In this case, the c regression coefficient shown in figure 4 should be higher than the c' value. When these conditions are met, psychological ownership variable is determined to be the "mediating variable" in the relationship between authentic leadership and job satisfaction variables. The second method is to compare the model-fit. If the third model's "model-fit value" is closer to acceptable fit values than the second one, the model-fit analysis indicates that the effect of authentic leadership on job satisfaction was completely achieved through

authentic leadership variable (Şimşek, 2007: 7). The paths of the installed models are shown in Figure 4.4.

MODEL 1:



MODEL 2:



MODEL 3:

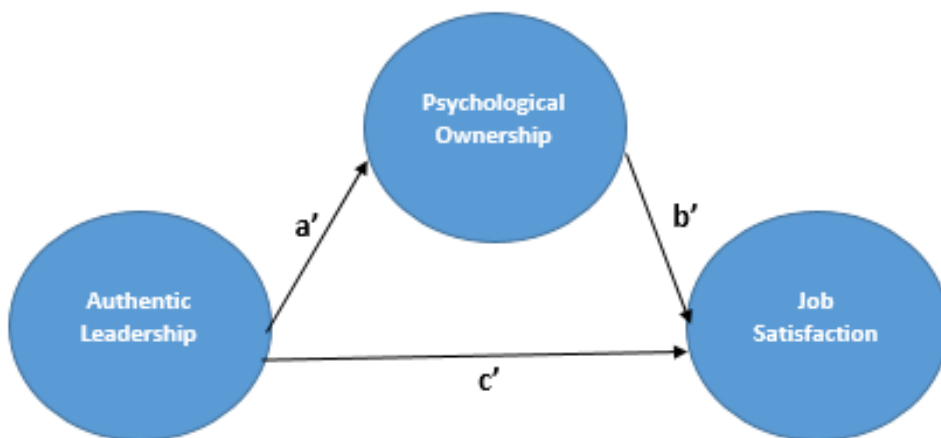


Figure 4.3. Established Mediation Model

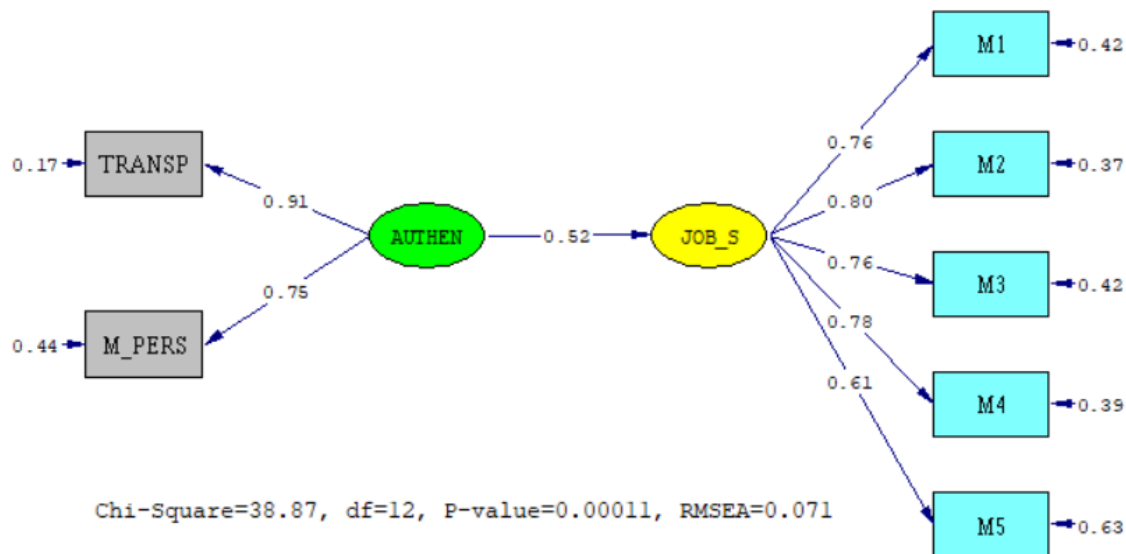


Figure 4.4. Model Results for Testing Authentic Leadership and Job Satisfaction

In the first model shown in figure 4.4., the model consisting of authentic leadership and job satisfaction was tested. As a result, the relationships between authentic leadership and job satisfaction ($t = 8,97, p < ,05$) were found to be “statistically significant”. “Chi-square value” of the model ($X^2 = 38,87; df = 12$), was found to be significant at $0,000011 < 0,01$ level. When the “chi-square value” was compared to the “degree of freedom” ($\chi^2 / df = 3,24$) the ratio was found below “5” indicating to acceptable model-fit value. When the “goodness-of-fit indices” of the structural model are examined, it is seen that $RMSEA = ,071, RMR = ,029, SRMR = ,035, GFI = ,98, “AGFI” = ,94$ and “CFI” = ,99, “NFI” = ,98 and “NNFI” = ,98. These values show that the established “structural model” has a very high “model-fit” values.

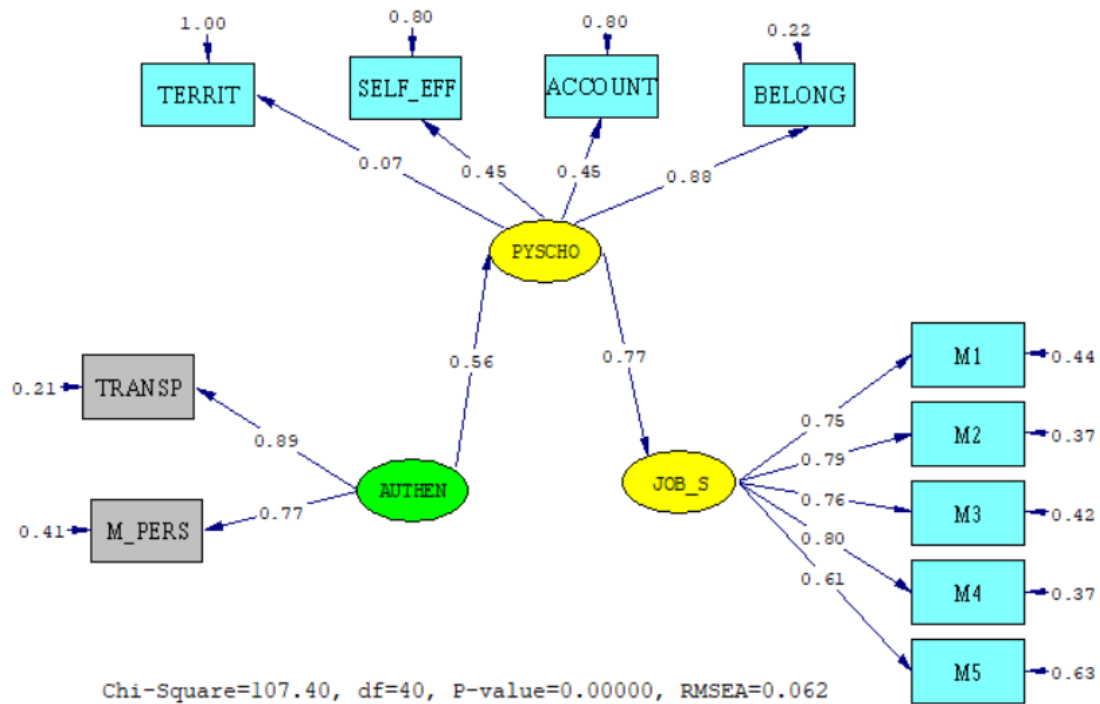


Figure 4.5. Model Results of Authentic Leadership, Job Satisfaction and Psychological Ownership

The second model of variables shown in figure 4.5. consisting of authentic leadership, job satisfaction and psychological ownership was tested. Consequently, ($t = 8,22, p < .05$) values between authentic leadership and psychological ownership, and ($t = 12,34, p < .05$) values between psychological ownership and job satisfaction were found, and the relationships between them were found to be “statistically significant”. “Chi-square value” of the model ($\chi^2 107,40, df = 40$), was found to be “significant at $p = .000$ level”. When the “chi-square value” was compared to the “degree of freedom” ($\chi^2 / df = 2,68$) the ratio was found below “3” indicating to very high model-fit value. When the “goodness-of-fit indices” of the structural model are examined, it is seen that $RMSEA = .062$, $RMR = .035$, $SRMR = .046$, “GFI” = .96, “AGFI” = .93, $CFI = .98$ “NFI”= .97 and $NNFI = .97$. These values show that the established "structural model" is acceptable and has a perfect fit.

