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Chair of Organizational Design

Can Leadership preference impact on employee motivation?

An experimental study

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Chapter I

Introduction

This first chapter has the goal to provide a broad understanding of all the main leadership theories present in the literature.

It is possible to regroup most theories in four main categories, trait leadership theory, behavioural theory, situational theory and the "new leadership theories".

Hence, in the next pages we will talk about trait leadership theory, specifically the history of the research and then a focus on trait and personality from the psychology point of view citing the Big Five theory (Goldberg LR, 1993). and HEXACO personality model (Ashton and Lee, 2008). Behavioural theory citing the work of Lewin et al. (1939) and the managerial grid model of Robert Blake and Jane Mouton (1964), situational theory with the Contingency model of Fiedler (1965), the Vroom-Yetton decision model (1973), and the Path-goal theory of House (1971) and finally the "new leadership theories" specifically the transformational and transactional leadership theory with the works of Burns (1978) and Bass (1990)

What is leadership?

The concept of leadership is very broad, and it has evolved in time but to have a general idea we can start saying that leadership is the ability of an individual or a group of individuals to influence or to lead followers or other members of an organization (Hollander, 1978).

Actually, there are several different definitions of leadership and multiple leadership theories exists, however scholars ask questions about leadership since Plato's time.

Moreover, it is possible to make the distinction between leadership and authority, as the two terms aim at indicating two separate concepts. On the one hand, authority indicates something structural, and external force that empower managers over their subordinates, on the other hand, leadership is not empowered by the hierarchy but rather by the leaders' ability to gain the consensus from their subordinates (Macciocca e Massimo, 1993).

Overview of the main theories in leadership

Trait leadership

Trait leadership theory links leader effectiveness to a set of personal characteristics and individual differences (Zaccaro, 2007). Leader effectiveness indicates the amount of influence a leader can have

on their followers (de Vries, 2012). Early research on trait leadership was looking for hereditable characteristic that can differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Leaders are individuals that possess certain immutable traits that cannot be developed (Galton, 1869). Later on, this approach has been harshly criticized but scholars are still looking for links between leaders' effectiveness and personality traits, and it has also been demonstrated that some personality traits can contribute to create a successful leader (Derue et al., 2011).

History of research

In the 19-theen century Thomas Carlyle, Scottish philosopher and essayist, wrote "*On Heroes, Hero-Worship, and The Heroic in History*" (1841) becoming the main creator of the great man theory.

In his book he stated:

"*Universal History, the history of what man has accomplished in this world, is at bottom the History of the Great Men who have worked here. They were the leaders of men, these great ones; the modellers, patterns, and in a wide sense creators, of whatsoever the general mass of men contrived to do or to attain; all things that we see standing accomplished in the world are properly the outer material result, the practical realization and embodiment, of Thoughts that dwelt in the Great Men sent into the world: the soul of the whole world's history, it may justly be considered, were the history of these."*

According to this theory, history is the sum of all the actions of great men. Actually, it is more a historical development theory then a leadership theory, but it lay the foundation for successive works.

Great men are unique beings who - thanks to their intellect, courage and natural inborn skills - can influence people, shape reality and change the course of history.

The great man theory influenced Francis Galton in his "*Hereditary Genius"* (1869). He expanded the idea, firstly concluding that extraordinary leadership can shape history and then continued stating that only extraordinary people are leaders and leadership traits are immutable so they cannot be developed.

For this reason, Galton is considered as one of the fathers of the trait theory, a theory that has been the focus of most of the studies about leadership throughout the early twentieth century. As example we can remember Cowley (1931) who stated that the study of traits should always be considered in research about leadership. Until 1940s-1950s the trait theory was the most common and widely accepted theory of leadership; however, in this period, Stogdill asserted that a person that can lead people in a specific situation may not be able to lead people in other situations (Stogdill, 1948). This statement was a serious blow for the trait theory, moreover also other studies suggested that type and

characteristics of a situation have an influence on traits' effect on leadership (Huges, Ginnett, & Curphy, 1996; Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992). Thus, a new trend emerged, behavioural and situational analysis started to dominate the leadership research field (Bass, 1990). Different theories tried to substitute the trait theory, for example, it is possible to mention the contingency model (Fiedler, 1967), the managerial grid (Blake and Mouton, 1964), the situational leadership model (Hersey and Blanchard, 1969), and the transformational and transactional leadership models (Avolio, Sosik, Jung, & Berson, 2003; Bass, 1985; Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Moorman, & Fetter, 1990).

Regardless of all the critics, in recent times research based on empirical studies and supporting trait leadership, has begun to appear (Judge et al., 2002; Judge, Colbert, & Ilies, 2004). So, the old trend remerged and now some new studies have managed to identify and link several personality traits to leader effectiveness.

Trait theory

To have a clearer understanding of the leadership traits theory, it is important to start from the foundation and talking about the general trait theory in psychology.

Trait theory, also known as dispositional theory, aims to study human personality. Scholars define the word "trait" as thoughts, emotions, and habitual patterns of behaviour (Saul Kassin, 2003). So is possible to say that traits are facets of personality that are stable in time and can influence the actions of a person. Over time several different traits have been analysed and a difference has emerged between states and traits. States are considered as more transitory disposition then traits.

One famous approach is the Big Five personality traits approach, the so called five-factor model (Rothmann S, Coetzer EP, 2003).

Big Five personality traits

This theory has been developed from the 1980s, it tries to create a grouping or taxonomy for personality traits. It is based on the lexical hypothesis, that states through two postulates that all those personality traits relevant to a certain group of people will eventually enter their language, and the most important traits are likely to be represented by a single word. (John, O. P.; Angleitner, A.; Ostendorf, F. ,1988)

So, scholars looked for semantic association in personality survey data through factor analysis, a statistical technique. Thanks to this analysis they discovered that many words were used to indicate same personality, so they suggested to use five broad dimensions that should describe human personality (Goldberg LR, 1993).

As shown in figure 1, the five dimensions are:

- Openness to experience
- Conscientiousness
- Extraversion
- Agreeableness
- Neuroticism

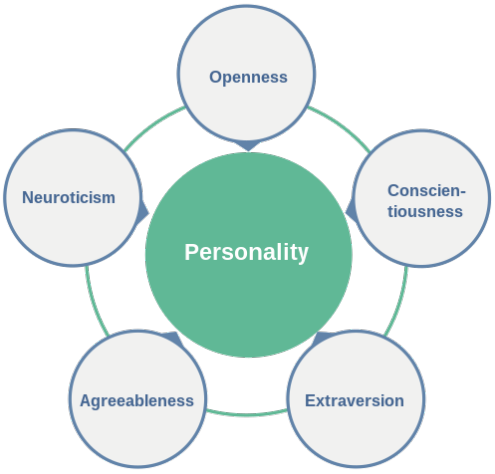

Figure 1. *Big five personality dimensions. Source: https://en.m.wikipedia.org/*

Openness to experience: People who are open like to try out new things, are open to novelties, they can try to break the routine, they are intellectually curious people, who appreciate adventure, art, emotion, and unusual ideas. Compared to closed people are considered more creative and more aware of their feelings, moreover they are more prone to follow unconventional belief. On the other hand, people with low openness purse fulfilment through perseverance and are considered practical and data-driven people, while open people pursue intense and euphoric experience and can be perceived as unpredictable and lacking in focus.

Conscientiousness: People with high conscientiousness show self-discipline, have a high motivation, are dutiful and aim for great achievement outside expectations. They are often considered as obstinate and focused. Conversely people with low conscientiousness are regarded as flexible and spontaneous but also sloppy and unreliable. Finally, is possible to say that conscientious people prefer a planned action than a spontaneous one (Costa PT, McCrae RR, 1992).

Extraversion: Extrovert people engage with the external world more frequently, they enjoy interacting with people, tend to be cheerful, enthusiastic and are perceived as full of energy, in a group they like to talk with everyone, are dominant, stand-out between other people. On the other hand, introverts do not enjoy interacting with others, they are less involved with the external world, less sociable, quieter. Someone could consider them as shy or depressed instead they really enjoy their time alone and need less stimulation from the social world.

Agreeableness: Agreeable people have a different sensibility about social interaction, they always try to get along with others, generally are helpful, empathic, generous, trusting, and nice, they can also compromise their own interest for others. Disagreeable people are the opposite never acting nice

with others, not even concerned with others well-being or feelings, always putting first their self-interest, untrustworthy. Being agreeableness a social skill it will also prompt the quality of relationship between team members.

Neuroticism: Neuroticism is linked with emotional stability. Everyone has got a threshold of stress that can accept, any more stress any more problem above that threshold and that person start to experience negative feelings such as anger, depression, or anxiety. In individuals with high neuroticism this threshold is very low, and this means that any problem any stress can generate negative emotions and generally these emotions last longer in person with high neuroticism. Hence, it can be seen as measure of how a person can tolerate stress. Neurotic people are often in a bad mood and this can diminish the ability to think clearly and make decision. On the other hand, who score low in neuroticism are more emotionally stable, tend to be calm and are less easily upset.

Work success

The big five traits can be use as predictors of future work performances (Morgeson FP, Campion MA, Dipboye RL, Hollenbeck JR, Murphy K, Schmitt N, 2007).

Some companies and interviewers can use Big Five personality traits in order to assess applicant. In this case best applicant who are considered future leaders score low score in neuroticism (to better manage stress) high in openness (to envision success), average in conscientiousness and extraversion (to be well-organized and outgoing but not excessive) (Judge TA, Bono JE, Ilies R, Gerhardt MW; 2002).

Looking to job performance Conscientiousness is the best in global job performance (Sackett PR, Walmsley PT, 2014). Moreover, Derue and colleagues (2011) found that the best predictors for success in leadership positions are Conscientiousness, Extraversion, and Agreeableness, people with high score in these three traits are the most suitable for the job.

Evidence for six factors rather than five

Recent research suggests through more comprehensive and cross-language studies the existence of a sixth factor. So according to this research the Big Five model should be replaced by a new model that has already been developed, it is called the HEXACO model of personality structure. (Ashton MC, Lee K, de Vries RE; May 2014).

HEXACO model of personality structure

The main difference between the HEXACO model and the Big Five model is the presence of the sixth factor that is completely new, the model was created by Ashton and Lee (2008) and explained in their book, The H Factor of Personality. The factor that was discovered for the first time is called Honesty-Humility (H), the others are Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O).

HEXACO is based on the same lexical hypothesis of the Big Five model, so it is a language-based taxonomy for personality traits. Here the factor analysis was applied to multiple language and in this way the sixth factor was discovered, later studies completed to the help of computers found the missing factor also in the English language. Cleary the factors of Extraversion, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience come from the Big Five model, while Agreeableness and Emotionality, are similar to Agreeableness and Neuroticism of the Big Five but with some slight differences in the content of the factors.

Honest-Humility instead is the new factor it has got four facets: Sincerity, Fairness, Greed Avoidance, Modesty and can be very useful to evaluate traits like narcissism or manipulativeness. This factor can indicate the propensity pro-social altruistic behaviour (Thalmayer, A. G.; Saucier, G.; Eigenhuis, A. 2011). On the other hand, low score of the factor H can indicate greater level of materialism or even unethical business practices (Lee, K.; Ashton, M. C.; Morrison, D. L.; Cordery, D.; Dunlop, P. D.; 2008)

Trait leadership

Going back to trait leadership theory, we have to specify which traits can become useful to become a leader; Zaccaro (2007) argued that the research on leadership traits is not exhaustive but in recent years some reviews of all the studied traits has been made. A recent trait categorization is distal vs proximal.

In distal category there are all those traits that have the tendency to be fix over time, they are stable characteristics. The proximal category instead comprehends all those characteristics thar are malleable over time and we can call them state-like (Hoffman et al., 2011). Hoffman linked distal traits like self-confidence, energy, creativity, charisma, and motivation to leader effectiveness, moreover he linked also proximal traits like social skills, management skills, oral and written communication skills problem solving skills, and decision making to leader effectiveness. Most of the proximal traits are skills that can be developed so at least to a certain extent, leaders are made and not just born.

Criticisms of trait leadership

Traits leadership is one of the most criticised theory. Morgeson & Ilies (2007) argued that organizations cannot use personality to predict job performance, Derue and colleagues (2011) found that personality traits are worse than behaviours in predicting leader effectiveness, Ng et al. (2008) criticize that leadership traits do not take into account the situational context and we cannot forget that Stogdill (1948) stated that who is leader in one specific situation may be not in other situations.

Behavioural

Research on behavioural leadership theory started after the early critiques to traits theory. Scholars begun to observe the behaviours of leaders, trying to create a taxonomy of leadership behaviour, and defining broad leadership styles Spillane (2004).

