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ISTANBUL AYDIN UNIVERSITY

INSTITUTE OF GRADUATE STUDIES

THE EFFECTS OF TRANSFORMATIONAL, TRANSACTIONAL, AND LAISSEZ-FAIRE LEADERSHIP STYLES ON EMPLOYEE MOTIVATION: A QUANTITATIVE STUDY CONDUCTED ON THE PRIVATE SECTOR IN MOROCCO

MASTER THESIS

Imad Taouil

Department of Business

Business Administration Program

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APPROVAL PAGE

DECLARATION

I hereby declare that all data in this project paper, entitled The Effects of Transformational, Transactional, And Laissez-faire Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation: A Quantitative Study Conducted On The Private Sector In Morocco" was gathered and presented in accordance with ethical standards and academic guidelines. I also declare that I have properly referenced and cited all data and findings that are not originally from this project. All the sources used in this thesis are credible.

IMAD TAOUIL

FOREWORD

As I reflect on my journey at Istanbul Aydin University and the process of preparing this project, I am filled with gratitude for the encouragement and support I have received.

First and foremost, I extend my deepest gratitude to God for guiding me through this journey. I would also like to express my profound appreciation to my supervisor, Assist. Prof. Dr. NEVRA BEDRİYE BAKER ARAPOĞLU. Her expertise was invaluable in formulating research questions and methodology. Her unwavering support and assistance were instrumental in elevating the quality of my work.

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September 2023 IMAD TAOUIL

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ABSTRACT

Leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation form the crux of this research. The study focuses on three primary leadership styles: transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire. Data was collected through a comprehensive survey from a diverse range of employees.

The findings reveal that transformational and transactional leadership styles significantly enhance employee motivation. However, the influence of laissez-faire leadership on motivation was found to be less consistent. The study also underscores the complexity of motivation, suggesting the need for leaders to adapt their style to the unique needs and aspirations of their employees.

This research contributes to the ongoing discourse on leadership and motivation, providing valuable insights for leaders, managers, and organizations. It also highlights the need for future studies to further explore this dynamic interplay, particularly in different sectors and geographical locations.

Keywords: Transformational leadership, transactional leadership, laissez-faire leadership, employee motivation, private sector.

DÖNÜŞÜMCÜ, İŞLEMCİ VE LASSAİZ-FAİRE LİDERLİK TARZLARININ ÇALIŞAN MOTİVASYONU ÜZERİNDEKİ ETKİLERİ: FAS'TA ÖZEL SEKTÖRDE GERÇEKLEŞTİRİLEN BİR MİKTARCI ARAŞTIRMA

ÖZET

Liderlik tarzları ve çalışan motivasyonu üzerindeki etkileri bu araştırmanın temelini oluşturmaktadır. Çalışma, üç temel liderlik tarzına odaklanmaktadır: dönüşümcü, işlemlere dayalı ve lassaiz-faire. Veriler çeşitli çalışanlardan kapsamlı bir anket aracılığıyla toplanmıştır.

Bulgular, dönüşümcü ve işlemlere dayalı liderlik tarzlarının çalışan motivasyonunu önemli ölçüde artırdığını ortaya koymaktadır. Ancak, lassaiz-faire liderliğin motivasyon üzerindeki etkisi daha az tutarlı bulunmuştur. Çalışma aynı zamanda motivasyonun karmaşıklığını vurgulayarak liderlerin tarzlarını çalışanlarının benzersiz ihtiyaçlarına ve hedeflerine uyarlama ihtiyacını ortaya koymaktadır.

Bu araştırma, liderlik ve motivasyon üzerine devam eden tartışmalara katkı sağlamakta olup liderlere, yöneticilere ve kuruluşlara değerli içgörüler sunmaktadır. Ayrıca, özellikle farklı sektörlerde ve coğrafi konumlarda bu dinamik etkileşimi daha fazla araştırmak için gelecekteki çalışmalara olan ihtiyacı vurgulamaktadır.

Anahtar kelimeler: Dönüşümcü liderlik, işlemlere dayalı liderlik, laissez-faire liderlik, çalışan motivasyonu, özel sektör.

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I. INTRODUCTION

In the bustling world of business today, where global competition is fierce, technology is ever evolving, and markets are perpetually turbulent, the old ways of doing business have taken a backseat. Businesses are now navigating a labyrinth of challenges, from attracting new customers to staying afloat in a sea of competitors. But it's not just about finding new customers anymore - keeping them is an even tougher nut to crack in this increasingly complex business landscape.