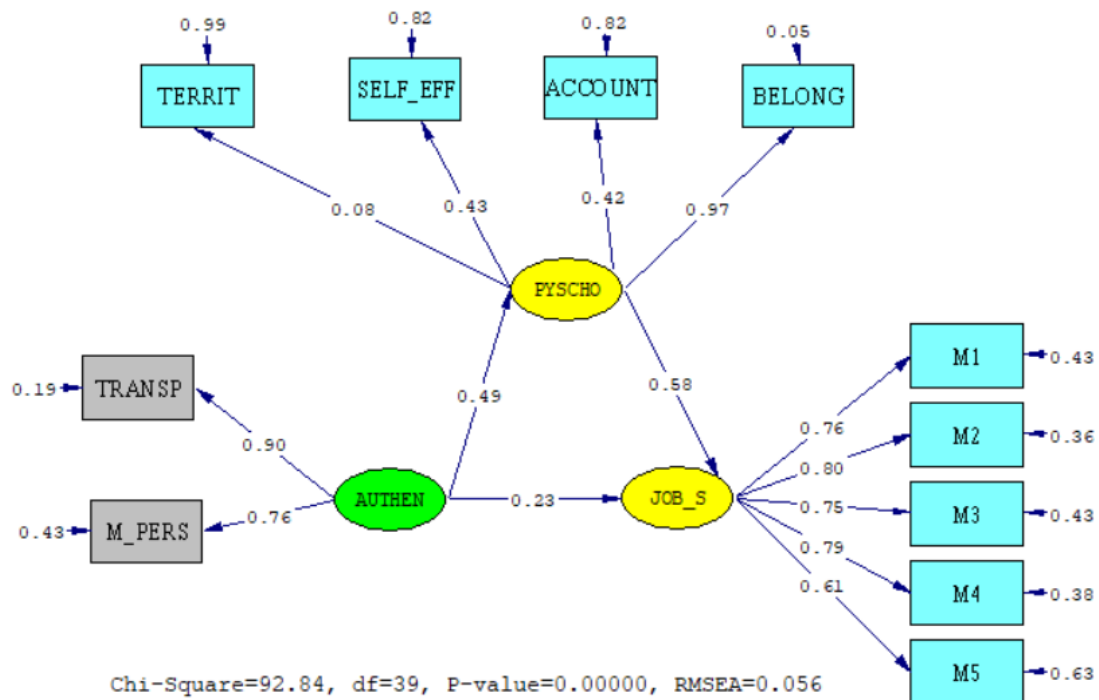


Figure 4.6. Model Results of Psychological Ownerships Mediator Role in the Relationship Between Authentic Leadership and Job Satisfaction

In the third model shown in Figure 4.6., the “mediating role” of psychological ownership variable in the structure between authentic leadership and job satisfaction was tested. The results show that the relationship between authentic leadership and psychological ownership ($t = 6.72, p < .05$), the relationship between psychological ownership and job satisfaction ($t = 6.42, p < .05$), the relationship between authentic leadership and job satisfaction ($t = 4.20, p < .05$) were statistically significant. “Chi-square” value of the model ($\chi^2 = 92,84, df = 39$), was found to be “significant at $p = .000$ level”. When the “chi-square value” was compared to the “degree of freedom” ($\chi^2 / df = 2,38$) the ratio was found below “3” indicating to very high model-fit value. When the “goodness-of-fit indices” of the structural model are examined, it is seen that $RMSEA = .056, RMR = .032, SRMR = .042, GFI = .96, AGFI = .95, CFI = .99, NFI = .99$ and $NNFI = .99$. These values show that the established “structural model” has high “model-fit” values.

Considering the first method to determine whether the psychological ownership variable is the mediating variable, the calculated regression coefficients between authentic leadership and psychological ownership ($\beta = 0,56$), and regression coefficients between psychological

ownership and job satisfaction ($\beta=0,77$) are regarded as statistically significant. Considering the third method, regression coefficients between psychological ownership and job satisfaction ($\beta=0,58$) are still regarded as statistically significant. In the third stage, when the change in the relationship between the “independent variable” and the “result variable” determined for the first model was examined, the regression coefficient observed between the authentic leadership and job satisfaction was $\beta = 0.52$ in the first model and the same regression coefficient decreased to 0.23 in the third model. According to the first method, psychological ownership variable was found to have mediating effect. When the psychological ownership variable is tested according to the second method, it was observed that the “goodness-of-fit value” of the third model was lower than the second model (closer to acceptable fit values and showing excellent fit value). In this case, the relationship between authentic leadership and job satisfaction again shows partial mediating effect of psychological ownership.

4.6. Results of T-test and Anova Tests

H8: There is a significant difference between the followers’ psychological ownership level and their demographic variables such age, sex, marital status, education and seniority.

H8a: There is a significant difference between the followers’ psychological ownership level and their “sex”.

T-Test applied was used to determine if there is significant difference between followers’ psychological ownership level and their “sex”. T-Test discovered no significant difference (Sig. (2-tailed) = ,984). Male and female participants’ psychological ownership level is almost equal and it is above average.

Sex	N	POQ Mean
Male	257	3,9117
Female	189	3,9127

Table 4.9. Male/Female “POQ Mean Table”

H8b: There is a significant difference between the followers’ psychological ownership level and their marital status.

T-Test applied was employed to determine whether there is significant difference followers’ psychological ownership level and their marital status. T-Test determined no significant difference (Sig. (2-tailed) = ,243). Married and Single participants’ psychological

ownership level are above average and married participants' psychological ownership level is slightly higher than the single ones.

Marital Status	N	POQ Mean
Married	226	3,9394
Single	220	3,8841

Table 4.10. Married/Single POQ Mean Table

H8c: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their age.

One-way anova test was administered to discover a significant difference between follower's psychological ownership level and their "age group". One-way anova test suggested no significant difference (Sig.= ,193). Age group of participants' psychological ownership level is above average and their values are close to each other.

Age Group	N	POQ Mean
18-24	32	4,002
25-34	229	3,8851
35-44	119	3,8745
45-54	57	4,0329
55 and above	9	4,0139
Total	446	3,9121

Table 4.11. Age Group's POQ Mean Table

H8d: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their education level.

One-way anova test was conducted to determine a relationship between follower's psychological ownership level and their education level. One-way anova test detected no significant difference (Sig.= ,449). Education level of participants' psychological ownership level is above average and their values are close to each other.

Education Level	N	POQ Mean
High School	46	3,962
Associate Degree	75	3,9717
Bachelor's Degree	270	3,885
Master's Degree	54	3,912
PhD	1	4,5
Total	446	3,9121

Table 4.12. Education Level POQ Mean Table

H8e: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their work experience.

One-way anova test was used to determine a significant difference between follower's psychological ownership level and their work experience. One-way anova test determined no significant difference (Sig.= ,530). The group over ten years' experience has slightly more psychological ownership feelings than the group below ten years' experience.

Work Experience	N	POQ Mean
9 years and below	182	3,8942
10 years above	264	3,9245
Total	446	3,9121

Table 4.13. Work Experience POQ Mean Table

H8f: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their seniority.

One-way anova test was applied to identify a significant difference between follower's psychological ownership level and their seniority. Levene statistic shows that variances were distributed homogeneously (Sig.= ,051) One-way anova test suggests evidence that there is a significant difference between psychological ownership and seniority (F=9,970,

$P = .000 < .05$, Sig. of Levene Statistic = ,051). As the participants climb up the hierarchy, their psychological ownership level significantly increases.