As example, in 1939 were observed the performance of groups of eleven years old boys under different types of work climate, in each group the leader showing different behaviours influenced accordingly different dynamics of the group. Different leadership styles can influence group decision making, the feedback of the group members, praise, and criticism, as well as the management of group task, three main leadership style were identified: authoritarian, democratic and laissez-faire (Lewin et al.,1939).

Leadership style

Leadership style indicates a set of behaviours that the leader of a group uses to provide direction, to implement plans, and to motivate its subordinates, it is a personal way to lead people. As we said Lewin observed three different styles:

Authoritarian: It creates a centric structure where the leader is responsible for all the decision-making, as in a dictatorship. So, subordinates are not free to share their opinion, suggestions, let alone act on personal initiative. It is faster than the democratic decision-making process, as just one person decides everything, and it usually provides strong motivation for the manager.

Democratic: It creates a flat decision-making structure where all the members all the group can share their ideas, and all together finally can reach a decision. It is also known as shared leadership.

Laissez-faire: Laissez-faire in French it literally means let them do, in fact the decision-making process is completely passed on the members of the group and the leader do not interfere in the final decision. Moreover, members have the freedom to set goal and solve independently problems.

Positive reinforcement

Positive reinforcement is a simple technique for behaviour modification, that is a treatment that try to substitute undesirable behaviours with good ones, trying for example to increase the productivity of an employee. B.F. Skinner in his "*The Behavior of Organisms"* (1938) created the concept of positive reinforcement and is regarded as the father of behaviour modifications. He stated that when a specific behaviour is rewarded with positive stimulus it increases the probability of that behaviour in the future. This technique can be used to increase the productivity of an employee. As an example, we can hypothesize that a manager has a problem with an employee who arrive usually late, the manager can praise the employee every time that he shows up on time. This behaviour would increase the likelihood that the employee arrives on time (Miltenberger, R. G., 2004).

Managerial grid model

Robert Blake and Jane Mouton in 1964 developed the Managerial grid model based on the behavioural theory, in this model they defined five different leadership styles according to the interest of the manager towards company productivity and concern for people.

This grid is constructed by drawing Cartesian axes and indicating:

- on the vertical axis we can find the concern for people
- on the horizontal axis there is the company productivity

The researchers assigned a nine stage Likert scale for both the dimension, where the score one represents that the variable is of low interest for the manager and nine represents the highest interest of the manager for the specific dimension.

So, we can distinguish five main leadership styles (Figure 2):

- **The impoverish score (1,1)**: The manager shows lack of interest towards company productivity and concern for people. In this way the manager can avoid the responsibility for any action, he just does the bare minimum to remain in the company.

- **The county club score (1,9)**: The manager shows lack of interest towards company productivity, and he/she shows a high interest towards concern for people. Thus, he/she puts at the first place the people creating a friendly and satisfactory working environment.

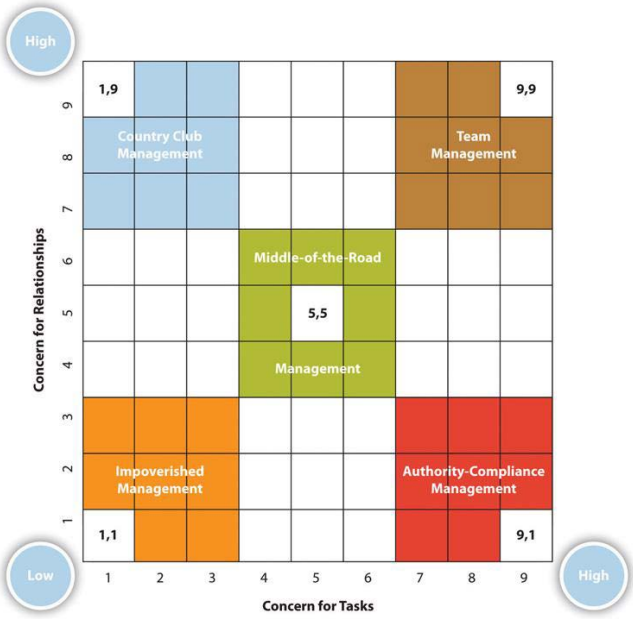

Figure 2. *Managerial Grid Model. Source: Blake & Mouton, 1964.*

- **Authority (9,1)**: The manager shows lack of interest with respect to concern for people, and he/she shows a high interest towards company productivity. He/she can be seen as a dictator by the employees by just caring about deadlines and projects not even considering the well-being of the people.

- **Middle of the road (5,5)**: The manager shows interest for both company productivity and concern for people. He/she is the person that tends towards a balance.
- **Team management (9,9)**: The manager shows a highest of interest towards both company productivity and concern for people, he/she is the ideal manager.

Situational and contingency theories

As compared to the behavioural theory, the Situational and contingency theories focus their attention on situations, they support the idea that it does not exist one unique best leadership style, but everything depends on the situation or environment.

For example, some scholar expanded the research of Lewin et al. (1939) on leadership styles stating that each different style work best in a specific situation. Authoritarian style is a good choice during crisis period thanks to its peculiar speed in decision-making; democratic style can conquer the minds of the employees through generating consensus; while lasseiz-faire style is appreciated for the high degree of freedom that can grant to the employees (Wormer et al., 2007)

There are three main contingency theories: Fiedler contingency model (1965), Vroom-Yetton decision model (1973), and the path-goal (1974).

Fiedler contingency model

Fidler was the first to explore this field of situational theory, he stated that the leader's effectiveness is contingent to the situation and the leadership style (Fiedler, 1965).

He creates three variables to define each situation: leader-member relationship, task structure, and position power.

- Leader-member relationship represents confidence, respect, and mutual trust between leader and members of the group
- Task structure indicates if the task of the group is clear and straightforward (structured task) or ambiguous with no clear solution (unstructured task)
- Leader position power refers to the actual power that the leader has on the member such as salary control or disciplinary action.

The combination of these three variables defines the situation favourability, that according to the performance of each variable can be favourable, unfavourable, or indifferent situation; clearly, the manager in a favourable situation has very high power, control, and influence.

Moreover, Fiedler with respect to the leadership style, suggested that leaders can have a task orientation or human relationship orientation. To analyse this orientation the scholar created an indirect test called the Last Preferred Co-worker (LPC), where the leader must rate their last preferred co-worker.

If they assign to the co-worker a very low score, the leader is probably task oriented, otherwise a high LPC score suggest a higher human relationship orientation. The reason behind is that the least preferred co-worker is equally unpleasant for everybody.

Then he concludes saying that task-oriented leader tends to perform better in very favourable situations and in very unfavourable situations while the relationship-oriented leader tends to perform better when he has moderate control, influence and power, intermediate favourability. So different types of leaders perform differently according to the specific situation, in other words there is not a unique best leader, but everything is contingent with the environment.

Vroom-Yetton decision model

Vroom and Yetton (1973) expanded the research in the situational theory field focusing on group decision-making. According to situational theory, it does not exist a unique best style, but everything is contingent to the situation, so they created a model that suggests the selection of a leadership style of group decision-making. The model identifies five different styles ranging from the two extremes autocratic style and group-based style, specifically they are:

- **Autocratic Type 1**: In the first extreme of the scale, we can find the autocratic type 1 where the leader is completely autonomous in taking decision, does not involve at all the other members and uses only the information available to him/her at that time.
- **Autocratic Type 2**: In the second style the leader still makes the decision autonomously, but he/she involves the members by asking them to provide all the information that are not already available to him/her.
- **Consultative Type 1**: In the consultative type 1 the leader talks individually to some relevant members in order to find ideas and solutions and then he/she can decide independently, in this style members do not meet each other, they just share ideas with the leader who may or may not accept them.
- **Consultative Type 2**: In this style leader asks to relevant member ideas and opinions and then he/she still decides alone, but the difference is that members meet each other and can discuss and reflect about the best alternative. The leader final decision may be or may be not influenced by it.
- **Group-based Type 2**: In the other extreme, there is a brainstorming where the leader and the members discuss all together about the best alternative as a group and the final decision is on the group, leader accept the decision and cannot force his/her idea.

Moreover, in order to decide the optimal level of involvement of the members the scholar created a list of question about commitment, decision quality, decision acceptance and problem information. Answering this list of questions, we will discover the best leadership style to use in a specific situation.

Path-goal theory

Robert House in 1971 developed the **path–goal theory**, representing leader as person responsible for motivation, satisfaction, and performance of his/her subordinates, specifically talking about leader's behaviour.

The leader must create a path for their follower so they can guide them to specific goal through praises, incentives and generally helping them. Moreover, leaders can try to align employees' goals with organizational goals, adapting leadership behaviour to the specific situation, for example, the nature of the task, namely whether it is more or less structured, more or less motivating and so on; but also from the characteristic of the employees. Thus, the scholar defines four different leadership styles:

- **The directive path-goal clarifying leader behaviour***:* where leader plans the work, divides the tasks, and explains to their employees what they expect from them. This style is most effective when the tasks are not structured, and employees show a tendency to accept authoritarianism.
- **The achievement-oriented leader behaviour**: where leader fixes challenging goals and then expects employees to perform very well, showing confidence in their skills and abilities. This style is most effective in an environment with highly trained/educated people such as scientist, engineers, salespeople.
- **The participative leader behaviour:** where the leader asks to their subordinates to participate in the decision-making process; usually this style is most effective when the decision personally involve the work-life of the subordinates.
- **The supportive leader behaviour:** where leader is primary concerned about subordinates' wellbeing and preferences. This style is most efficient in environment that are psychologically or physically distressing.

So, the path-goal theory has the advantage to take into account the personal characteristic of the members and using them as variables of the system.

Transformational leadership

In Transformational leadership the leader is seen as a person with a vision who can influence, motivate, and inspire other members to make a change, to transform themselves. This transformation allows employees to be more mature and concerned about their own achievement, inspiring them in this way to perform beyond standard. (Bass, Bernard 1999).

The concept of “Transformational leadership” was first developed in 1973 by Downton who is regarded as the first creator of the theory; then, the concept was expanded by Burns who stated that transformational leadership is not based on a give-and-take relationship, but primarily on the personality of the leader who should have the ability to lead by example, envisioning the change in their subordinates. These leaders are the idols of their employees who want to emulate them to emotionally identify in them. Transformational leadership can be seen as a process that change and transform people, while at the same time, giving value to emotions, morale, motivation and needs of the followers.

Subsequently, Bernard Bass (1985) expanded Burns’ research explaining how transformational leadership can be measured and how it can influence performance and motivation in the leader’s subordinates. Thus, the amount of influence that a leader can have on their followers is a first measure of the transformational leadership; followers who are willing to work harder than expected thanks to the qualities of their leader, usually feel respect, admiration and trust for the leader because they can offer more than the simple working for self-gain, but rather, they offer a vision, something to aspire for giving them an identity. In addition, this leader holds good expectation for their subordinates, they really believe in them, not punishing them for their mistakes, but trying to create a higher morale and maturity, empowering and pushing them to develop themselves and, at the same time, take care of their personal needs. All these behaviours create a real connection with the followers transforming them into loyal high performers.

The four “I” of Bernard Bass

Moreover, Bass created this model that divides transformational leadership in into four components:

- **Idealized Influence**: The leader who leads by example, they represent a role model, and their followers try constantly to emulate them, they really embody and show all the qualities that wants their follower to develop. This is also linked with charisma, as well as to the ability that a charismatic personality usually has to inspire the people into becoming more like the leader.
- **Inspirational Motivation**: Inspirational motivation together with idealized influence constitute the productivity of the transformational leadership. Moreover, it represents the action of giving mean to the job, allow the followers to see the routine tasks as part of a long-term achievement, all this thanks to the vision provided by the leader who communicates in the clearest way to their subordinates.
- **Individualized Consideration**: It represents that genuine concern that the leader has towards the subordinates; the leader is mindful of their needs and feeling and actively tries to help

them to be self-actualize. This way of managing people allow the develop of a sense of trust in the organization's members towards the hierarchy.

- **Intellectual Stimulation**: It is the way that the leader uses to stimulate creativeness and innovation, the subordinates are completely involved in the decision-making process and are asked to come up with innovative or alternative solutions to problems, they have to challenge the company status quo. This process is supported by the fact that managers do not punish mistakes, but they consider them as steps in the collective learning process.

Transactional leadership

According to Downton (1973), in transactional leadership the leader motivates subordinates through punishment and rewards. Burns (1978) stated that transactional leadership is when people interact with the purpose of exchanging valued things.

So, employees are motivated thanks to the possibility to obtain personal rewards of different nature that just the leader can grant. Usually, these rewards are economical or psychological. It is an exchange model of rewards for people with positive outcomes or good work and punishments for people with poor work or negative outcomes. Using Downton's words we can say that a "*Do ut des*" relationship is established. It is also liked with the positive reinforcement theory explicated above.