To keep the wheels turning, businesses are digging deep into their pockets, investing in cutting-edge technologies, crafting new processes, and unveiling innovative products. But it's not all about the shiny new things. They're also turning their gaze inward, sparking creativity within their teams and fueling their workforce's motivation to come up with solutions that keep their customer service top-notch. After all, keeping customers happy has taken center stage in their game plan. As a result, a significant chunk of their annual marketing budgets is now dedicated to understanding and meeting customer needs and desires, making customer satisfaction the golden ticket to profitable growth.

In this new business era, a contented workforce is no longer a nice-to-have but a must-have for delivering top-tier customer satisfaction. Employee engagement has emerged as the make-or-break factor for a company's triumph or downfall. Especially in service industries, the quality of employee performance is tightly woven with their well-being. So, in a nutshell, a happy employee is the secret ingredient to a satisfied customer in today's business world.

Numerous research studies have underscored the direct correlation between employee satisfaction and customer satisfaction in the service industry. A lack of employee satisfaction can pose a significant risk to tourism businesses as it can lead to a long-term decline in the quality of services and products, ultimately resulting in customer dissatisfaction (Peric et al., 2018). Therefore, the motivation of employees plays a pivotal role in boosting employee performance in service-oriented businesses. Even with the advent of advanced technology, the success of service businesses hinges on having a motivated workforce. Employees have a variety of expectations from their organizations, and striking a balance between these expectations and organizational goals is crucial. This balance requires effective leadership to align the aspirations and goals of the organization with those of the employees.

Leadership is a topic that has garnered considerable attention in the literature on organizational behavior, drawing significant interest from scholars and researchers. However, despite the extensive research, there are still some gaps and contradictions, and leadership continues to be somewhat of a mystery (Luthans, 2011). Effective leadership styles have been found to enhance organizational productivity, as the unique styles of leaders are closely linked to organizational performance and output. When a positive and planned approach is needed, beneficial leadership styles prove advantageous to organizations. The effectiveness of leadership is gauged by leaders' ability to inspire followers towards shared goals, and motivated employees are a significant outcome of effective leadership. Successful managers are also effective leaders who influence employees to achieve organizational goals while supporting their personal and career goals, which is vital for their motivation (Abbas & Asgar, 2010; Shamir et al., 1998).

Employees who are motivated are more engaged and committed to their tasks, working diligently to achieve organizational goals. They see themselves as valuable contributors to the organization and view it as a place for learning and personal development. Such employees demonstrate loyalty towards the organization, becoming an irreplaceable competitive advantage due to their experience and commitment. Employee motivation is influenced by the values, behaviors, and leadership styles of managers. Thus, leadership and motivation are interconnected. When organizations foster a culture of shared values, norms, vision, mission, and objectives, it becomes easier to achieve employee motivation and involvement (Mujtaba, 2014). Moreover, engaged and involved employees tend to be happier followers of effective leaders, experiencing less stress and being more productive in their jobs (Nguyen, Mujtaba, & Ruijs, 2014; Mujtaba et al., 2010). Effective communication and coordination between leaders and followers are crucial in any organization to align employees with organizational goals and objectives, ensuring their timely accomplishment (Mujtaba, 2010). The alignment of employees with organizational values reflects employee involvement and their commitment to the organization (Werbel & Gilliland, 1999).

Managers and leaders carry out a variety of tasks that require different leadership styles depending on the situation and the nature of decisions (Griffin, 1999). Factors such as an employee's personality, prior experience, behavior, dedication to learning and development, and the influence of the leader impact their desires, needs, satisfaction, and motivation at work (Roberts, 1991; Rothwell, 1992; Williams, 2004; Hadjimanolis, 2000; Hage & Dewar, 1973). Based on these factors, three key leadership styles have been identified: transactional, Laissez-faire, and transformational leadership styles.

An extensive review of literature reveals that leadership is the ability to consciously influence and guide people on a regular basis to achieve organizational goals and objectives. Being a good leader should not be limited to guiding the organization towards professional success but should involve effective mentorship that instills confidence in employees through persuasion and constant motivation for organizational purposes. Therefore, in addition to envisioning the future, today's leaders should contribute to employee development, foster trust, create a strong sense of harmony and self-confidence, and keep communication channels open within the organization.

- Aim and significance:

The relationship between leaders and employees holds significant importance in today's businesses as it directly impacts the economic performance of organizations. Scholars and researchers frequently delve into the topic of leadership and its influence on employee performance, making it one of the most extensively studied areas. This particular study focuses on analyzing the impact of three leadership styles on employee motivation within the private sector. The role of leadership styles becomes particularly crucial in motivating and engaging employees, especially those working in the private sector who face daily challenges arising from customer interactions and internal responsibilities.