Seniority	N	POQ Mean
Employee	87	3,7845
Lower Level Manager	50	3,8388
Mid-Level Manager	159	3,8408
Senior Manager	150	4,0863
Total	446	3,9121

Table 4.14. Seniority POQ Mean Table

The participants demographic variables of age, sex, marital status, educational level, work experience and seniority were exposed to one-way anova test to determine if there is a significant difference between with authentic leadership and job satisfaction. The analysis determined no significant difference among demographic variables and authentic leadership except age variable. Following additional results were found. One-way anova test analysis suggests that there is a significant difference between age groups and job satisfaction $F=3,252$, $P = .012 < .05$, Sig. of levene statistic = ,251). As the age increases participants job satisfaction level also increases.

Age Group	N	JSQ Mean
18-24	32	3,8625
25-34	229	3,8655
35-44	119	4,0252
45-54	57	4,2351
55 and above	9	4,2
Total	446	3,9619

Table 4.15. Age Group's JSQ Mean Table

One-way anova test also suggests that there is a significant difference between seniority and job satisfaction ($F=18,741$, $P= ,000 < ,05$, Sig. of levene statistic = ,000). As the seniority of participants climbs, their job satisfaction level significantly increases.

Seniority	N	JSQ Mean
Employee	87	3,5931
Lower Level Manager	50	3,8080
Mid-Level Manager	159	3,8981
Senior Manager	150	4,2947
Total	446	3,9619

Table 4.16. Seniority JSQ Mean Table

H1: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their feeling of psychological ownership.	Supported
H2: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency behavior and their promotive self-efficacy feeling of psychological ownership.	Supported
H3: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's moral perspective behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.	Supported
H4: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's transparency behavior and their promotive belongingness feeling of psychological ownership.	Supported
H5: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of the leader's transparency behavior and their accountability feeling of psychological ownership.	Supported
H6: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their preventive territoriality feeling of psychological ownership.	Rejected
H7: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's moral perspective behavior and their preventive territoriality component of psychological ownership.	Rejected
H8a: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their sex.	Rejected
H8b: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and marital status.	Rejected
H8c: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their age.	Rejected
H8d: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their education level.	Rejected
H8e: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their work experience.	Rejected
H8f: There is a significant difference between the followers' psychological ownership level and their seniority.	Supported

H9: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction.	Supported
H10: There is a positive relationship between the followers' psychological ownership level and their job satisfaction.	Supported
H11: There is a positive relationship between followers' perception of leader's authentic leadership behavior and their job satisfaction level with a mediator effect of psychological ownership.	Supported

Table 4.17. Hypotheses Results Table



5. CONCLUSION AND SUGGESTIONS

The study tried to explain relationships among authentic leadership, psychological ownership and job satisfaction as perceived by the followers by using Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa's (2007) Authentic Leadership Questionnaire and Avey and Avolio's (2007) Psychological Ownership Questionnaire, and the Brayfield and Rothe's (1951) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire form. 446 valid samples collected from employees, lower/middle/higher level managers of Turkish hotels located in Adana, Ankara, Antalya, İstanbul, İzmir, Muğla and Nevşehir who voluntarily submitted their views. Majority of the participants' responds indicated that they had a high perception of authentic leadership, job satisfaction and psychological ownership except the territoriality component of the POQ. One can assume from the finding that industry leaders act with transparency, ethics, balance and self-awareness, employees feel self-efficacy, responsibility and belongingness for their workplace and majority of them are satisfied with their jobs. Most of the samples showed insignificant territorial behavior which means they do not have preventive ownership feelings for their work environment. Territorial behavior had no significant relationship with authentic leadership, job satisfaction or psychological ownership, in other words authentic leadership does not cause preventive ownership feelings. Participants who belonged to older age groups or higher positions in the organizational hierarchy enjoyed higher level psychological ownership and job satisfaction. Education level, sex, marital status and work experience had no relationship with authentic leadership, job satisfaction or psychological ownership.

Authentic leadership is a recent phenomenon attracting researchers to explore its depth and this work aims to contribute to the authentic leadership studies. The study is the further expansion of previous research of Alok (2014), Shouse (2017), Ayça (2016) and Ötken (2015) on the issue (Alok, 2014; Ayça, 2016; Ötken, 2015; Shouse, 2017). Alok (2014) tried establish a connection between authentic leadership and psychological ownership. His findings suggest that authentic leadership positively affects organization-based promotive psychological ownership; nevertheless, it has no relationship with preventive side psychological ownership which is called territoriality. His research confirms that psychological ownership was positively connected with authentic leadership especially when the transparency is established. He identified that territoriality has no connection with authentic leadership (Alok, 2014). Our study is congruent with Alok's findings confirming that psychological ownership was positively connected with authentic leadership. Our study

revealed that transparency component has higher relationship values with psychological ownership. We add to his findings that psychological ownership has more to do with job satisfaction especially when the belongingness feelings were amplified. Furthermore, belongingness component has a strong correlation with job satisfaction. Shouse (2017) investigated the “relationship between the perceived transactional and transformational leadership behaviors of upper-level student affairs officers and levels of psychological ownership among entry-level employees working in student services roles in higher education in the United States. His dissertation indicates that transformational leadership style greatly influences followers’ feelings of psychological ownership (Shouse, 2017). Our study confirmed Shouse’s (2017) findings demonstrating a moderate level relationship between authentic leadership and psychological ownership. Ayça (2016) researched the employee perceptions on authentic leadership behaviors and how it related to the employees’ job satisfaction and organizational commitment in five-star hotels of İstanbul. Her dissertation suggests that authentic leadership is positively related to the job satisfaction; however, it partially explains the relationship with the organizational commitment; job satisfaction positively affects the organizational commitment. Our research demonstrated a medium level correlation between authentic leadership and job satisfaction, on the other Ayça’s research showed strong correlation between them. Her research also confirmed that internal job satisfaction and the transparency component of the authentic leadership had the highest correlation among others (Ayça, 2016). Ötken’s (2015) results showed that there is a positive relationship between the perceived organizational support factors and psychological ownership. Her results showed that distributive, interactional and procedural justice has a moderating role on the relationship between work related support and psychological ownership stressing that this relationship is significant only when the organizational justice factors are low in the organization (Ötken, 2015). We conducted a structural equation model test if psychological ownership is a mediator between authentic leadership and job satisfaction. Our equation model indicated the mediating effect of psychological ownership between authentic leadership and job satisfaction.

The need for mass production necessitates larger and more complex organizations. In past century we experienced organizations those always multiplied and physically got larger. As the organizations grew larger, the need for leaders increased. Today leaders are essential for the efficient use of limited resources of the organizations especially human capital. Early leaders were autocratic, nowadays leaders adopted participative leadership styles. When the

leader is authentic it significantly affects job performance and psychological well-being of employees” (Gardner & Schermerhorn, 2004). Although it is common that individuals feel ownership for an organization, a group or an idea, the research psychological ownership is very few (Van Dyne & Pierce, 2004). According to Ötken (2015) one of the fundamental reasons for low research is the perception that psychological ownership stands close organizational commitment and job satisfaction. In this regard for the better understanding of psychological ownership and its antecedents more research is required (Ötken, 2015). Our findings suggest when the leader is authentic, employees feel more psychological ownership despite they do not own anything legally. Psychological ownership feelings cause employees to care for the workplace as much as the legal owners which is one of the outcomes desired by organizations. The organizations who would like to keep their productive employees and should employ authentic leaders this way they can boost the belongingness and commitment of their workforce. This will allow to create a work environment where they will act more positively and responsibly. Because belongingness greatly affects the job satisfaction the employees will feel more job satisfaction, this way organization will keep their key employees and stay competitive. Analysis detected no difference between demographic variables and the psychological ownership levels of the participants except seniority. In higher levels of the organizational hierarchy managers feel more ownership for the organization. The findings suggest that the organizations seeking employees with higher ownership feelings have no gain in prioritizing men over women, young over old, single over married, university graduate over high school graduate or high work experience over low work experience, but they can promote their employees to higher positions in the hierarchy to make them feel more ownership for the organization.