It is possible to split the transactional leaders into three categories: contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive.

The *contingent reward leader* rewards employees for respecting deadlines, reaching goals, carrying out tasks and generally any desired behaviours. On the other hand, *management-by-exception* hands out punishments for any negative action or behaviour, considering the negative action the exception away from the norm. It is possible to define two variation the *active* and the *passive*. The active one continually controls the behaviour of each employee and takes corrective actions immediately after a poor behaviour, the passive one do not monitor continually the employees' performances but it takes actions just in case a serious problem arises.

Transactional vs. transformational leadership

Transactional leader tries to create extrinsic motivation thanks to punishment and rewards, while on the other hand, transformational leader aims to create intrinsic motivation by caring about the wellbeing of the employees and giving them a vision.

Transactional leadership is more straightforward, it is very easy to be applied on a big scale in companies where structure and system have to be reproduced and is easier to align everybody. Moreover, rewarding employees for short-term achievement increase the global productivity. Transformational leadership instead is more active, it really engages with followers, helping with their own self-development, raising consciousness on specific outcomes, and providing a sense of mission. Considering Maslow's hierarchy of needs, that will be explained in the next chapter, transactional leadership aims at the lower levels of the hierarchy while transformational leadership works on the higher levels.

Full Range Leadership Model

Bruce Avolio and Bernard Bass in 1991 created the Full Range Leadership Model that put together transactional, transformational, and laissez-faire leadership styles, it is a holistic approach to leadership styles. They focused their work on the typical behaviours of the different leadership towards the workforce in the business environment. The different leadership styles are arranged according two different dimensions: i., the engagement, or level of activity, that indicates the degree of involvement of the leader in any action or behaviour the group initiates, and it is represented on the horizontal axis; ii., the efficiency that indicates how effective a leadership style is and how motivates the employees, and it is represented on the vertical axis. As plotted in Figure 3 the least effective and least active style is the Laissez faire, that is comparable to the absence of leadership. Here the leader aims to stay away from hard choices; the possible negative consequence is the creation of conflicts, and displeasure towards the leader and the organization. Moving to a more effective and active style there is Transactional-management by exception- where the leader shows up to punish employees for wrongdoings. Next step in the ladder is the Transactional-contingent rewards- where the leader does not punish employees instead, he/she rewards and compensates employees for any positive outcome and doing, hence motivating them. This type of leadership style makes people feel better than the others. Finally, the Transformational style aims to create more proactive employees, giving them a vision to become autonomous and committed to the company, they should not feel obligated to work but they should create a feeling, an attachment towards the organization.

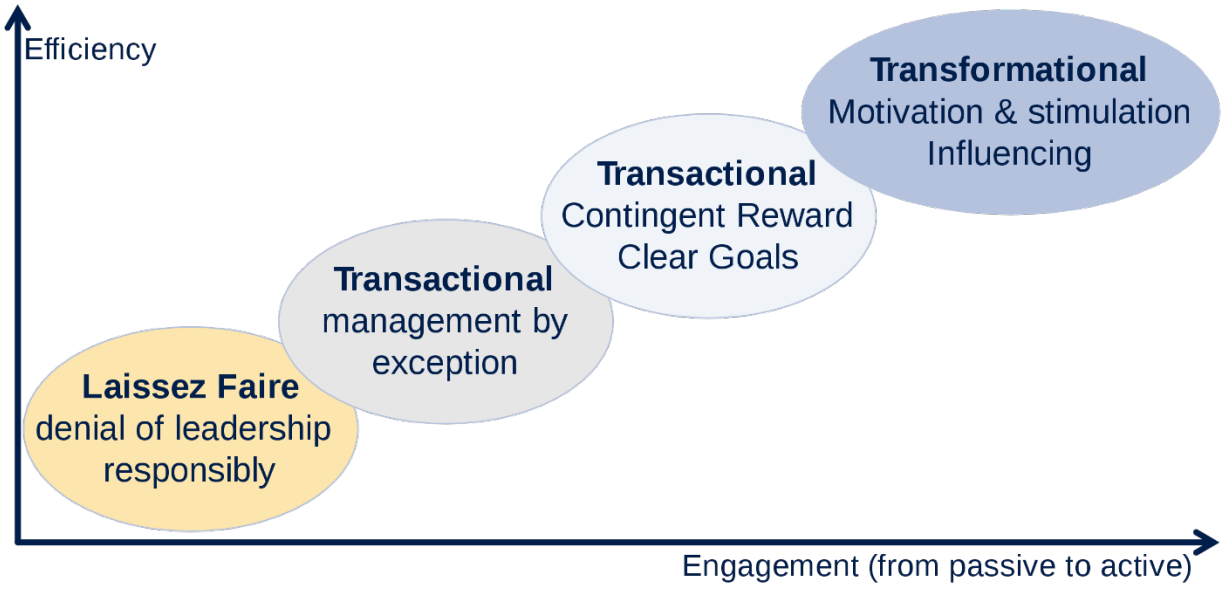

Figure 3. Full Range Leadership Model. Source: https://upload.wikimedia.org

Chapter II

Motivation

A commonly accepted definition of motivation is the desire that incentivizes people to act in a certain way or to initiate a specific behaviour (*Kazdin AE, 2000*). It is possible to see any action as a goal-oriented behaviour that is initiated by a motivational state; usually, different desires coexist at the same time but the strongest determines which action to start first (Wasserman T, Wasserman L, 2020). Other scholars have argued that desire is not the only mental state that can provide motivation but also beliefs and intentions can provide motivation (Miller C, 2008). Therefore, motivation is a process that is generated within the individual, an internal process. Whether it is indicated as a drive or a need, it is an inner condition for which people yearn for a change either in themselves or in the surroundings. Extrinsic motivation will be significantly influenced by our environment and social setting, however goals, ideals, and the desire to feel particular emotions will also motivate people (Reeve, 2015). Moreover, motivation can be seen as the driver of effort, as more motivation equals more effort; in other words, motivated people will push themselves to achieve a goal, they will stress themselves to make a great effort that other people less motivated will not do (Schaffer, 2008).

The concept of motivation is so important that has generated a great amount of research and theories. The main theories are divided in content theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), Herzberg's two factors (1959), and Alderfer's ERG (1969) and in process theories such as Skinner's reinforcement theory (1938), Victor Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), and Locke's goal-setting theory (1968). Content theories focus on describing the why people act in a certain way, in other words, by which goals people are motivated, while the process theory aim to describe how the motivation process occurs.

Overviews of the main theories in motivation

Content Theories

The main content theories are Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), Herzberg's two factors (1959), and Alderfer's ERG (1969); these theories aim to explain what reason people have to act in a certain way and addressed particular elements like personal needs and goals.

Maslow’s hierarchy of needs

Maslow in 1943 wrote *"A theory of human motivation"* where he focuses his research on the needs of every human being, creating a system of needs that is hierarchically arranged and where the basic needs have to be satisfied first to go up on the next level of the pyramid. The satisfaction of the needs does not motivate people per se, rather, it is the dissatisfaction, that feeling of lack that pushes people to act. As it possible to see in the Figure 4, the needs are grouped in physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem, and self-actualization.

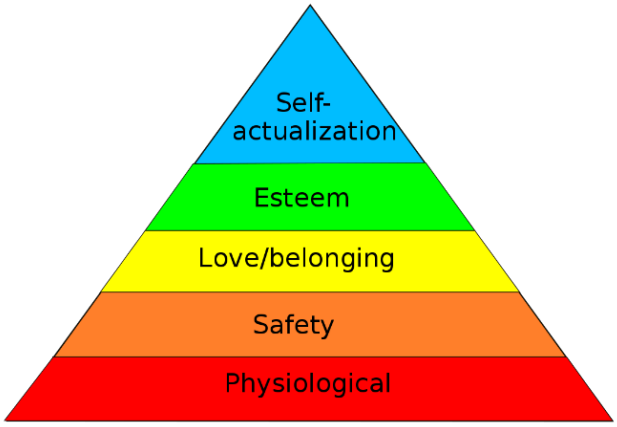

Figure 4. *Maslow's hierarchy of needs. Source: https://miro.medium.com/max/1200/0*V0ZRlNk54hqmAvY6.*

Needs are internal factors that are essential for a person in order to sustain life, nurture growth, and maintain overall well-being. For instance, two biological requirements that result from the body's need for food and water are hunger and thirst. These nutrients are necessary for maintaining life. Moreover, there are the psychological needs such as competence and belongingness that are essential for growth and well-being and are part of the higher-level needs. Looking at the pyramid it is possible to analyse each group of needs. Physiological needs indicate all the primal needs linked with survival itself: hunger, thirst, sleep, and sex. Safety needs stand for security from any kind of threats. Love/belonging needs indicate the feeling of attachment to people, communities, and places. Esteem needs regard the self-esteem and the esteem from other people. Finally, self-actualization indicates the feeling of fulfilment to become everything that one could potentially be. It is possible to highlight that the last two needs are superior order needs and are associated with the social sphere.

Herzberg's two-factor theory

Herzberg in 1959 wrote “*The motivation to work*” in which he proposed the two-factors theory also known as motivator-hygiene theory, where he found two groups of factors that can influence job’s satisfaction. He called the first group “hygiene factors” and the second “motivators”. The hygiene factors are related to the working environment, they are crucial to maintain motivation at work, however they do not create satisfaction nor motivation per se. Nevertheless, their absence leads to dissatisfaction, in other words, their presence is rather a necessary starting point to build employees’ satisfaction. Therefore, hygiene factors are those aspects of a work that, when adequate or appropriate, calm employees and prevent them from becoming unsatisfied, they are not intrinsic of the job itself, they are extrinsic, environmental. Because they are necessary to prevent unhappiness,

hygiene factors are sometimes known as dissatisfiers or maintenance factors. They represent the physiological demands that people sought and expected to be met. Examples of hygiene factors are working conditions, job security, company policy, salary, and interpersonal relationship. The motivators factors, differently from the hygiene factors, improve satisfaction and, for this reason, they are also known as satisfiers. These factors are naturally linked with the work itself, they are intrinsic elements of the job. Moreover, they can push workers to do exceptional work because for employees these motivators are intrinsically rewarding. Furthermore, they represent the psychological needs, usually seen as additional characteristic of the job and some examples are responsibility, achievement, growth, meaningfulness of the work, and recognition.

Alderfer's ERG theory

Alderfer in 1969 wrote "*An empirical test of a new theory of human needs*" in which he expanded the work of Maslow, he stated that all the needs present in the Maslow's hierarchy of needs can be divided in three groups: Existence, Relatedness, and Growth. From the names of the groups there is the label ERG theory. The existence group contains those needs that are essential for survival, those that Maslow named physiological and safety. Relatedness, the second group, is about personal relationships, individual's need to retain major interpersonal ties, the need to be recognised, understood, and accepted by its own community. It is aligned with Maslow's love/belonging and esteem. Growth, finally, is associated with the desire of self-development, as well as personal growth and advancement. This type of needs includes Maslow's self-actualization needs and the intrinsic component of esteem needs. The main difference, after the different classification, is that according to ERG Theory, at any given time, more than one need on different level may be in demand, therefore the theory demonstrates that when a higher-level need is suppressed, the urge to satisfy a lower-level need increases. Maslow stated that a person remains at a certain hierarchical level of need until that need is met. However, Alderfer claims that if a higher-level demand increase, a person can resort to increasing the fulfilment of a lower-level need, this is what Alderfer call frustration-regression aspect. For example, if a growth need of an individual increases, they may be driven to meet their relatedness needs, and if relatedness needs are not met, they may be motivated by existence needs. As a result, frustration/aggravation might lead to a relapse to a lower-level demand.

Process theories

Reinforcement theory

BF Skinner in 1938 proposed the Reinforcement theory, stating that it is possible to modify a person's behaviour through reinforcement and punishment. In other words, any behaviour that brings

positive consequences it has a high probability to be repeated in the future, while any behaviour that brings negative outcomes tends to be ceased or interrupted. The theory is named also as "behaviourism" or as "operant conditioning". Skinner overlooks the drivers and the causes of people's behaviour, but he focusses on the consequences of the actions. In order to influence someone's behaviour it is possible to use four different actions. Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction.

Positive Reinforcement is used to increase the frequency or the probability of a certain action. Praising an employee for respecting a deadline will increase their motivation of doing the same action in the future.

Negative Reinforcement is used with the same meaning of the previous one, but it is characterized by the elimination of an adverse stimulus or undesirable consequence. An example could be a professor saying, "whoever show up every day in class does not have to do an exam!"

Punishment is used reduce the frequency or probability of a certain action in the future. It is characterized by administrating a negative consequence. An example could be to force employees that arrive late on the job to work one hour more.