By examining the significance of leadership behaviors in employee work motivation, this study aims to gain a deeper understanding of effective leadership styles that can maximize employee motivation in the private sector. Furthermore, the study explores the managerial implications of the findings and discusses potential actions that can be taken to enhance employee motivation.

The research question that will be addressed is: Do leadership styles have an impact on employee motivation?

The sub questions include the following:

- What is the impact of the transformational leadership style on employee motivation?
- What is the impact of the transactional leadership style on employee motivation?
- What is the impact of the laissez-fair leadership style on employee motivation?

II. LITERATURE REVIEW

A. Transformational Leadership

Since its emergence in the early 1980s, transformational leadership has attracted considerable attention from scholars and researchers, presenting a fresh perspective in the field of leadership studies. A comprehensive examination conducted by Love and Gardner (2001) reveals that nearly one third of the leadership research conducted since the introduction of this model has been dedicated to exploring transformational leadership (Northouse, 2019). Bass and Riggio (2006) explain that the unparalleled popularity of transformational leaders stems from their focus on intrinsic motivation and the development of followers, aligning with the demands of contemporary business environments (Northouse, 2019).

Upon delving into the literature, one can discover several definitions that consistently extol the virtues of Transformational Leadership. Northouse eloquently describes it as a process that instigates change and transformation in individuals, encompassing their emotions, values, ethics, standards, and long-term goals. It involves assessing the motivations of followers, meeting their needs, and recognizing their full humanity (Northouse, 2019).

Leaders who embody the transformational leadership model typically adopt a comprehensive, visionary, and inspiring role, empowering followers to deliver exceptional performance that surpasses expectations (Northouse, 2019). Transformational leaders are characterized by their ability to bring about renewal and differentiation in the structure of organizations and groups through their visionary capabilities (Simsek & Fidan, 2005).

In their influential book on transformational leadership, Bass and Riggio (2006) define transformational leaders as those who stimulate and inspire followers to achieve extraordinary outcomes while also nurturing their own leadership capacity. These leaders facilitate the growth and development of followers into leaders by addressing individual needs, empowering them, and aligning objectives and goals at various levels, including individual followers, the leader, the group, and the larger organization.

Bass and Riggio emphasize that transformational leaders create synergy within organizations through their provision of support and motivation. A thorough review of the literature on transformational leadership reveals substantial findings that demonstrate its impact on organizational commitment, employee performance, and job satisfaction (Atmojo, 2012; Celik, Akgemci & Akyazı, 2016).

Furthermore, groups led by transformational leaders exhibit higher levels of performance and satisfaction compared to those led by other types of leaders. These leaders articulate an inspiring vision of the future and encourage group members to contribute directly to the company's mission and vision. In contrast, transactional leaders focus on social exchanges within the group (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016).

Transformational leaders firmly believe that motivating group members to deliver their best is crucial. They seek effective methods to inspire and encourage employees, ultimately motivating them to excel. Consequently, transformational leaders foster greater commitment among group members, encouraging them to reevaluate and surpass their own interests for the collective benefit (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Scholars summarize transformational leadership as a form of high-quality leadership that enhances group members' awareness of their responsibilities and objectives, fosters their personal development, and expands their interests (Bass & Riggio, 2006). According to Bass and Riggio, evaluating a leader within the framework of transformational leadership necessitates considering their influence on followers. Empirical evidence confirms that transformational leaders enhance group performance by promoting creativity, resilience to stress, adaptability, and openness to change, thus contributing to the overall success of the group, regardless of subjective or objective performance measures (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Within this context, Bass and Riggio argue that transformational leadership, with its emphasis on intrinsic motivation, offers a more appealing approach compared to the seemingly transactional and impersonal nature of transactional leadership. They outline four main components of transformational leadership: Idealized Influence (II), Inspirational Motivation (IM), Intellectual Stimulation (IS), and Individualized Consideration (IC).