The explanatory quantitative correlational study investigates the impact of authentic leadership and psychological ownership on job satisfaction as perceived by the followers by using Bass and Avolio’s (2007) Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ), Avey’s (2007) Psychological Ownership Questionnaire (POQ), and the Brayfield & Rothe’s (1951) Job Satisfaction Questionnaire form (JSQ). Utilizing a pre-existing database and a quantitative design brings some limitations and assumptions to consider for this study. Drawing conclusions from the data analysis is limited to demonstrating the relationship of the variables, however, the cause of the relationship is uncertain (Gavin, 2008: 46). Another limitation of this study is its reliance on data using questionnaire-based measures; because they are restrictive, they may ignore contextual issues and may be unreliable in terms of

response bias (D. J. Brown & Lord, 1999). Survey data collected relied on participants' self-report. Therefore, measures including the anonymity of data collection were taken to maximize honest self-reporting. The data collected from participants provided diversity in terms of sex, age, marital status, education level and work experience. Most of the participants were aged between 25-44. It can be assumed most the tourism industry professionals are young. 58% of them were male and 42% of them were female. 49% of them are single and 51% of them are married. Majority of the participants held a bachelor's degree one could presume that education level of respondents was high. 82% of the respondents are lower-level, mid-level and senior managers, 18% of them are employees with no executive titles. Non-homogenous distribution of hierarchical position of participants could be seen as a limitation for the study, however the number of samples from employees were suitable for further analysis. 60% of the participants had a work experience of more ten years.

The quantitative study provides important insights for future researchers which must be considered when working on authentic leadership, job satisfaction and psychological ownership. The study was based on the positive aspects of authentic leadership, job satisfaction and psychological ownership. The results might present an opportunity for the comparison of future findings from diverse and larger samples. The study centered around three variables, future researchers might study the effects of authentic leadership in a broad angle with the variables like organizational citizenship behavior, organizational commitment, job performance, organizational climate, trust in the leader, team performance, employee innovation and organizational trust. Future researchers might also use a qualitative or a mixture of qualitative and quantitative research instead of a quantitative one to get a more extensive interpretation of the constructs. Because more empirical findings are needed for authentic leadership future researchers who would like to measure the impacts of authentic leadership on other variables with quantitative data should seek utilizing reliable and validated instruments to gather knowledge and the better understanding of authentic leadership. Unlike other industries hospitality industry has a labor-intensive structure where leadership plays a more important role to use the human capital more productively suggesting that the findings of the study might not be applicable to the other industries. Future researchers should investigate samples of different industries, because the data from different industries might suggest new perspectives.

REFERENCES

- Acock, A. C. (2008). *A Gentle Introduction to Stata, Second Edition*. Texas, USA: Stata Press, 229.
- Adjibolosoo, S. B. S. K. (2001). *Portraits of Human Behavior and Performance: The Human Factor in Action*. University Press of America, 324.
- Alizor, J. O. (2013). *Leadership: Understanding Theory, Style, and Practice: Things You Need to Know About Leading an Organization*. Bloomington, USA: WestBow Press, 83-90.
- Allen, K. E. (2004). Authenticity. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 65-68.
- Alok, K. (2014). Authentic leadership and psychological ownership: investigation of interrelations. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 35(4), 266-285. doi:10.1108/lodj-06-2012-0080
- Avey, J. B., Avolio, B. J., Crossley, C. D., & Luthans, F. (2009). Psychological ownership: theoretical extensions, measurement and relation to work outcomes. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 30(2), 173-191. doi:10.1002/job.583
- Avolio, B. J. (2005). *Leadership Development in Balance: MADE/Born*. Taylor & Francis, 197.
- Avolio, B. J., & Bass, B. M. (2001). *Developing Potential Across a Full Range of Leadership TM: Cases on Transactional and Transformational Leadership*. New Jersey, USA: Taylor & Francis, 3.
- Avolio, B. J., & Gardner, W. L. (2005). Authentic leadership development: Getting to the root of positive forms of leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 315-338. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.001
- Ayça, B. (2016). *Otantik liderlik davranışının iş tatmini ve örgütsel bağlılığa etkisinin incelenmesi ve otel işletmelerinde bir araştırma*. (Phd.), Haliç University, İstanbul.
- Ayman, R., & Hartman, E. L. (2004). Situational and Contingency Approaches to Leadership. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 1429-1436.
- Bagad, V. S. (2008). *Financial & Industrial Management*. Pune, India: Technical Publications, 154.
- Balasubramanian, S. (2007). *The Art of Business Leadership : Indian Experiences*. Los Angeles: Sage Publications Pvt. Ltd, 8-27.
- Baransel, A. (1979). *Çağdaş Yönetim Düşüncesinin Evrimi*. İstanbul: İstanbul University, Faculty of Business Administration, 334.

- Baron, R. M., & Kenny, D. A. (1986). The Moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic, and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6), 1173-1182.
- Bass, B. M. (1985). Leadership: Good, Better, Best. *Organizational Dynamics*, 13(3), 26-40.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1993). Transformational Leadership and Organizational Culture. *SUNY- Binghamton*.
- Bass, B. M., & Avolio, B. J. (1994). Improving Organizational Effectiveness Through Transformational Leadership. In (Vol. 3-6). California, USA: SAGE Publications.
- Bass, B. M., Avolio, B. J., Jung, D. I., & Berson, Y. (2003). Predicting unit performance by assessing transformational and transactional leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 88(2), 207-218. doi:10.1037/0021-9010.88.2.207
- Bass, B. M., & Riggio, R. E. (2006). Transformational Leadership. New Jersey, USA: Taylor & Francis, 5-8.
- Bass, B. M., & Steidlmeier, P. (1999). Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2), 181-217. doi:10.1016/s1048-9843(99)00016-8
- Bass, B. M., & Stogdill, R. M. (1990). Bass & Stogdill's Handbook of Leadership: Theory, Research, and Managerial Applications. Free Press, 19-38.
- Bauer, T. N., & Erdogan, B. (2015). The Oxford Handbook of Leader-member Exchange. New York, USA: Oxford University Press, 3.
- Bedeian, A. G., & Glueck, W. F. (1983). Management. Dryden Press, 498.
- Bernstein, S. D. (2003) *Positive Organizational Scholarship Meet the Movement: An Interview With Kim Cameron, Jane Dutton, and Robert Quinn/Interviewer: S. D. Bernstein*. Journal of Management Inquiry, Sage Publications.
- Bertocci, D. I. (2009). Leadership in Organizations: There is a Difference Between Leaders and Managers. Maryland, USA: University Press of America, 20-58.
- Blake, R. R., & Mouton, J. S. (1967). The Managerial Grid In Three Dimensions. *Training & Development Journal*, 21(1), 2.
- Boal, K. B. (2004). Strategic Leadership. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 1497-1503.
- Bogardus, A. M. (2009). PHR / SPHR Professional in Human Resources Certification Study Guide. Wiley, 38.
- Bolden, R. (2004). *What is Leadership? Leadership South West*. Center for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter, 1-36.

- Bolden, R., Gosling, J., Marturano, A., & Dennison, P. (2003). *A Review of Leadership Theory and Competency Frameworks*. United Kingdom, Center for Leadership Studies, University of Exeter. 44.
- Brayfield, A. H., & Rothe, H. F. (1951). An index of job satisfaction. *Journal of Applied Psychology*.
- Brikend, A. (2011). Job Satisfaction, A Literature Review. *Management Research and Practice*(4), 77.
- Brooks, J. S., & Kensler, L. A. W. (2011). Distributed Leadership and Democratic Community In F. W. English (Ed.), *The SAGE Handbook of Educational Leadership : Advances in Theory, Research, and Practice* (pp. 56). Thousand Oaks, California: SAGE Publications Inc., 56.
- Brown, D. J., & Lord, R. G. (1999). The utility of experimental research in the study of transformational/charismatic leadership. *Leadership Quarterly*, 531-539.
- Brown, G., & Zhu, H. (2016). 'My workspace, not yours': The impact of psychological ownership and territoriality in organizations. *Journal of Environmental Psychology*, 48, 54-64. doi:10.1016/j.jenvp.2016.08.001
- Brown, S. D., & Lent, R. W. (2004). *Career Development and Counseling: Putting Theory and Research to Work*. New Jersey, USA: Wiley, 191-192.
- Butler, J. K. J., & Reese, R. M. (1991). Leadership Style and Sales Performance: A Test of the Situational Leadership® Model. *The Journal of Personal Selling and Sales Management*(3), 37.
- Cawthon, D. L. (1996). Leadership: The Great Man Theory revisited. *Business Horizons*, 39(3), 1.
- Chance, P. L., & Chance, E. W. (2002). Introduction to Educational Leadership & Organizational Behavior: Theory Into Practice. *Eye On Education*, 93.
- Chen, C., & Lee, Y.-T. (2008). Leadership and management in China: Philosophies, theories, and practices, 176).
- Cirstea, C., & Constantinescu, D. (2012). Debating About Situational Leadership. *Management & Marketing Journal*, 10(1), 53-58.
- Ciulla, J. B., Forsyth, D. R., Genovese, M. A., Goethals, G. R., Han, L. C., & Hoyt, C. L. (2008). *Leadership at the Crossroads* [3 volumes]. ABC-CLIO, 29.
- Cook, S. (2008). *The Essential Guide to Employee Engagement: Better Business Performance Through Staff Satisfaction*. Kogan Page, 85.
- Daft, R. L. (2007). *The Leadership Experience*. Ohio, USA: Cengage Learning, 64-68.