Extinction is used to reduce the probability of a behaviour by eliminating any sort of reward for it. Assuming that a manager does not want to make their subordinates work after-hours, an example could be to eliminate any sort of reinforcement for tasks completed during after-hours, in this way the employee loses desire to work after-hours.

Goal Setting Theory of Motivation

Locke in 1968 created the Goal setting theory, according to which employees' performances are influenced by goal setting. In order to achieve better performances, it is very useful to choose challenging and specific goals that will push employees to do their best. Another tool that works very good with challenging goals is the manager's feedback that can direct employees in the right way.

Locke explains several goal-setting concepts in his theory. The main source of motivation in the workplace is the desire to work to achieve those challenging goals. Goals have to be chall enging, as if they are too easy, they do not provide motivation. Goals must be precise, specific, and measurable, because if they are too general or vague employees find difficult to work towards them. Realistic goals provide motivation, unrealistic ones could discourage employees. Moreover, there are other two main variables that can influence goal setting: the self-efficiency and the goal commitment. Self-efficiency is linked to employee's confidence of being able to achieve a certain goal. The more confident they are the more effort they will place to face the challenge. In contrast if the employee is

not very confident, they will put in less effort or in some cases they might even quit. Goal commitment, on the other hand, can vary according to three circumstances:

- Individuals should set their own goals rather than having them defined for them.
- Goals have to be transparent, public and broadcasted.
- Employee's goals have to be consistent with the vision of the company.

Goal setting theory can be very useful to create incentives for people to increase their motivation and in turn the effort that employees put in the work all this leading to a better productivity for the whole company.

Expectancy Theory

Victor Vroom in 1964 created the Expectancy theory, he unlike Maslow and Herzberg shifted focus from individual's needs to outcomes. He states that every performance is linked with the expectation of what outcome will follow that performance and with the personal appeal to that outcome. According to Vroom employee's motivation depends on three different parameters: Expectancy, Valence, and Instrumentality.

Expectancy regards the probability of achieving the desired performance with enough effort; the variables that can influence expectancy are the possession of appropriate skills and tools to achieve the performance, along with information and support.

Valence regards the subjective desire of the expected outcome, namely, how important that specific reward is for a certain person.

Instrumentality regards the person's assessment of the probability of getting the expected reward, having met the required goal. In other words, if making the effort to get the expected goal is instrumental to get the reward. Variables that can influence instrumentality are clear rules on how to achieve the rewards, openness, and transparency on rewards allocation.

Thus, three relationships are evident the first between effort and performance, the second between rewards and personal goal, and the third between performance and reward. In the first employees ask themselves if their effort will be enough to achieve the goal. While in the second the question at stake is whether the reward is in line with employees' personal goals. Finally, the third relationship checks if the performance will actually bring the reward. Vroom thought that every person can choose to be or not be productive on the workplace, their motivation depends only on

expectancy, valence, and instrumentality. Using these three factors he created a formula to calculate the motivational force:

Motivational Force (MF) = Expectancy (E) x Instrumentality (I) x Valence (V)

Where expectancy and instrumentality are percentages, so they can vary from 0 to 1. For expectancy 0 indicates that the subject does not think that he will be able to achieve the goal requested while 1 indicates that he is sure that he is capable of achieving the performance requested. For instrumentality 0 indicates that the subject believes that achieving the requested goal will not provide the reward while 1 indicates certainty of gaining the reward. Valence varies between -1 and 1, if the subject does not care about the specific reward the valence is 0. If the reward is something unpleasant for the subject the valence may decrease to -1. If the reward is coveted by the subject the valence will increase until 1. Multiplying the three variables is possible to find the intensity that the employee will devote to work towards the goal. The main limit of the Expectancy theory is that it considers exclusively the extrinsic motivation, powered by external rewards and it does not take into consideration the intrinsic motivation, the inner desire of an individual to do a certain task.

Theory X and Theory Y

Douglas McGregor in 1960 created the so called “Theory X and Theory Y”, with these theories he proposed two different employee-types, two contrasting models. One negative that is referred as Theory X, and the other is positive, and it is referred to as Theory Y. McGregor asserts that a number of assumptions underlie managers' perceptions of people's motivations.

Assumption of Theory X

The typical employee dislikes work and looks for ways to avoid it when possible; In order to accomplish organizational goals, employee must be convinced, forced, or warned with penalty because they do not want to work. Managers must closely supervise their employees, hence for this reason managers must take on autocratic leadership style. The highest priority for the average employee is job security, they usually show a lack of ambitions and aspirations, are resistant to change, dislike any type of responsibility and require a formal guidance and constant direction.

Assumptions of Theory Y

The typical employee perceives their job as a habit, using their mental and physical capacities to work in a natural way. They do not need to be forced, threated, or punished to work, instead if they are committed about achieving corporate goals, they may be able to employ self-control to complete tasks autonomously. Engagement and loyalty to the company will increase if the job is enjoyable and rewarding. A typical employee can learn to acknowledge and accept responsibilities. They even have

the ability to learn how to create their own responsibility. The staff members are capable and skilled. They should use all of their logical talents. In other words, workers' creativity, resourcefulness, and inventive potential may be fully used to address issues inside the business.

Therefore, it is possible to state that Theory X gives a negative view of workers' motivation and actions whereas Theory Y gives a positive prospective. Creating a parallelism with Maslow's theory, Theory X predicts that employees prioritize their physical and safety needs, whereas Theory Y predicts that employees prioritize their social, esteem, and self-actualization needs. According to McGregor, Theory Y is the most plausible and valid theory. As a result, he promoted friendly team dynamics, fulfilling and challenging tasks, and group decision-making.

Intrinsic and extrinsic motivation

Individuals with intrinsic motivation find reasons to act in a certain way within themselves, they look for internal rewards and are not satisfied by external rewards. Usually, they have a passion or an interest for the activity itself. It is possible to define intrinsic motivation as the act of engaging in an activity for its own satisfaction rather than seeking a separate benefit. Moreover, with intrinsic motivation it is easier to achieve goals, tasks, and objectives, also the perception of things changes, and hard tasks can be seen as enjoyable challenges (Ryan RM, Deci EL, 2000). Some scholars believe that self-determination or autonomy and competence are the requirement for intrinsic motivation (Deci EL, Ryan RM, 2013). Other research links high level of intrinsic motivation with subjective well-being and mental and physical development (Tak HJ, Curlin FA, Yoon JD, 2017).

On the other hand, extrinsic motivation regards any act that an individual initiates or sustains because motivated by external factors or influences. The external factors can be either positive or negative, the positive might be rewards, salary, compensation, or fame, while the negative might be punishments, pain, or unpleasant actions. Hence, the main difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is the force that push people to start any activity, moreover with intrinsic motivation is the activity itself that motivates the individual, while with extrinsic motivation is the goal is to get something that is different from the task itself. Furthermore, another example could be, playing soccer for the fun of the game is something intrinsically motivated, playing it to get a salary is extrinsically motivated. Extrinsic motivation has the benefit of being relatively simple to employ in inspiring others to work toward goals accomplishment. One drawback is that since the individual could not be motivated to do a good job, the quality of work may need to be reviewed.

Motivation sources

Another approach to motivation theory is that one of Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl (1995; 1999) that have created an integrative model, analysing, putting together, and building on several earlier research. Five sources of motivation are identified in their approach, which integrates the perspectives of several motivation theorists. They differentiate between internal self-concept, intrinsic, instrumental, external, and goal internalization.

Intrinsic process motivation

As explicated in a previous paragraph intrinsic process motivation occurs when someone is driven to carry out particular tasks or exhibit particular behaviours just for the sake of doing so. With this type of motivation, employees are motivated by their work because they enjoy it.

Instrumental motivation

People are motivated by instrumental rewards when they believe that their actions will result in extrinsic concrete outcomes, such as salary, raises, and awards.

External Self-concept-based Motivation

External based motivation is when people are mainly other-directed, seeking the approval of others, looking to others to confirm their traits, talents, and values. They have an idealized self that is created from the expectations of a reference group. People with this type of motivation do everything to appeases the members of the reference group in order to first become part of the group, and then gain status.

Internal Self-concept-based Motivation

People with this source of motivation are inner-direct. They establish internal goals for competencies, skills, values, and traits and use them as foundation for the ideal self. Consequently, the individual gets inspired to adopt actions that uphold these principles and subsequently succeed in achieving higher proficiency levels.

Goal Internalization Motivation

This source of motivation regards personal value systems, individuals will initiate or sustain a behaviour if it is in line with theirs value systems. Hence, each employee is inspired to work toward the group objective because they all believe in the cause.

Leonard, Beauvais, and Scholl using these five sources of motivation have created a new integrative scale to measure motivation, in their paper is possible to learn more about the development and the validation process of the scale. The outcome of the paper is the "*Motivation Sources Inventory (MSI)*" a 60-items questionnaire, twelve items for each source (Barbuto JE & Scholl RW, 1998). As

is possible to see in the next chapter the MSI has been used as part of the survey for the experimental study of the theory.

Practical applications

Motivational theory can also help to predict what will be effective in practice. Some scholars assume that people generally accept tasks to do, as well as seek out new responsibilities and enjoy doing a larger variety of assignments (McGregor D, 1960). Hence, if a manager starts to give their subordinates more responsibilities, they will experience higher fulfilment, which will increase their devotion and commitment to the company, all leading to an increase of the employees' motivation. Similarly, it is expected that assigning more work will boost engagement. Additionally, other research argues that delegation of tasks gives more control to employees that working together can increase motivation, productivity, and creativity rather than let one manager tackle and solve problems alone (Malone T, 1997). Moreover, some claim that taking part in decision-making raises morale and dedication to the organization, which in turn enhances productivity (Markowitz L, 1996). The issue is hence mostly related to recognizing the proper way to motivate people; indeed, taking care of individual needs would help prevent the creation of a harmful work environment because, as Domeyer (1998) states, one-fits-all solution does not exist. Different people react in a different way to a certain motivation technique, the best way to purse for a manager to get the best performance out of their staff is to use a range of strategies that respect each person's individuality. Furthermore, there are some critique Manville & Ober (2003) claim that managers continue to use "carrot and stick" incentives as main motivators, while workers have still got very limited participation to the major company decisions. This leads to create a distance between employees and organizations, distrustful attitude, and weak loyalty. Morse (2003) states that incentives alone are not effective if the management do not take into consideration the aspirations to really participate and to make a difference in the company. Leaders still believe that salary, rewards, bonuses, and extrinsic motivator are the key to improve employee motivation.

Extensive research has been conducted on this question. For example, Eshun & Duah (2011) found evidence that a sense of self-worth, love of work and a certain system of value is more important than rewards. Nelson (2002) clarifies that rewards and salary are still significant. Nevertheless, if an employee's need for growth, success, and appreciation is not satisfied, rewards will not keep them content and productive. Hacker (1997) states that businesses, to remain competitive on the job market, must create strong teams, and in order to do that, it is crucial to understand what drives employees. As noted in the literature, ineffective management causes staff

turnover and a continual interference with productivity. Loyalty, job security, and employment stability used to be the most important aspects of work. Notwithstanding, nowadays employees have considerably changed: they are more educated people who are highly committed to their personal interest and a work/life balance. This progress has produced a workforce that can be extraordinarily difficult to manage. Employees' motivation is just one of several leadership factors that may be different now as compared to the past. Events on a global scale, quickly advancing technology, and remote working models have created a labour market that is unstable and fiercely competitive. In order to recruit and keep the best employees, employers must pay attention to their employees' needs. Hacker (1997) continues saying that improving relationship between managers and employees will create happier and more profitable workplaces, and in turn will reduce employee turnover that can be big cost for companies, for entry-level employees up to 30% of the annual salary and for CEOs up to five times the annual salary.