- Dierendonck, D. v., & Patterson, K. (2010). *Servant Leadership: Developments in Theory and Research* (Vol. 37). Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan.
- Dinh, J. E., Lord, R. G., Gardner, W. L., Meuser, J. D., Liden, R. C., & Hu, J. (2014). Leadership theory and research in the new millennium: Current theoretical trends and changing perspectives. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 36-62. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.005
- Dionne, S. D., Gupta, A., Sotak, K. L., Shirreffs, K. A., Serban, A., Hao, C., Kim, D. H., Yammarino, F. J. (2014). A 25-year perspective on levels of analysis in leadership research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 25, 6-35. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2013.11.002
- East, J. F. (2018). *Transformational Leadership for the Helping Professions: Engaging Head, Heart, and Soul*. New York, USA: Oxford University Press, 3-20.
- Elearn. (2007). Leadership and management in organisations. In *Management extra*. Oxford, UK: Elsevier, 104.
- Fairholm, M. R., & Fairholm, G. W. (2009). *Understanding Leadership Perspectives: Theoretical and Practical Approaches*. New York, USA: Springer, 9-115.
- Ferraro, J. (2008). The Strategic Project Leader: Mastering Service-Based Project Leadership. In (pp. 7-278): Auerbach Publications Taylor & Francis Group, 7-278.
- Fiore, D. J. (2004). *Introduction to Educational Administration: Standards, Theories, and Practice*. New York, USA: Eye On Education, 29-30.
- Flynn, S. I. (2013). *Transformational and Transactional Leadership*. In: Salem Press.
- Ford, J., Harding, N., & Learmonth, M. (2008). *Leadership as Identity: Constructions and Deconstructions*. Great Britain: Palgrave Macmillan, 100.
- Frazier, D. P. (2005). *Job Satisfaction of International Educators*. (Doctor of Philosophy), University of Louisville, Kentucky USA.
- French, R. (2011). *Organizational Behaviour*. John Wiley & Sons, 452.
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., Luthans, F., May, D. R., & Walumbwa, F. (2005). "Can you see the real me?" A self-based model of authentic leader and follower development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 343-372. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.003
- Gardner, W. L., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2005). Authentic Leadership Theory and Practice : Origins, Effects and Development. In *Monographs in Leadership and Management* (1st Edition.). Amsterdam, Netherlands: JAI Press Inc, 6-33.
- Gardner, W. L., & Carlson, J. D. (2015). Authentic Leadership A2 - Wright, James D. In *International Encyclopedia of the Social & Behavioral Sciences (Second Edition)*. Oxford: Elsevier, 245-250.

- Gardner, W. L., & Schermerhorn, J. R. (2004). Unleashing Individual Potential: Performance Gains Through Positive Organizational Behavior and Authentic Leadership. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(3), 270-281. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.06.004
- Gavin, H. (2008). *Understanding Research Methods and Statistics in Psychology*. London: Sage Publications Ltd, 46.
- George, B., Sims, P., & Gergen, D. (2010). *True North: Discover Your Authentic Leadership*. Wiley, xxxi.
- George, D., & Mallery, P. (2016). *IBM SPSS Statistics 23 Step by Step: A Simple Guide and Reference*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis, 114.
- Giallonardo, L. M., Wong, C. A., & Iwasiw, C. L. (2010). Authentic leadership of preceptors: predictor of new graduate nurses' work engagement and job satisfaction. *Journal of Nursing Management*(8), 993. doi:10.1111/j.1365-2834.2010.01126.x
- Goethals, G. R., Sorenson, G. J., & Burns, J. M. G. (2004). *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 36-1470.
- Goethals, G. R., & Sorenson, G. L. J. (2006). *The Quest for a General Theory of Leadership*. Cheltenham, UK: Edward Elgar Publishing Limited, 250.
- Golembiewski, R. T. (2000). *Handbook of Organizational Behavior, Second Edition, Revised and Expanded*. Taylor & Francis, 46.
- Goodnight, R. (2004). Laissez-Faire Leadership. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 820-823.
- Gronn, P. (2004). Distribution of Leadership. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 351-355.
- Grossman, S., & Valiga, T. M. (2016). *The New Leadership Challenge: Creating the Future of Nursing*. Philadelphia, USA: F.A. Davis Company, 5-6.
- Gruneberg, M. M. (1979). *Understanding job satisfaction*. The Macmillan Press Ltd, 170.
- Hannah, S. T., Avolio, B. J., & Walumbwa, F. O. (2011). Relationships between Authentic Leadership, Moral Courage, and Ethical and Pro-Social Behaviors. *Business Ethics Quarterly*, 21(4), 555-578.
- Harris, A. (2009). *Distributed Leadership: Different Perspectives*. London, UK: Springer Netherlands, 223.
- Heron, P., & Rossiter, N. (2007). *Making a Difference: Leadership and Academic Libraries*. Connecticut, USA: Libraries Unlimited, 22-112.

- Hersey, P., Blanchard, K. H., & Johnson, D. E. (1988). *Management of organizational behavior: utilizing human resources*. (5th Edition): Upper Saddle River, N.J. : Prentice Hall, 1988, 86-169.
- Hodson, R., & Sullivan, T. A. (2012). *The Social Organization of Work*. Belmont, USA: Cengage Learning, 60.
- Hoffman-Miller, P. M. P. A. (2013). Contingency theory. In: Salem Press Encyclopedia.
- Hollander, E. P. (1978). *Leadership dynamics: a practical guide to effective relationships*. Free Press, 1.
- Hollander, E. P. (2009). *Inclusive leadership*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis, 3.
- Hoover, N. R., Petrosko, J. M., & Schulz, R. R. (1991). *Transformational and Transactional Leadership: An Empirical Test of a Theory*. Paper presented at the American Educational Research Association Annual Meeting, Chicago, USA.
- House, R. J., & Aditya, R. N. (1997). The social scientific study of leadership: Quo vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3), 409-473. doi:10.1177/014920639702300306
- Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C., & Curphy, G. J. (2009). Contingency Theories of Leadership. In G. R. Hickman (Ed.), *Leading Organizations: Perspectives for a New Era*. London, United Kingdom: SAGE Publications, 101-121.
- Humphrey, R. H. (2013). *Effective Leadership: Theory, Cases, and Applications*. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 377-421.
- Ilies, R., Morgeson, F. P., & Nahrgang, J. D. (2005). Authentic leadership and eudaemonic well-being: Understanding leader–follower outcomes. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 373-394. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.002
- Ilies, R., Wilson, K. S., & Wagner, D. T. (2009). The spillover of daily job satisfaction onto employees' family lives: The facilitating role of work-family integration. *Academy of Management Journal*, 52(1), 87-102. doi:10.5465/AMJ.2009.36461938
- İspirli, D. (2014). *Knowledge as an object of psychological ownership and knowledge hiding via territoriality among knowledge workers*. (Msc. Master of Science), Celal Bayar University, Manisa.
- Jain, N. K. (2005). *Organisational Behaviour*. New Delhi, India: Atlantic Publishers & Distributors (P) Limited, 344.
- Jex, S. M., & Britt, T. W. (2014). *Organizational Psychology: A Scientist-Practitioner Approach*. New Jersey, USA: Wiley, 388-389.
- Johns, H. E., & Moser, H. R. (1989). From Trait To Transformation: The Evolution of Leadership Theories. *Education*, 110(1), 115.

- Judge, T. A., Parker, S., Colbert, A. E., Heller, D., & Ilies, R. (2001). Job Satisfaction: A Cross-Cultural Review. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. K. Sinangil, & C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *Handbook of Industrial, Work & Organizational Psychology : Volume 2: Organizational Psychology*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd, 25-52.
- Judge, T. A., Thoresen, C. J., Bono, J., & Patton, G. K. (2001). The job satisfaction-job performance relationship: a qualitative and quantitative review. (Vol. 127), 376-407.
- Kahya, C. (2013). Does Cynicism Affect Job Performance? The Mediating Effect of Job Satisfaction. *Global Journal of Economics and Business Studies*(3), 34-46.
- Kark, R., & Van Dijk, D. (2007). Motivation to Lead, Motivation to Follow: The Role of the Self-Regulatory Focus in Leadership Processes. *The Academy of Management Review*, 32(2), 500.
- Kernis, M. H. (2003). Toward a conceptualization of optimal self-esteem. (Vol. 14), 1-26.
- Kılıç, E. (2015). *Authentic Leadership and Organizational Trust*. (Msc.), Erzincan University, Erzincan.
- Klenke, K. (2007). Authentic leadership: A self, leader, and spiritual identity perspective. *International journal of leadership studies*, 3(1), 68-97.
- Korkut, C. C. (2017). *A Meta-Analysis on the Relationship between Job Satisfaction and Job Performance*. (Msc. Master of Science), İstanbul Bilgi University, (475435)
- Kuhnert, K. W., & Lewis, P. (1987). Transactional and Transformational Leadership: A Constructive/Developmental Analysis. *The Academy of Management Review*(4), 648.
- Leadership-central.com. (2017). Leadership Theories. Retrieved from <http://www.leadership-central.com/leadership-theories.html>
- Levine, J. M., & Hogg, M. A. (2009). Encyclopedia of Group Processes and Intergroup Relations. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 635.
- Lu, H., Zhao, Y., & While, A. (2019). Job satisfaction among hospital nurses: A literature review. *International Journal of Nursing Studies*, 94, 21-31. doi:<https://doi.org/10.1016/j.ijnurstu.2019.01.011>
- Lussier, R. (2008). Management Fundamentals: Concepts, Applications, Skill Development. Ohio, USA: Cengage Learning, 182.
- Lussier, R. N., & Achua, C. F. (2010). Leadership: Theory, Application, & Skill Development. Cengage Learning, 16.
- Luthans, F., & Avolio, B. (2003). Authentic leadership development. In K. S. Cameron, J. E. Dutton, & R. E. Quinn (Eds.), *Positive Organizational Scholarship: Foundations of a New Discipline*. Berrett-Koehler Publishers, 241-258.

- Luthans, F., Youssef-Morgan, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2015). *Psychological Capital and Beyond*. Oxford University Press, 125.
- Luthans, F., Youssef, C. M., & Avolio, B. J. (2007). *Psychological Capital: Developing the Human Competitive Edge*. 198 Madison Avenue, New York, New York 10016: Oxford University Press, Inc, 5.
- Lynch, M. (2012). *A Guide to Effective School Leadership Theories*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis, 2-3.
- Mackenzie, S. B., Podsakoff, P. M., & Rich, G. A. (2001). Transformational and Transactional Leadership and Salesperson Performance. *Journal of the Academy of Marketing Science*, 29(2), 115. doi:10.1177/03079459994506
- Markham, S. E. (2012). The evolution of organizations and leadership from the ancient world to modernity: A multilevel approach to organizational science and leadership (OSL). *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(6), 1134-1151. doi:https://doi.org/10.1016/j.leaqua.2012.10.011
- Marquardt, D. J. (2015). *An analysis of the interplay between goal orientation and ethical leadership and the theoretical processes through which ethical leadership influences work outcomes*. (3711296 Ph.D.), The University of Texas at Arlington, Ann Arbor. ProQuest Dissertations & Theses Global database.
- Martin, B., Breunig, M., Wagstaff, M., & Goldenberg, M. (2018). *Outdoor Leadership: Theory and Practice*. Illinois, USA: Human Kinetics, 90.
- Marturano, A., & Gosling, J. (2008). *Leadership: The Key Concepts*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis, 1-170.
- Mastrangelo, A. (2015). *Entrepreneurial Leadership: A Practical Guide to Generating New Business: A Practical Guide to Generating New Business*. California, USA: ABC-CLIO, xiii.
- Matthew, C. T., & Sternberg, R. J. (2004). Intelligence, Verbal. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 729-733.
- McCauley-Bush, P. (2013). *Transforming your stem career through leadership and innovation: inspiration and strategies for women*. Amsterdam ; Boston : Elsevier/Academic Press, c2013, 94-96.
- McKenna, E. F. (2000). *Business Psychology and Organisational Behaviour: A Student's Handbook*. Philadelphia, USA: Psychology Press, 92-94.
- Meuser, J. D., Gardner, W. L., Dinh, J. E., Hu, J., Liden, R. C., & Lord, R. G. (2016). A Network Analysis of Leadership Theory. *Journal of Management*, 42(5), 1374-1403. doi:10.1177/0149206316647099

- Miner, J. B. (2005). *Organizational behavior: I. Essential theories of motivation and leadership*. New York, USA: M.E. Sharpe, Inc, 365.
- Miner, J. B. (2011). *Organizational Behavior 6: Integrated theory development and the role of the unconscious*. New York, USA: M.E. Sharpe, 83.
- Mittal, R. (2015). *Leadership: Personal Effectiveness and Team Building, 2nd Edition*. In. New Delhi, India, 80.
- Morgan, E. (2017). *Breaking the Zero-Sum Game : Transforming Societies Through Inclusive Leadership*. In A. Boitano de Moras, R. I. L. Dutra, & H. E. Schockman (Eds.), *Building Leadership Bridges* (Vol. First edition). Bingley, UK: Emerald Publishing Limited, 13.
- Morrill, R. L. (2010). *Strategic Leadership: Integrating Strategy and Leadership in Colleges and Universities*. Maryland, USA: Rowman & Littlefield Publishers, xi.
- Morse, R. S., Buss, T. F., & Kinghorn, C. M. (2007). *Transforming Public Leadership for the 21st Century*. New York, USA: M. E. Sharpe Incorporated, 158.
- Murphy, S. E. (2013). *Cognitive Resource Theory*. In E. H. Kessler (Ed.), *Encyclopedia of Management Theory*. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 120-121.
- Nahavandi, A. (2009). *The art and science of leadership (5. Edition)*. Upper Saddle River, N.J: Pearson/Prentice Hall, 1-3.
- Neider, L. L., & Schriesheim, C. A. (2011). The Authentic Leadership Inventory (ALI): Development and empirical tests. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(6), 1146-1164. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2011.09.008
- Neil, E. F., David, A. J., & Krista, L. U. (2008). Meta-Analytic Tests of Relationships between Organizational Justice and Citizenship Behavior: Testing Agent-System and Shared-Variance Models. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*(6), 805. doi:10.1002/job.494
- Nielsen, R., Marrone, J. A., & Ferraro, H. S. (2013). *Leading with Humility*. New York, USA: Taylor & Francis, 6.
- Niu, H.-J. (2014). Is innovation behavior congenital? Enhancing job satisfaction as a moderator. *Personnel Review*(2), 288. doi:10.1108/PR-12-2012-0200
- Northouse, P. G. (2012). *Leadership: Theory and Practice*. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 3-208.
- Northouse, P. G. (2015). *Introduction to Leadership: Concepts and Practice (3. Edition)*. California, U. S. A.: SAGE Publications, Inc, 2-3.
- Norton, M. S. (2008). *Human Resources Administration for Educational Leaders*. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 56-57.