Leadership and Motivation

The leader's function in motivating employees has not always been evident. Many leaders, especially in the past, solely focus on directing the company's strategy and economic orientation. They used to neglect the creation of relationship or teambuilding with other colleges or subordinates (Kuczmarski & Kuczmarski, 1995)

Kotter (1996) notes a connection between leadership and motivation stating that it is just thanks to leadership that employees are motivated to change their own behaviours and actions. Shaffer (2008) claims that leadership and motivation are necessary correlated quoting the definition of leadership from House (2004) where leadership is indicated as the skill of a person to influence and motivate others. Therefore, the definition emphasizes the link between motivation and leadership. The leaders of an organization are unlikely to succeed if they are unable to motivate their subordinates. Moreover, Alghazo (2016) found evidence that different leadership styles have different impact on employee motivation. He begins saying that after decades of research on motivation there is still a lack of understanding of what does it really means and how it is possible to improve it. First, it is true that people have a basic motivational drive that can differ depending on personal traits and personality, however, the second variable that can have a big impact on motivation is the situation. Hence, an individual's motivation depends on their personal characteristic and the situation Shaffer (2008). Alghazo (2016) in his research aims to examine how employees in a private firm view the drivers of motivation and how those drivers connect to different leadership styles. According to data collected, leaders who use participative and transformational leadership have a

bigger chance to create a motivating environment for their employees. Similar results have been found also by Haywood, D. (2014), and Elzahiri, S. (2010). Mengesha (2015) explores the correlation between a certain leadership style and its impact on employees' motivation, the leadership styles taken into account are transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership. Employee motivation and transformational leadership are positively correlated. The outcome suggests that transformational leadership is a crucial leadership strategy to inspire workers. A positive correlation also exists between transactional leadership and motivation. Instead, laissez-faire leadership and motivation appeared to be negatively correlated. This indicates that under a laissez-faire leadership style, employees are not motivated. According to the data, employees are negatively impacted by the laissez-faire approach and positively influenced by transformational leadership and transactional leadership even though this last one to a lesser degree. Therefore, the study highlights the significance of leadership-employee interactions and organizational communication in order to influence employee motivation.

Along the same lines, Buble, M., Juras, A., & Matic, I. (2014) investigated how leadership style affected workers in a Croatian company and discovered that participative leadership styles are more effective at motivating workers than authoritarian ones. Similarly, Rawat, S. R. (2015) in order to determinate the effect of transformational leadership on morale and motivation surveyed about 400 people and thanks to this data discovered a strong correlation between one another. Riedle, D. (2015) looked on the connection between transactional and transformational leadership styles with intrinsic and extrinsic motivation, showing a relationship between transactional and extrinsic motivation, whereas transformational and intrinsic motivation also have a close positive relationship.

In conclusion, considering all the information discussed in this chapter, it is possible to understand that motivation is a very complex subject; many different theories have been written over the last century and not a single one has got all the answer. Furthermore, in recent years the job market and employees have considerably changed. On one hand, with the push of the pandemic, technology made a quantum leap, creating remote working models, and pushing coworking and digitals nomadism, leading to a labour market more unstable and competitive. On the other hand, employees nowadays are more educated, they do not seek just loyalty, job security and stability as they did in the past. They put at the first place their personal interest and a better work/life balance. For all these reasons, keeping one's own labour-force motivated is a job that is becoming harder and harder. However, have motivated employees is of paramount importance in order to avoid the constant turnovers, which represent a big cost for companies, and not to reduce employees' productivity. Hence, it is the manager's job to keep its subordinates motivated and active. Nonetheless, since there is not a single

approach that works for all, it is useful to try to use a mixed approach to understand what works for a specific employee.

Chapter III

Research Aim/Purpose

One of the important elements that determines whether a firm succeeds or fails is leadership. Indeed, a leader is a person who "influences" to manage and coordinate the actions of a group of people in order to achieve collective goals (Jagot, 1982). A crucial impact of leadership is its own ability to motivate employees. Without a strong vision, a strategy, and a good leader, employee motivation become unreliable leading to a decrease in corporate productivity and profitability (Mengesha A, 2015).

Nowadays another challenge for the modern companies is how to attract and retain employees in a job market that is not stable as that of decades ago. Many businesses struggle in the endless pursuit of competent employees, and a good way to facilitate this task is to keep one's own workforce highly motivated (Grensing-Pophal, Lin., 2002). For the presented reasons, many companies keep doing motivational courses, meeting, and conferences spending millions year by year with no or little outcome. That appears to be due to a lack of comprehension of what motivation entails. It seems evident from the several theories on motivation explained on the previous chapter that there is no one single approach or theory that works in every situation, rather it mostly depends on the single person or situation.

Moreover, as Barbuto (1998) stated, each person can draw from various motivational sources such as: intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization. It is also evident that there is a strong relation between leadership style and motivation, and all the research and data that corroborate this statement are discussed in the previous chapter.

Hence it is possible to say that at least three variables affect the "motivational equation", the single person, with its character and personality traits, the leadership style that best fits that person, and the motivational sources by which they are driven. In order to understand better the correlations and the order of dependence/interaction among the three variables we created a survey, composed by three questionnaires aimed at specifically measure these variables: the HEXACO personality model [BHI; (De Vries, 2013)], the leadership preference LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)], and the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)].

Hence, the objective of this study is to explore the relationship between personality dimensions, motivational sources, and leadership preference. In particular, the goals of this study might be summed up as follows:

- *To study the relationship between personality traits, motivational sources, and leadership preference.*
- *To study if the personality dimensions can have a moderator or mediator effect in the relationship between leadership preference and motivational sources.*

Methods

Sample

The survey encompassed a total of 150 respondents (82 F; mean age: 26.75 ± 9.21 s.d.) all of whom, after granting informed consent in compliance with the 1964 Declaration of Helsinki and the APA ethical standards, fully answered the three sections of the questionnaire. Respondents were made aware of their right to withdraw their consent in any moment.

Google Forms was the tool selected to collect the data, the survey was distributed through different channels, social media such as LinkedIn, Facebook, and Instagram, as well as direct and indirect contacts.

Procedure

The questionnaire is structured in three main sections and an introductory section. Right after the informed consent, the respondents were requested to submit some demographic data such as age, gender, and job position. After the introductory section, the 24-items brief HEXACO Inventory [BHI; (De Vries, 2013)] was administered to collect data of the contestants' personality traits. The HEXACO is followed by the Leadership preference scale [LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)] and then, in the third section, the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)] was collected.

Questionnaires

In the first section, in order to assess the personality of the contestant, has been selected the well-know HEXACO personality inventory (Ashton et al., 2006; Ashton & Lee, 2009; Lee & Ashton, 2004), although rather than the traditional version, the choice was made on the 24-item brief HEXACO Inventory (BHI; De Vries, 2013). The HEXACO model assess personality according to six categories or dimensions such as Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, eXtraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience; in the brief version 4 items are used to measure each dimension. The Honesty-Humility scale assesses sincerity, fairness greed-avoidance and modesty, hence a person who ranks high in this domain avoids using others for personal advantage, feels

minimal temptation to disobey law, abstains from craving money and luxuries, and has no unique claim to a higher social rank. The Emotionality scale assesses four sub-dimension called fearfulness, anxiety, dependence, and sentimentality. Therefore, fear of physical harm, anxiety in the face of life's challenges, need for others' emotional support, high level of empathy, and sentimental ties to people are the characteristics of the emotionality dimension. The Extraversion scale shows traits such as confidence, pleasure in social situations and interactions, excitement, and vitality. The Agreeableness scale assesses forgiveness, gentleness, flexibility, and patience, hence who shows the ability to get along with others, a lack of tendency to judge others, and a readiness to cooperate ranks high in this domain. The conscientiousness scale assesses organization, diligence, perfectionism, and prudence, therefore a high score in this domain is a characteristic of a person who wishes to plan their time, works systematically towards goals, aspires to precision and perfection, and gives decisions serious thought. Lastly, Openness to experience scale reveals traits like appreciating the beauty of art and nature, being curious about other fields of study, having a strong imagination, and having an interest in unconventional ideas.

The second section of the survey includes the Leadership Preference Scale [LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)] that investigates the leadership style preference of the contestant. Two leadership style are considered: authoritarian and democratic. The authoritarian or autocratic leadership style emphasizes individual control over all decisions and limited participation from the other members of a team. Autocratic leaders rarely take advice from their followers and frequently make decisions based on their opinions and judgments. Absolute control over a team is a hallmark of autocratic leadership. Democratic leadership style, also known as participative leadership or shared leadership, has as a characteristic the inclusion of all team members in the decision-making process, hence, participation and inclusion are features of this style. The LPS is a 30-items questionnaire, each question has a 5-point Likert scale; a high score indicates a preference for a democratic leadership style while a low score indicates a preference for an authoritarian leadership style (Bhushan, 1971; R. Bhushan & Verma, 1972).

The third section incorporates the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)] that aims to understand the source of motivation of the contestant. It consists of five subscales each of which contains six items that capture the domains of interest for each source of motivation: intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization. According to the intrinsic process motivation, employees are motivated by their work because they enjoy it. With the instrumental motivation workers are motivated when they believe that their actions will result in certain extrinsic concrete outcomes or rewards. The external self-concept-based motivation suggests that people behave in a way that pleases the reference group member with the

aim of gaining acceptability, status, or approval. The internal self-concept-based motivation indicates that people are motivated to act in ways that uphold accurate personal standards and demonstrate higher levels of competency, when they are able to meet certain qualities, skills, and values they align themselves with the ideal self. Finally, when organization goals are congruent with employees' personal beliefs and value systems, the source of motivation is defined as the goal internalization motivation.

Analyses

Thanks to the questionnaire it was possible to obtain each respondent's personality, leadership style, and motivational measures. The ratio analysis method was used for the MSI (Barbuto, 2001). Before the statistical testing, all the scores for each scale and subscale were z-transformed.

Initially, to investigate any potential connections between motivation, leadership, and personality traits, several Pearson's correlations were computed across the relevant data. All the correlations were corrected using the FDR correction method for multiple testing (Benjamini et al., 2006; Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995, 2000).

Then, based on the results of the correlations analysis, several mediation and moderations were carried out using the PROCESS package for SPSS (Hayes, 2015; Hayes & Preacher, 2014; IBM SPSS, 2020). Specifically, the leadership measurement was used as independent variable while the motivational source scores such as intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization were used as dependent variable, while the HEXACO scores were considered as mediators or moderators. Additionally, the age of contestants was included as a covariate in all the analysis.

Results

The table 1 presents the means and standard deviations of the raw scores obtained across all scales and subscales as well as the complete outcomes of the Pearson's correlations.

Table 1. *Means, standard deviations and correlations across all the variable of interest. Asterisks indicate the level of statistical significance prior to the correction for multiple testing ***p<0.001, **p<0.01, *p<0.05. The p-value FDR corrected for multiple testing is indicated in the rows p-adj.*

	Mean	***S.D.***		***1***	***2***	***3***	***4***	***5***	***6***	7	8	9	10	11	12
1.Intrinsic Motivation	0.171	0.032	r	-											
			p-adj	-											
2.Instrumental Motivation	0.199	0.031	r	-0.155	-										
			p-adj		-										
3.External Self-Concept Motivation	0.178	0.032	r	0.056	-.180*	-									
			p-adj	0.496	0.056	-									
4.Internal Self-Concept Motivation	0.240	0.034	r	-.501***	-.196*	-.397**	-								
			p-adj	0.00	0.02	0.00	-								
5.Goal Internalization Motivation	0.213	0.035	r	-.338***	-.387***	-.421***	0.028	-							
			p-adj	0.000	0.000	0.000	0.735	-							
6.Leadership Preference	96.887	6.608	r	-.272***	-0.083	-0.091	.325***	0.090	-						
			p-adj	0.003	0.311	0.311	0.000	0.311	-						
7.Honesty-Humility	13.700	2.811	r	-.196*	-0.080	-.284***	0.121	.389***	0.122	-					
			p-adj	0.032	0.332	0.000	0.168	0.000	0.168	-					
8. Emotionality	11.040	2.427	r	-0.131	-0.055	0.081	0.052	0.044	0.094	0.075	-				
			p-adj	0.597	0.597	0.597	0.597	0.597	0.597	0.597	-				
9. Extraversion	15.500	2.739	r	-0.012	-0.065	-.263***	.245***	0.073	.253***	0.130	-.329***	-			
			p-adj	0.881	0.490	0.004	0.006	0.490	0.005	0.179	0.000	-			
10. Agreeableness	12.633	2.404	r	-0.032	-0.083	0.141	0.049	-0.074	0.097	-0.121	-.175*	0.152	-		
			p-adj	0.700	0.473	0.258	0.617	0.477	0.425	0.317	0.258	0.258	-		
11. Conscientiousness	12.560	2.454	r	-0.157	0.111	0.050	0.104	-0.099	-0.001	0.019	0.038	0.044	-0.076	-	
			p-adj	0.550	0.565	0.809	0.565	0.565	0.994	0.913	0.809	0.809	0.712	-	
12.Openness to Experience	13.173	2.065	r	0.118	0.108	-0.136	-0.040	-0.039	0.052	-.170*	-.162*	0.100	-0.061	0.019	-
			p-adj	0.409	0.409	0.356	0.695	0.695	0.695	0.259	0.259	0.409	0.695	0.817	-

In the first stage of the analysis, the relationship between personality traits, motivation sources and leadership preference have been explored. Regarding motivation, the findings revealed a negative correlation between the intrinsic process of motivation and leadership preference ($r = -0.20$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.01), showing that a higher preference for democratic leadership is correlated with a lower intrinsic reward from work. Moreover, the results for the personality show that intrinsic motivation is negatively correlated with conscientiousness ($r = -0.16$, $p < 0.05$, p-adj $= 0.13$) and with honesty-humility ($r = -0.20$, $p < 0.05$, p-adj $= 0.06$) but these associations did not endure the adjustment with FDR method for multiple testing. As is possible to see in the table 1, the instrumental motivation is correlated neither with the leadership preference nor any of the personality dimensions. With respect to the external self-concept motivations, data show a negative correlation with extroversion ($r = -0.26$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.001) and honesty-humility ($r = -0.28$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.001), suggesting that respondents low in these traits are motivated by the possibility of gaining status and approval by others. Regarding the internal self-concept motivation, there is a positive association with the preference for democratic leadership ($r = 0.33$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.001) and with the extraversion ($r = 0.25$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.01) suggesting that people with a high preference for democratic leadership and extroverts are strongly motivated by the desire of achieving internal goals and expectations. On the other hand, the goal internalization and honesty-humility dimension have a positive association ($r = 0.39$, $p < 0.001$, p-adj < 0.001), demonstrating that persons with this trait feel driven by aligning and internalizing with the organizational goals. The leadership preference scale also showed a positive correlation with the extraversion personality trait ($r = 0.25$, $p< 0.001$; p-adj < 0.01), indicating that extroverts have a strong preference for democratic leadership.