- Olckers, C., van Zyl, L., & van der Vaart, L. (2017). *Theoretical Orientations and Practical Applications of Psychological Ownership*. Springer International Publishing, 3.
- Organ, D. W., & Ryan, K. (1995). A Meta-Analytic Review of Attitudinal and Dispositional Predictors of Organizational Citizenship Behavior. *Personnel Psychology*, 48(4), 775-802.
- Oshagbemi, T. (1997). Job satisfaction and dissatisfaction in higher education. *Education + Training*, 39(9), 354-359. doi:10.1108/00400919710192395
- Ötken, A. B. (2015). The Relationship Between Perceived Organizational Support and Psychological Ownership The Role of Organizational Justice. *Hacettepe University Journal of Economics and Administrative Sciences*, 33(2), 133-140.
- Palestini, R. H. (2008). *A Game Plan for Effective Leadership: Lessons from 10 Successful Coaches in Moving from Theory to Practice* Robert Palestini. 4501 Forbes Boulevard, Suite 200, Lanham, Maryland 20706: Rowman & Littlefield Education, 1-232.
- Palestini, R. H. (2009). *From Leadership Theory To Practice: A Game Plan for Success as a Leader*. 4501 Forbes Boulevard, Suite 200, Lanham, Maryland 20706: Rowman & Littlefield Education, 9.
- Pardey, D. (2007). *Introducing Leadership*. Massachusetts, USA: Elsevier Ltd, 21-45.
- Pierce, J. L., & Furo, C. A. (1990). Employee ownership: Implications for management. *Organizational Dynamics*, 18(3), 32-43. doi:10.1016/0090-2616(90)90062-T
- Pierce, J. L., & Jussila, I. (2011). Psychological Ownership and the Organizational Context: Theory, Research Evidence, and Application. Edward Elgar, 15-56.
- Pierce, J. L., Kostova, T., & Dirks, K. T. (2001). Toward a Theory of Psychological Ownership in Organizations. *The Academy of Management Review*, 26(2), 298-310. doi:10.2307/259124
- Pinto, J. K., Thoms, P., Trailer, J., Palmer, T., & Govekar, M. (1998). *Project Leadership from Theory to Practice*. Four Campus Boulevard, Newtown Square, Pennsylvania 19073-3299 USA: Project Management Institute, 14.
- Porter, K., Smith, P., Fagg, R., & Winfield, P. W. (2006). *Leadership and management for HR professionals. [electronic resource]*: Oxford : Butterworth-Heinemann, 2006. [3rd ed.] / Keith Porter, Paul Smith and Roger Fagg, 577.
- Punnett, B. J., & Shenkar, O. (2004). *Handbook for International Management Research*. Michigan, USA: University of Michigan Press, 289.
- Quick, J. C., & Quick, J. D. (2004). Healthy, Happy, Productive Work. *Organizational Dynamics*, 33(4), 329-337. doi:10.1016/j.orgdyn.2004.09.001

- Quintana, T. A., Park, S., Cabrera, Y. A., & (2013). Assessing the Effects of Leadership Styles on Employees' Outcomes in International Luxury Hotels. *Journal of Business Ethics*. doi:10.1007/s10551-014-2170-3
- Ragins, B. R., & Kram, K. E. (2007). *The Handbook of Mentoring at Work: Theory, Research, and Practice*. California, USA: SAGE Publications, 152.
- Renko, M., El Tarabishy, A., Carsrud, A. L., & Brännback, M. (2015). Understanding and Measuring Entrepreneurial Leadership Style. *Journal of Small Business Management*, 53(1), 54-74. doi:10.1111/jsbm.12086
- Riggio, R. E., Orr, S. S., & Shakely, J. (2004). *Improving Leadership in Nonprofit Organizations*. Wiley, 50.
- Robbins, S. P. (2009). *Organisational behaviour in Southern Africa*, 2nd edition. Pearson Education South Africa, 301.
- Rost, J. C. (1991). *Leadership for the twenty-first century*. Connecticut, USA: Praeger, 24-165.
- Rudani, R. B. (2013). *Principles of Management*. New Delhi, India: McGraw Hill Education (India), 555-558.
- Russell, G. W. (2012). *The Social Psychology of Sport*. In (pp. 106-107). New York, USA: Springer, 106-107.
- Saiyadain, M. S. (2003). *Organisational Behaviour*. In (pp. 56-60): McGraw-Hill Education (India) Pvt Limited, 56-60.
- Salcedo, J. F. (2016). *Authentic Leadership: A Quantitative Study of the Effect of Authentic Leadership on Group Cohesion and Work Engagement in Student Organizations in Mexico*. (Doctor of Philosophy), Regent University, (10181520)
- Schermerhorn, J. R. (2010). *Management*. John Wiley & Sons, 321.
- Schyns, B., & Meindl, J. R. (2005). *Implicit Leadership Theories: Essays and Explorations*. Connecticut, USA: Information Age Publishing, Incorporated, 103-104.
- Shamir, B., & Eilam, G. (2005). "What's your story?" A life-stories approach to authentic leadership development. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16, 395-417. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.005
- Shouse, R. L. (2017). *Examining the Influence of Perceptions of a Supervisor's Leadership Style on Levels of Psychological Ownership Among Entry Level Professionals*. (10592373 Ph.D.), Bowling Green State University, Ann Arbor.
- Silverthorne, C. P. (2005). *Organizational Psychology in Cross Cultural Perspective*. NYU Press, 61.

- Simo, P., Enache, M., Sallan, J., & Fernandez, V. (2010). Analysis of the relation between subjective career success, organizational commitment and the intention to leave the organization. *Transylvanian Review of Administrative Sciences*(29E), 144-158.
- Sparrowe, R. T. (2005). Authentic leadership and the narrative self. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 16(3), 419-439. doi:10.1016/j.leaqua.2005.03.004
- Spears, U. (2012). Coaching Leadership Families: Using the Leadership Family Model to Coach, Mentor and Multiply Healthy Families. USA: Xlibris US, 17.
- Spector, P. E. (1997). Job satisfaction : application, assessment, cause, and consequences. In *Advanced topics in organizational behavior*. Thousand Oaks, California, USA: Sage Publications, 2.
- Stangor, C. (2004). Social Groups in Action and Interaction. New York, USA: Psychology Press, 179.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1950). Leadership, Membership and Organization, 3.
- Stogdill, R. M. (1974). Handbook of Leadership: A Survey of Theory and Research. Free Press, 7.
- Storey, J. (2004). Leadership in Organizations: Current Issues and Key Trends. Routledge Taylor & Francis Group, 2-3.
- Şimşek, Ö. F. (2007). Introduction to Structural Equation Modelling: basic principles and LISREL "(Yapısal eşitlik modellemesine giriş: temel ilkeler ve LISREL uygulamaları)". Ankara, Turkey: Ekinoks, 7.
- Tabak, A., Polat, M., Coşar, S., & Türköz, T. (2012). Otantik Liderlik Ölçeği: Güvenirlilik ve Geçerlik Çalışması. *ISGUC, The Journal of Industrial Relations and Human Resources*, 14(4), 89-106. doi:10.4026/1303-2860.2012.0212.x
- Thompson, J. L., & Martin, F. (2005). Strategic Management: Awareness and Change. London, UK: Thomson Learning, 444-446.
- Timothy A, J., Ronald F, P., & Remus, I. (2004). The Forgotten Ones?: The Validity of Consideration and Initiating Structure in Leadership Research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*(1), 36.
- Topping, P. A. (2002). Managerial Leadership. New York, USA: McGraw Hill, 99.
- Tsoukas, H., & Knudsen, C. (2005). The Oxford Handbook of Organization Theory. Wiltshire, UK: Oxford University Press, 350.
- Van Dyne, L., & Pierce, J. L. (2004). Psychological ownership and feelings of possession: three field studies predicting employee attitudes and organizational citizenship behavior. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(4), 439-459. doi:10.1002/job.249
- Van Wart, M. (2008). Leadership in Public Organizations. M.E. Sharpe, 80-81.

- Vroom, V. H. (2004). Decision Making: The Vroom-Yetton-Jago Models. In G. R. Goethals, G. J. Sorenson, & J. M. G. Burns (Eds.), *Encyclopedia of leadership*. California, USA: Sage Publications, 322-325.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Avolio, B. J., Gardner, W. L., Wernsing, T. S., & Peterson, S. J. (2008). Authentic leadership: development and validation of a theory-based measure, 89-126.
- Walumbwa, F. O., Wang, P., Wang, H., Schaubroeck, J., & Avolio, B. J. (2010). Psychological processes linking authentic leadership to follower behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(5), 901-914.
- Winkler, I. (2010). Contemporary Leadership Theories: Enhancing the Understanding of the Complexity, Subjectivity and Dynamic of Leadership. Berlin: Physica-Verlag, 1-107.
- Wisse, B., & Tjosvold, D. (2009). Power and Interdependence in Organizations. In *Cambridge Companions to Management*. Cambridge, UK: Cambridge University Press, 12-33.
- Wortley, R. (2011). Psychological Criminology: An Integrative Approach. Taylor & Francis, 197.
- Youssef, C. M., & Luthans, F. (2005). Positivity in the Middle East: Developing Hope in Egyptian organizational Leaders. In *Advances in Global Leadership* (Vol. 4): Emerald Group Publishing Limited, 277-291.
- Zhang, Q., Ahmad, S., & Cao, M. (2018, 21-22 July 2018). *Impact of Emotional Intelligence and Justice on Job Satisfaction*. Paper presented at the 2018 15th International Conference on Service Systems and Service Management (ICSSSM).





APPENDIX

APPENDIX 1. Questionnaire Forms

Ahmet Gungor



To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for Ahmet Gungor to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: ***Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ)***

Authors: ***Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa***

Copyright: ***2007 by Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, and Fred O. Walumbwa***

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

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

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "Bruce J. Avolio".

Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com



To whom it may concern,

This letter is to grant permission for Ahmet Gungor to use the following copyright material for his/her research:

Instrument: **Psychological Ownership Questionnaire**

Authors: **James B. Avey and Bruce J. Avolio**

Copyright: **2007 by James B. Avey and Bruce J. Avolio**

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

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

Sincerely,

A handwritten signature in black ink, appearing to read "James B. Avey".

Mind Garden, Inc.
www.mindgarden.com

Otantik Liderlik ve Psikolojik Sahiplenmenin İş Tatmini Üzerine Etkileri

Değerli Katılımcı,

Anketimize katıldığınız için teşekkür ederiz. Geri bildiriminiz bizim için çok önemli. Bu araştırmanın sonuçları gizli tutulacak ve sadece bilimsel araştırmalar için kullanılacaktır.

* Gerekli |

1. **Cinsiyetiniz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 Erkek Kadın
2. **Yaş Grubunuz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 18-24
 25-34
 35-44
 45-54
 55 ve üzeri
3. **Medeni Durumunuz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 Evli
 Bekar
4. **Öğrenim Durumunuz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 Lise Mezunu
 Önlisans Mezunu
 Lisans Mezunu
 Yüksek Lisans Mezunu
 Doktora Mezunu
5. **İş Tecrübesiniz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 9 yıl ve altı
 10 yıl ve üstü
6. **Kurumunuzun Adı**
7. **Çalıştığımız Departman**
8. **Kurumunuzdaki konumunuz** *Yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.
 İşgören
 Alt Kademe Yönetici
 Orta Kademe Yönetici
 Üst Kademe Yönetici

1. Aşağıdaki maddeler işinizden duyduğunuz memnuniyeti ölçmeyi hedeflemektedir. “Hiç Katılmıyorum”dan “Tamamen Katılıyorum”a kadar derecelendirilmiş seçeneklerden birini işaretleyiniz. *Her satırda yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Şimdilik işimin beni tatmin ettiğini söyleyebilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Mutluluğu işimdeyken buluyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Yaptığım işi gerçekten eğlenceli bulurum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. İşimi severek yapıyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. İşimi tatsız buluyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

1. Aşağıdaki maddeler yöneticinizin liderlik tarzını sizin algıladığınız şekilde belirlemektedir. Soruları bağlı bulunduğunuz en yakın yöneticinizi düşünerek “Hiç Katılmıyorum”dan “Tamamen Katılıyorum”a kadar derecelendirilmiş seçeneklerden birini işaretleyiniz. *Her satırda yalnızca bir şıkkı işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Yöneticim söylemek istediklerini açıkça ifade eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Yöneticim eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Yöneticim eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Yöneticim söyler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Yöneticim verir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Yöneticimin doğrultudadır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Yöneticim alır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Yöneticim kendi öz değerlerime uygun davranmamı ister.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Yöneticim kalır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Yöneticim eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Yöneticim araştırır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Yöneticim dinler.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Yöneticim diğerleriyle etkileşimini daha iyi bir konuma taşıyabilmek için geribildirim almaya çalışır.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Yöneticim eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Yöneticim bilir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Yöneticim eder.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Telif hakları 2007 Bruce J. Avolio, William L. Gardner, & Fred O. Walumbwa'ya aittir. Bütün hakları saklıdır.

Mind Garden Inc. www.mindgarden.com tarafından yayınlanmıştır.

1. Aşağıdaki ifadeler şu anda kendiniz hakkında ne düşündüğünüzü açıklamaktadır. Hiç katılmıyorumdan tamamen katılıyuma kadar derecelendirilmiş seçeneklerden birini işaretleyiniz. *

Her satırda yalnızca bir şıkki işaretleyiniz.

	Hiç Katılmıyorum	Katılmıyorum	Kararsızım	Katılıyorum	Tamamen Katılıyorum
1. Aynı kurumda birlikte çalıştığım insanların benim fikirlerimi kullanmasını önlemem gerektiğini düşünürüm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
2. Aynı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
3. Aynı	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
4. Aynıduyarım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
5. Çalıştığım kurumun başarısına katkıda bulunacak kabiliyetteyim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
6. Çalıştığım yaratabilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
7. Çalıştığım belirleyebilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
8. Çalıştığım kurumda herhangi bir şeyin yanlış yapıldığını düşünürsem herkese karşı çıkabilirim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
9. Çalıştığım çekinmem.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
10. Çalıştığım sorgularım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
11. Kendimi çalıştığım kurumun bir parçası gibi hissederim.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
12. Burası gibidir.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
13. Bu duyuyorum.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
14. Bu kurumun başarısını kişisel başarım gibi görürüm.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
15. Bu olur.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>
16. Kurumum duyarım.	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>	<input type="radio"/>

Telif hakları 2007 James B. Avey ve Bruce J. Avolio'ya aittir. Bütün hakları saklıdır.

Mind Garden Inc. www.mindgarden.com tarafından yayınlanmıştır.

RESUME

Kişisel Bilgiler

Soyadı, adı : GÜNGÖR, Ahmet
Uyruğu : Türk
Doğum tarihi ve yeri : 1976, Adana
Medeni hali : Bekar
Telefon : 0505 332 43 24
Faks : 0322 338 74 92
e-mail : gungora@cu.edu.tr

Eğitim

Derece	Eğitim Birimi	Mezuniyet tarihi
Yüksek lisans	Hacı Bayram Veli Üniversitesi	Devam ediyor
Lisans	Mersin Üniversitesi	2000
Lise	Çobanoğlu Ticaret Meslek Lisesi	1993

İş Deneyimi

Yıl	Yer	Görev
2010 - Halen	Çukurova Üniversitesi	Memur
2007-2010	Ege Üniversitesi	Memur
2004-2007	Hotel Grand Kaptan-Alanya	Resepsiyonist
2004	100. Yıl İlköğretim Okulu-Ceyhan/Adana	İngilizce Öğretmeni
2003	Resort Dedeman Antalya	Resepsiyonist
2002	Hotel Turquoise, Side	Resepsiyonist
2000	Magic Life Hotels Club Seven Seas, Side	Resepsiyonist

Yabancı Dil

İngilizce, Almanca, Rusça