Moderation & Mediation results

In a subsequent stage, moderation and mediation analyses were conducted in an effort to further characterize the link between motivation, leadership preference, and personality based on the findings of the exploratory correlational research. The internal self-concept motivation, leadership preference and the extraversion personality trait appear to be the only set of variables strongly correlated with one another, according to the results of the correlational analyses. Therefore, these variables were used to start the mediation and moderation approach.

First, a moderation was conducted using the leadership preference as the independent variable, the extraversion personality characteristic as the moderator, and the internal self-concept motivation as the dependent variable, age was also included as a covariate (Figure 5A). The model is overall significant ($R = 0.37$, $R^2 = 0.14$, $F = 5.73$, $p < 0.001$). Specifically, the main effect of extraversion dimension is significant ($\beta = 0.17$, $t = 21580.00$, $p < 0.05$, LLCI $= 0.01$, ULCI $= 0.34$), as well as the

effect of leadership preference (β = 0.29, t = 35228.00, p < 0.001, LLCI = 0.13, ULCI = 0.45). However, the interaction effect was not statistically significant (β = 0.04, t = 0.58, p = 0.56, LLCI = -0.11, ULCI = 0.20), showing that the extraversion dimension did not have a moderating influence on the association between leadership and internal self-concept motivation (Fig. 5B). Moreover, the influence of age (covariate) was not statistically significant (β = -0.01, t = -0.94, p = 0.35, LLCI = -0.03, ULCI = 0.01).

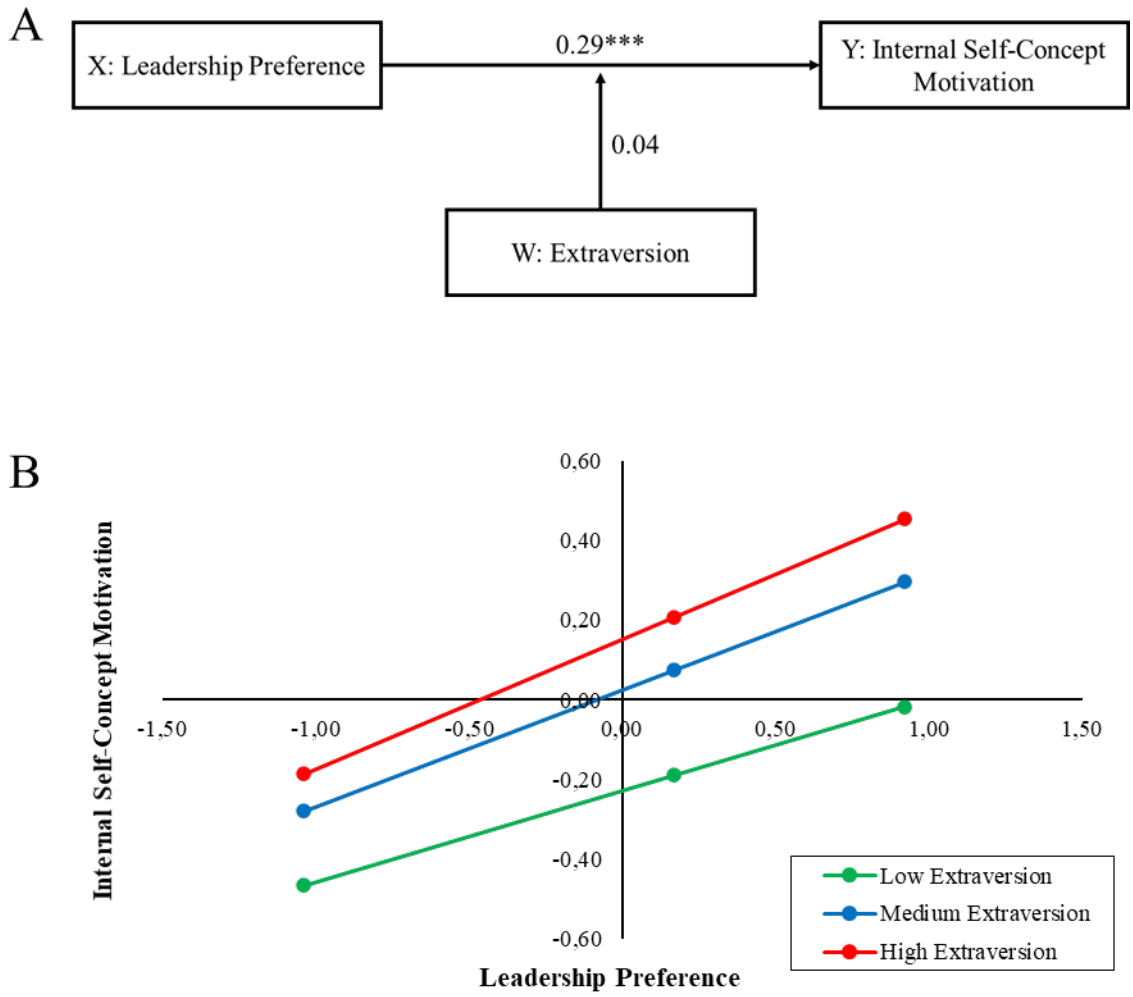

Figure 5. *Moderating model (A) and results of the interaction effect of leadership preference and extraversion personality on the internal self-concept motivation. *** p < 0.001*

In a further phase, it was investigated the possibility that the extraversion dimension could mediate the correlation between the leadership preference and internal self-concept motivation. Hence, a mediation study was performed using the extraversion trait as the mediator, leadership preference as the independent variable, internal self-concept motivation as the dependent variable,

and age as a covariate. As a result, the general model is significant ($R = 0.37$, $R^2 = 0.14$, $F = 75.66$, $p < 0.001$). In particular, the main effect on leadership preference and the main effect of extraversion trait are both significant (Leadership preference: $\beta = 0.28$, $t = 34840.00$, $p < 0.001$, LLCI = 0.12, ULCI = 0.44; Extraversion: $\beta = 0.17$, $t = 21032.00$, $p < 0.05$, LLCI = 0.01, ULCI = 0.33), on the other hand the effect of age is not significant ($\beta = -0.01$, $t = -0.85$, $p = 0.40$, LLCI = -0.02, ULCI = 0.01). Moreover, the results of the leadership preference's direct and indirect effects on internal self-concept motivation also showed that the total effect was significant ($\beta = 0.32$, $t = 41.39$, $p < 0.001$, LLCI = 0.17, ULCI = 0.48). Additionally, the direct effect ($\beta = 0.045$, SE = 0.027, LLCI = 0.002, ULCI = 0.10) and the indirect effect were found significant. These findings imply that the indirect effect of extraversion mediates the association between leadership preference and internal self-concept motivation (Figure 6).

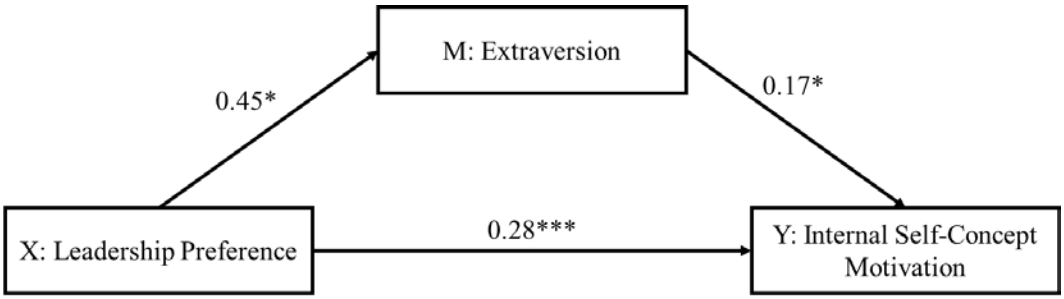

Figure 6. *Mediation model run with internal self-concept motivation as a dependent variable, leadership preference as an independent variable and the extraversion personality trait as mediator. ***p<0.001, * p< 0.05.*

Discussion

The results of this research highlight some important considerations. Firstly, the value of relationships between the intrinsic process of motivation and leadership preference demonstrating a link between a preference for democratic leadership and a reduction in the intrinsic reward of work. This result - that may appear odd – may indicate that democratic leadership, which is intrinsic characteristic, diminishes the importance of being intrinsically motivated by the job itself; hence, democratic leaders may be capable to motivate people even when the job is not itself motivating.

Furthermore, the external self-concept motivation displays a negative correlation with extroversion and with honesty-humility, thus indicating that the respondent high in these traits have a lower desire or need to search approval by others.

Moreover, there is a positive association between internal self-concept motivation and preference for democratic leadership; this result indicates that democratic leadership, probably

because of its high preference for delegation, and involvement of employees in the decision-making process of the company, has the potential of motivating people by empowering them in pursuing internal goals and standards. Internal self-concept motivation, also positively correlates with extraversion, indicating that extroverts have a strong desire to achieve internal goals and this is what mostly motivates them. Another positive correlation is between the extraversion personality trait and the leadership preference, showing that extroverts favour democratic leadership. Hence, it is possible to link specific personality trait with leadership as it is also confirmed by Moss and Ngu (2006) and by Breevaart, K., de Vries, R.E. (2021).

Furthermore, the honesty-humility dimension has a positive correlation with goal internalization, indicating that people who have a high score in honesty-humility – which is indeed characterized by high adherence to rules, are uninterested obtaining luxuries or elevated social status - feel motivated by aligning their personal goal with the corporate goals.

Regarding the moderation and mediation analysis the only relationship that is statistically significant is the mediation effect of extroversion between leadership preference, as an independent variable, and internal self-concept motivation, as a dependent variable. Therefore, leadership preference has an impact on internal self-concept motivation, in other words leadership preference influences people to pursue internal goal and to align themselves to ideal self. Moreover, this impact it is mediated by a specific personality trait, namely extroversion dimension, which explains leadership preference impact on internal motivation. All this led us to the understanding that there is not an absolute leadership model that can work in any situation, but mainly it has to be consistent with the situation and the people that are subjected to it. As suggested by Moss and Ngu (2006), different personalities have different leadership preference and hence they draw motivation from different sources.

In conclusion we suggest continuing to research the relationships between personality traits, motivation, and leadership style. In order to corroborate our findings and understand better the relationship among the three variables, a further step could be to create a survey to assess the level of motivation of employees while they are subordinated to a certain type of leadership style, then combine these data with their personality.

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Summary

Chapter I

The first chapter has the goal to provide a broad understanding of all the main leadership theories present in the literature, plus an explanation of the personality traits, with a focus on the HEXACO personality model.

It is possible to regroup most leadership theories in four main categories, trait leadership theory, behavioural theory, situational theory and the "new leadership theories". For the sake of brevity, only the most important will be included in this summary. In order to give a first general idea about leadership it is possible to say that leadership is the ability of an individual or a group of individuals to influence or to lead followers or other members of an organization (Hollander, 1978).

Trait leadership theory links leader effectiveness to a set of personal characteristics and individual differences (Zaccaro, 2007). Leader effectiveness indicates the amount of influence a leader can have on their followers (de Vries, 2012). Early research on trait leadership was looking for hereditable characteristic that can differentiate leaders from non-leaders. Hence, according to these theories, leaders are individuals that possess certain immutable traits that cannot be developed (Galton, 1869). Later on, this approach has been harshly criticized, nevertheless scholars are still looking for links between leaders' effectiveness and personality traits, and it has also been demonstrated that some personality traits can contribute to create a successful leader (Derue et al., 2011).

To have a clearer understanding of the leadership traits theory, it is important to start from the foundation and talking about the general trait theory in psychology. Trait theory, also known as dispositional theory, aims to study human personality. Scholars define the word "trait" as thoughts, emotions, and habitual patterns of behaviour (Saul Kassin, 2003). So is possible to say that traits are facets of personality that are stable in time and can influence the actions of a person. A general accepted theory is the Big Five Theory, developed from the 1980s, it tries to create a grouping or taxonomy for personality traits. It is based on the lexical hypothesis, that states through two postulates that all those personality traits relevant to a certain group of people will eventually enter their language, and the most important traits are likely to be represented by a single word (John, O. P., Angleitner, A., Ostendorf, F., 1988). So, scholars looked for semantic association in personality survey data through factor analysis. Thanks to this analysis they discovered that many words were used to indicate same personality, so they suggested to use five broad dimensions that should describe human personality (Goldberg LR, 1993). The five dimensions are: Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Agreeableness, and Neuroticism. A more advanced theory, that is

built upon the Big five is the HEXACO personality model, which has six dimensions: Honesty-Humility (H), Emotionality (E), Extraversion (X), Agreeableness (A), Conscientiousness (C), and Openness to Experience (O). (Ashton MC, Lee K, de Vries RE; May 2014). Honest-Humility is the new factor, it has got four facets: Sincerity, Fairness, Greed Avoidance, Modesty and can be very useful to evaluate traits like narcissism or manipulativeness. A high score in this dimension can indicate the propensity pro-social altruistic behaviour (Thalmayer, A. G., Saucier, G., Eigenhuis, A., 2011). On the other hand, low score of the factor H can indicate greater level of materialism or even unethical business practices (Lee, K., Ashton, M. C., Morrison, D. L., Cordery, D., Dunlop, P. D., 2008). The Emotionality scale assesses four sub-dimension called fearfulness, anxiety, dependence, and sentimentality. Therefore, fear of physical harm, anxiety in the face of life's challenges, need for others' emotional support, high level of empathy, and sentimental ties to people are the characteristics of the emotionality dimension. The eXtraversion scale shows traits such as confidence, pleasure in social situations and interactions, excitement, and vitality. The Agreeableness scale assesses forgiveness, gentleness, flexibility, and patience, hence who shows the ability to get along with others, a lack of tendency to judge others, and a readiness to cooperate ranks high in this domain. The conscientiousness scale assesses organization, diligence, perfectionism, and prudence, therefore a high score in this domain is a characteristic of a person who wishes to plan their time, works systematically towards goals, aspires to precision and perfection, and gives decisions serious thought. Lastly, Openness to experience scale reveals traits like appreciating the beauty of art and nature, being curious about other fields of study, having a strong imagination, and having an interest in unconventional ideas.

Going back to trait leadership theory, we have to specify which traits can become useful to become a leader; Zaccaro (2007) argued that the research on leadership traits is not exhaustive but in recent years some reviews of all the studied traits has been made. A recent trait categorization is distal vs proximal. In distal category there are all those traits that have the tendency to be fix over time, they are stable characteristics. The proximal category instead comprehends all those characteristics thar are malleable over time and we can call them state-like (Hoffman et al., 2011). Hoffman linked distal traits like self-confidence, energy, creativity, charisma, and motivation to leader effectiveness, moreover he linked also proximal traits like social skills, management skills, oral and written communication skills, problem solving skills, and decision making to leaders' effectiveness. Most of the proximal traits are skills that can be developed, so at least to a certain extent, leaders are made and not just born.

Research on behavioural leadership theory started after the early critiques to traits theory. Scholars begun to observe the behaviours of leaders, trying to create a taxonomy of leadership

behaviour, and defining broad leadership styles (Spillane, 2004). Leadership style indicates a set of behaviours that the leader of a group uses to provide direction, to implement plans, and to motivate its subordinates; it is a personal way to lead people. As we said, Lewin observed three different styles:

- **Authoritarian**: It creates a centric structure where the leader is responsible for all the decision-making, as in a dictatorship. So, subordinates are not free to share their opinion, suggestions, let alone act on personal initiative. It is faster than the democratic decision-making process, as just one person decides everything, and it usually provides strong motivation for the manager.
- **Democratic**: It creates a flat decision-making structure where all the members all the group can share their ideas, and all together finally can reach a decision. It is also known as shared leadership.
- **Laissez-faire**: Laissez-faire in French it literally means "Let them do", in fact the decision-making process is completely passed on the members of the group and the leader do not interfere in the final decision. Moreover, members have the freedom to set goal and solve independently problems.

Another research in behavioural leadership is the "Positive reinforcement". Positive reinforcement is a simple technique for behaviour modification, namely a treatment that tries to substitute undesirable behaviours with good ones, trying for example to increase the productivity of an employee. B.F. Skinner in his "The Behavior of Organisms" (1938) created the concept of positive reinforcement and is regarded as the father of behaviour modifications. He stated that when a specific behaviour is rewarded with positive stimulus it increases the probability of that behaviour in the future. This technique can be used to increase the productivity of an employee. As an example, we can hypothesize that a manager has a problem with an employee who usually arrives late, the manager can praise the employee every time that he shows up on time. This behaviour would increase the likelihood that the employee arrives on time (Miltenberger, R. G., 2004).

As compared to the behavioural theory, the Situational and contingency theories focus their attention on situations, thus, they support the idea that it does not exist one unique best leadership style, but everything depends on the situation or environment. For example, some scholar expanded the research of Lewin et al. (1939) on leadership styles stating that each different style work best in a specific situation. Authoritarian style is a good choice during crisis period, thanks to its peculiar speed in decision-making; democratic style can conquer the minds of the employees through generating consensus; while lasseiz-faire style is appreciated for the high degree of freedom that can grant to the employees (Wormer et al., 2007).

There are three main contingency theories: Fiedler contingency model (1965), Vroom-Yetton decision model (1973), and the path-goal (1974).

Robert House in 1971 developed the path–goal theory, representing leader as person responsible for motivation, satisfaction, and performance of their subordinates, specifically talking about leader's behaviour. The leader must create a path for their follower, so they can guide them to specific goals through praises, incentives and generally helping them. Moreover, leaders can try to align employees' goals with organizational goals, adapting leadership behaviour to the specific situation, for example, the nature of the task, namely, whether it is more or less structured, more or less motivating and so on; but also from the characteristic of the employees. Thus, the scholar defines four different leadership styles:

- **The directive path-goal clarifying leader behaviour**: where leader plans the work, divides the tasks, and explains to their employees what they expect from them. This style is most effective when the tasks are not structured, and employees show a tendency to accept authoritarianism.
- **The achievement-oriented leader behaviour**: where leader fixes challenging goals and then expects employees to perform very well, showing confidence in their skills and abilities. This style is most effective in an environment with highly trained/educated people such as scientist, engineers, salespeople.
- **The participative leader behaviour**: where the leader asks to their subordinates to participate in the decision-making process; usually this style is most effective when the decision personally involve the work-life of the subordinates.
- **The supportive leader behaviour**: where leader is primary concerned about subordinates' wellbeing and preferences. This style is most efficient in environment that are psychologically or physically distressing.

So, the path-goal theory has the advantage to take into account the personal characteristic of the members and using them as variables of the system.

In Transformational leadership the leader is seen as a person with a vision who can influence, motivate, and inspire other members to make a change, to transform themselves. This transformation allows employees to be more mature and concerned about their own achievement, inspiring them in this way to perform beyond standard (Bass, Bernard 1999). Transformational leadership can be seen as a process that change and transform people, while at the same time, giving value to emotions, morale, motivation and needs of the followers. In addition, this leader holds good expectation for their subordinates, they really believe in them, not punishing them for their mistakes, but trying to

create a higher morale and maturity, empowering and pushing them to develop themselves and, at the same time, take care of their personal needs. All these behaviours create a real connection with the followers transforming them into loyal high performers.

According to Downton (1973), in transactional leadership the leader motivates subordinates through punishment and rewards. Burns (1978) stated that transactional leadership is when people interact with the purpose of exchanging valued things. So, employees are motivated thanks to the possibility to obtain personal rewards of different nature that just the leader can grant. Usually, these rewards are economical or psychological. It is an exchange model of rewards for people with positive outcomes or good work and punishments for people with poor work or negative outcomes. Using Downton's words, we can say that a "*Do ut des*" relationship is established. It is also liked with the positive reinforcement theory explicated above. It is possible to split the transactional leaders into three categories: contingent reward, management-by-exception active, and management-by-exception passive. The contingent reward leader rewards employees for respecting deadlines, reaching goals, carrying out tasks and generally any desired behaviours. On the other hand, management-by-exception hands out punishments for any negative action or behaviour, considering the negative action the exception away from the norm. It is possible to define two variation: the active and the passive. The active one continually controls the behaviour of each employee and takes corrective actions immediately after a poor behaviour; the passive one does not monitor continually the employees' performances, but it takes actions just in case a serious problem arises.

Comparing transactional and transformational leaders, we can summarize as follows: transactional leader tries to create extrinsic motivation thanks to punishment and rewards, while on the other hand, transformational leader aims to create intrinsic motivation by caring about the wellbeing of the employees and giving them a vision.

Transactional leadership is more straightforward, it is very easy to be applied on a big scale in companies where structure and system must be reproduced and is easier to align everybody. Moreover, rewarding employees for short-term achievement increase the global productivity. Transformational leadership instead is more active, it really engages with followers, helping with their own self-development, raising consciousness on specific outcomes, and providing a sense of mission. Considering Maslow's hierarchy of needs, that will be explained in the next chapter, transactional leadership aims at the lower levels of the hierarchy while transformational leadership works on the higher levels.

Chapter II

A commonly accepted definition of motivation is the desire that incentivizes people to act in a certain way or to initiate a specific behaviour (Kazdin AE, 2000). It is possible to see any action as a goal-oriented behaviour that is initiated by a motivational state. Moreover, motivation can be seen as the driver of effort, as more motivation equals more effort; in other words, motivated people will push themselves to achieve a goal, they will stress themselves to make a great effort that other people less motivated will not do (Schaffer, 2008). The concept of motivation is so important that has generated a great amount of research and theories. The main theories are divided in content theories such as Maslow's hierarchy of needs (1943), and in process theories such as Skinner's reinforcement theory (1938), Victor Vroom's expectancy theory (1964), and Locke's goal-setting theory (1968). Content theories focus on describing the why people act in a certain way, in other words, by which goals people are motivated, while the process theory aim to describe how the motivation process occurs.

Maslow in 1943 wrote *"A theory of human motivation"* where he focuses his research on the needs of every human being, creating a system of needs that is hierarchically arranged and where the basic needs have to be satisfied first to go up on the next level of the pyramid. The satisfaction of the needs does not motivate people per se, rather, it is the dissatisfaction, that feeling of lack that pushes people to act. Needs are grouped in physiological, safety, love/belonging, esteem, and self-actualization. Needs are internal factors, essential for a person in order to sustain life, nurture growth, and maintain overall well-being. For instance, two biological requirements that result from the body's need for food and water are hunger and thirst. These nutrients are necessary for maintaining life. Moreover, there are the psychological needs such as competence and belongingness that are essential for growth and well-being and are part of the higher-level needs. Physiological needs indicate all the primal needs linked with survival itself: hunger, thirst, sleep, and sex. Safety needs stand for security from any kind of threats. Love/belonging needs indicate the feeling of attachment to people, communities, and places. Esteem needs regard the self-esteem and the esteem from other people. Finally, self-actualization indicates the feeling of fulfilment to become everything that one could potentially be. It is possible to highlight that the last two needs have a superior order and are associated with the social sphere.

Regarding the process theories, Skinner in 1938 proposed the Reinforcement theory, stating that it is possible to modify a person's behaviour through reinforcement and punishment. In other words, any behaviour that brings positive consequences has a high probability to be repeated in the future, while any behaviour that brings negative outcomes tends to be ceased or interrupted. The

theory is named also as “behaviourism” or as “operant conditioning”. Skinner overlooks the drivers and the causes of people’s behaviour, but he focusses on the consequences of the actions. In order to influence someone’s behaviour it is possible to use four different actions: Positive Reinforcement, Negative Reinforcement, Punishment, and Extinction.

- **Positive Reinforcement** is used to increase the frequency or the probability of a certain action. Praising an employee for respecting a deadline will increase their motivation of doing the same action in the future.
- **Negative Reinforcement** is used with the same meaning of the previous one, but it is characterized by the elimination of an adverse stimulus or undesirable consequence. An example could be a professor saying, “whoever show up every day in class does not have to do an exam!”
- **Punishment** is used to reduce the frequency or probability of a certain action in the future. It is characterized by administrating a negative consequence. An example could be to force employees that arrive late on the job to work one hour more.
- **Extinction** is used to reduce the probability of a behaviour by eliminating any sort of reward for it. Assuming that a manager does not want to make their subordinates work after-hours, an example could be to eliminate any sort of reinforcement for tasks completed during after-hours, in this way the employee loses desire to work after-hours.

Moreover, Locke in 1968 created the Goal setting theory, according to which employees’ performances are influenced by goal setting. In order to achieve better performances, it is very useful to choose challenging and specific goals that will push employees to do their best. Another tool that works very good with challenging goals is the manager’s feedback that can direct employees in the right way. Locke explains several goal-setting concepts in his theory. The main source of motivation in the workplace is the desire to work to achieve those challenging goals. Goals have to be challenging, as if they are too easy, they do not provide motivation. Goals must be precise, specific, and measurable, because if they are too general or vague employees find difficult to work towards them. Realistic goals provide motivation, unrealistic ones could discourage employees. Moreover, there are other two main variables that can influence goal setting: self-efficiency and goal commitment. Self-efficiency is linked to employee’s confidence of being able to achieve a certain goal. The more confident they are, the more effort they will place to face the challenge. In contrast, if the employees are not very confident, they will put in less effort or in some cases they might even quit.

Goal commitment, on the other hand, can vary according to three circumstances:

- Individuals should set their own goals rather than having them defined for them.
- Goals have to be transparent, public and broadcasted.
- Employee's goals have to be consistent with the vision of the company.

Goal setting theory can be very useful to create incentives for people to increase their motivation and in turn the effort that employees put in the work, all this leading to a better productivity for the whole company.

Another way to see motivation is the dualism between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Individuals with intrinsic motivation find reasons to act in a certain way within themselves, they look for internal rewards and are not satisfied by external rewards. Usually, they have a passion or an interest for the activity itself. It is possible to define intrinsic motivation as the act of engaging in an activity for its own satisfaction rather than seeking a separate benefit. Moreover, with intrinsic motivation it is easier to achieve goals, tasks, and objectives, also the perception of things changes, and hard tasks can be seen as enjoyable challenges (Ryan RM, Deci EL, 2000). Some scholars believe that self-determination or autonomy and competence are the requirement for intrinsic motivation (Deci EL, Ryan RM, 2013). Other research links high level of intrinsic motivation with subjective well-being and mental and physical development (Tak HJ, Curlin FA, Yoon JD, 2017).
On the other hand, extrinsic motivation regards any act that an individual initiates or sustains because motivated by external factors or influences. The external factors can be either positive or negative, the positive might be rewards, salary, compensation, or fame, while the negative might be punishments, pain, or unpleasant actions. Hence, the main difference between intrinsic and extrinsic motivation is the force that pushes people to start any activity, moreover with intrinsic motivation is the activity itself that motivates the individual, while with extrinsic motivation the goal is to get something that is different from the task itself. Furthermore, another example could be, playing soccer for the fun of the game is something intrinsically motivating, playing it to get a salary is extrinsically motivating. Extrinsic motivation has the benefit of being relatively simple to employ in inspiring others to work toward goals accomplishment. One drawback is that since the individual could not be motivated to do a good job, the quality of work may need to be reviewed.

Motivational theory can also help to predict what will be effective in practice. Some scholars assume that people generally accept tasks to do, as well as seek out new responsibilities and enjoy doing a larger variety of assignments (McGregor D, 1960). Hence, if a manager starts to give their subordinates more responsibilities, they will experience higher fulfilment, which will increase their devotion and commitment to the company, all leading to an increase of the employees' motivation. Additionally, other research argues that delegation of tasks gives more control to employees that

working together can increase motivation, productivity, and creativity rather than let one manager tackle and solve problems alone (Malone T, 1997). Moreover, some claim that taking part in decision-making raises morale and dedication to the organization, which in turn enhances productivity.

In conclusion, considering all the information discussed in this chapter, it is possible to understand that motivation is a very complex subject; many different theories have been written over the last century and not a single one has got all the answers. Furthermore, in recent years the job market and employees have considerably changed. On one hand, with the push of the pandemic, technology made a quantum leap, creating remote working models, and pushing coworking and digitals nomadism, leading to a labour market more unstable and competitive. On the other hand, employees nowadays are more educated, they do not seek just loyalty, job security and stability as they did in the past. They put at the first place their personal interest and a better work/life balance. For all these reasons, keeping one's own labour-force motivated is a job that is becoming harder and harder. However, to motivate employees is of paramount importance in order to avoid the constant turnovers, which represent a big cost for companies, and not to reduce employees' productivity. Hence, it is the manager's job to keep its subordinates motivated and active. Nonetheless, since there is not a single approach that works for all, it is useful to try to use a mixed approach to understand what works for a specific employee.

Chapter III

One of the important elements that determines whether a firm succeeds or fails is leadership. Actually, a leader is a person who "influences" to manage and coordinate the actions of a group of people in order to achieve collective goals (Jagot, 1982). A crucial impact of leadership is its own ability to motivate employees. Without a strong vision, a strategy and a good leader employee motivation become unreliable leading to a decrease in corporate productivity and profitability (Mengesha A, 2015). Nowadays another challenge for the modern companies is how to attract and retain employees in a job market that is not stable as that of decades ago. Many businesses struggle in the endless pursuit of competent employees: a good way to facilitate the task is to keep the own workforce with high levels of motivation (Grensing-Pophal, Lin., 2002). For the presented reasons, many companies keep doing motivational courses, meeting, and conferences spending millions year by year with no or little outcome. That appears to be due to a lack of comprehension of what motivation entails. It seems evident from the several theories on motivation explained on the previous chapter that there is no one single approach or theory that works in every situation, but mostly it depends on the single person or situation. Moreover, as Barbuto (1998) stated, each person can draw from various motivational sources such as: intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept,

internal self-concept, and goal internalization. It is also evident that there is a strong relation between leadership style and motivation, and all the research and data that corroborate this statement are listed in the previous chapter. Hence it is possible to say that at least three variables affect the "motivational equation": the single person, with its character and personality traits, the leadership style that is the best fit for the person, and the motivational sources by which he/she is driven. In order to understand better the correlations and the order of dependence/interaction among the three variables we created a survey, composed by three other questionnaires: the HEXACO personality model [BHI; (De Vries, 2013)], the leadership preference LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)], and the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)]

Objective of this study is to explore the relationship between personality dimensions, motivational sources, and leadership preference. In particular, the goals of this study might be summed up as follows:

- *To study the relationship between personality traits, motivational sources, and leadership preference.*
- *To study if the personality dimensions can have a moderator or mediator effect in the relationship between leadership preference and motivational sources.*

The questionnaire is structured in three main sections and an introductory section. Right after the informed consent, the respondents were requested to submit some demographic data such as age, gender, and job position. After the introductory section, the 24-items brief HEXACO Inventory [BHI; (De Vries, 2013)] was administered to collect data of the contestants' personality traits. The HEXACO is followed by the Leadership preference scale [LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)] and then, in the third section, the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)] was collected.

In the first section, in order to assess the personality of the contestant, has been selected the well-know HEXACO personality inventory (Ashton et al., 2006; Ashton & Lee, 2009; Lee & Ashton, 2004), although rather than the traditional version, the choice was made on the 24-item brief HEXACO Inventory (BHI; De Vries, 2013). The HEXACO model, as described in chapter 1, assesses personality according to six categories or dimensions such as Honesty-Humility, Emotionality, eXtraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, and Openness to Experience; in the brief version 4 items are used to measure each dimension.

The second section of the survey includes the Leadership Preference Scale [LPS; (L. I. Bhushan, 1995)] that investigates the leadership style preference of the contestant. Two leadership style are considered: authoritarian and democratic. The authoritarian or autocratic leadership style

emphasizes individual control over all decisions and limited participation from the other members of a team. Autocratic leaders rarely take advice from their followers and frequently make decisions based on their opinions and judgments. Absolute control over a team is a hallmark of autocratic leadership. Democratic leadership style, also known as participative leadership or shared leadership, has as a characteristic the inclusion of all team members in the decision-making process, hence, participation and inclusion are features of this style. The LPS is a 30-items questionnaire, each question has a 5-point Likert scale; a high score indicates a preference for a democratic leadership style while a low score indicates a preference for an authoritarian leadership style (Bhushan, 1971; R. Bhushan & Verma, 1972).

The third section incorporates the Motivation Sources Inventory [MSI; (Barbuto & Scholl, 1998)] that aims to understand the source of motivation of the contestant. It consists of five subscales each of which contains six items that capture the domains of interest for each source of motivation: intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization. According to the intrinsic process motivation, employees are motivated by their work because they enjoy it. With the instrumental motivation workers are motivated when they believe that their actions will result in certain extrinsic concrete outcomes or rewards. The external self-concept-based motivation suggests that people behave in a way that pleases the reference group member with the aim of gaining acceptability, status, or approval. The internal self-concept-based motivation indicates that people are motivated to act in ways that uphold accurate personal standards and demonstrate higher levels of competency, when they are able to meet certain qualities, skills, and values they align themselves with the ideal self. Finally, when organization goals are congruent with employees' personal beliefs and value systems, the source of motivation is defined as the goal internalization motivation.

Thanks to the questionnaire it was possible to obtain each respondent's personality, leadership style, and motivational measures. The ratio analysis method was used for the MSI (Barbuto, 2001). Before the statistical testing, all the scores for each scale and subscale were z-transformed.

Initially, to investigate any potential connections between motivation, leadership, and personality traits, several Pearson's correlations were computed across the relevant data. All the correlations were corrected using the FDR correction method for multiple testing (Benjamini et al., 2006; Benjamini & Hochberg, 1995, 2000).

Then, based on the results of the correlations analysis, several mediation and moderations were carried out using the PROCESS package for SPSS (Hayes, 2015; Hayes & Preacher, 2014; IBM SPSS, 2020). Specifically, the leadership measurement was used as independent variable while the

motivational source scores such as intrinsic process, instrumental, external self-concept, internal self-concept, and goal internalization were used as dependent variable, while the HEXACO scores were considered as mediators or moderators. Additionally, the age of contestants was included as a covariate in all the analysis.

The results of this research highlight some important considerations. Firstly, the value of relationships between the intrinsic process of motivation and leadership preference demonstrating a link between a preference for democratic leadership and a reduction in the intrinsic reward of work. This result - that may appear odd – may indicate that democratic leadership, which is intrinsic characteristic, diminishes the importance of being intrinsically motivated by the job itself; hence, democratic leaders may be capable to motivate people even when the job is not itself motivating.

Furthermore, the external self-concept motivation displays a negative correlation with extroversion and with honesty-humility, thus indicating that the respondent high in these traits have a lower desire or need to search approval by others.

Moreover, there is a positive association between internal self-concept motivation and preference for democratic leadership; this result indicates that democratic leadership, probably because of its high preference for delegation, and involvement of employees in the decision-making process of the company, has the potential of motivating people by empowering them in pursuing internal goals and standards. Internal self-concept motivation, also positively correlates with extraversion, indicating that extroverts have a strong desire to achieve internal goals and this is what mostly motivates them. Another positive correlation is between the extraversion personality trait and the leadership preference, showing that extroverts favour democratic leadership. Hence, it is possible to link specific personality trait with leadership as it is also confirmed by Moss and Ngu (2006) and by Breevaart, K., de Vries, R.E. (2021).

Furthermore, the honesty-humility dimension has a positive correlation with goal internalization, indicating that people who have a high score in honesty-humility – which is indeed characterized by high adherence to rules, are uninterested obtaining luxuries or elevated social status - feel motivated by aligning their personal goal with the corporate goals.

Regarding the moderation and mediation analysis the only relationship that is statistically significant is the mediation effect of extroversion between leadership preference, as an independent variable, and internal self-concept motivation, as a dependent variable. Therefore, leadership preference has an impact on internal self-concept motivation, in other words leadership preference

influences people to pursue internal goal and to align themselves to ideal self. Moreover, this impact it is mediated by a specific personality trait, namely extroversion dimension, which explains leadership preference impact on internal motivation. All this led us to the understanding that there is not an absolute leadership model that can work in any situation, but mainly it has to be consistent with the situation and the people that are subjected to it. As suggested by Moss and Ngu (2006), different personalities have different leadership preference and hence they draw motivation from different sources.

In conclusion we suggest continuing to research the relationships between personality traits, motivation, and leadership style. In order to corroborate our findings and understand better the relationship among the three variables, a further step could be to create a survey to assess the level of motivation of employees while they are subordinated to a certain type of leadership style, then combine these data with their personality.