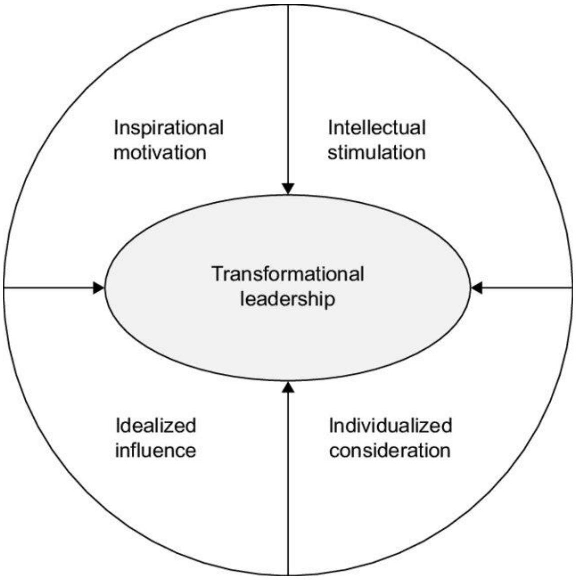

Figure 1: Components of transformational leadership. Dionne et. al (2004)

Individualized Consideration, as described by Bass and Riggio (2006), involves the leader's acknowledgment of individual differences in needs and desires. It entails personalized interactions between the leader and followers, ultimately fostering a supportive climate within the organization.

Idealized Influence refers to the exceptional capabilities, persistence, and determination of transformational leaders, which generate deep respect and a high level of trust from followers towards their leader.

Intellectual Stimulation relates to the ability of transformational leaders to take risks in pursuit of organizational goals. Through this process, leaders acknowledge and stimulate the creativity and innovation of their followers.

Lastly, Inspirational Motivation encompasses the behavior of transformational leaders in motivating and inspiring those around them beyond expectations. They provide purpose, meaning, and challenge to their followers' work, encouraging them to excel (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

In conclusion, transformational leadership is characterized as a leadership style that fosters the development of each employee's individual capacity. By setting challenging expectations that demand superior performance and motivating employees to surpass their perceived potential, authentic transformational leaders often achieve superior results compared to other leadership styles. According to Avolio and Bass (2002), transformational leaders go beyond the limits of transactional leaders by addressing the self-worth of each follower, cultivating commitment to the organization and its objectives. They accomplish this by employing one or more of the four factors of transformational leadership: idealized influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualized consideration (Avolio & Bass, 2002).

B. Transactional Leadership:

According to Kuhnert and Lewis (1987), transactional leadership is changing one objective for another in order to improve leadership effectiveness and motivate staff to become moral leaders in the future. This is achieved through counseling them to identify difficulties in leadership situations and directing the company toward increased worker performance. According to a different viewpoint, transactional leaders should recognize their staff members' needs and provide them the rewards they deserve in order to improve performance (Arnold, Cooper, & Robertson, 1998).

The "carrot and stick" method of motivating staff to carry out their leadership tasks is sometimes compared to the transactional leadership style, which is frequently seen as an exchange of rewards depending on job accomplishment (Bass, 1997). When outcomes are poor or the job is mediocre, transactional leaders may use punishment, but they also use incentives when the work is excellent. As it largely depends on a contractual connection between leaders and employees, this leadership style is criticized for being more centered on management than strategic leadership (Hargis, Wyatt, & Piotrowski, 2001). This suggests that employees cooperate based on the rewards or penalties they get, and that their level of involvement at work becomes greatly reliant on these incentives. As a result, businesses may have a difficult time implementing change as executives focus on identifying defects to penalize and accomplishments to praise rather than inspiring staff to work hard. In exchange for their workers' productivity, transactional leaders trade incentives or penalties based on job accomplishment (Naidu & Van der Walt, 2005). These leaders put a lot of emphasis on the benefits that their team members receive, which might cause them to work more for rewards than for objectives or on avoiding mistakes until a problem emerges (Howell & Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leadership includes two types of reward: contingent reward and one type of punishment, according to Avolio and Bass (2004). Offering incentives for employees' efforts and praising their achievement constitute contingent rewards. Both contingent positive reinforcement (random rewards) and contingent punishment (random punishment) fall under this category. Employees that go above and beyond expectations are rewarded, and the leadership processes and procedures are well defined (Akram et al., 2016). Management-by-exception, on the other hand, requires closely monitoring and supervising staff to make sure that leadership activities are carried out in accordance with defined work rules (Gill, 2012). However, this approach may hinder creativity among employees as they constantly work under close supervision, and leaders prioritize adherence to processes rather than promoting creative improvements for performance enhancement.

According to Johnson and Hackman (2018), management-by-exception seeks to maintain the status quo whereas contingent compensation offers rewards for employees' efforts while validating and acknowledging their accomplishments. When employees don't complete their given responsibilities, managers step in and offer advice and encouragement to assist them reach a suitable level of performance. This is known as management-by-exception. Although active management-by-exception and contingent compensation can improve leadership performance, they may have the opposite effect in a flexible work environment (Sosik & Jung, 2009). On the other hand, passive management-by-exception happens when supervisors don't actively track staff performance and only intervene when serious problems appear (Bass, 1998). When an employee's performance is subpar or they don't follow the rules for leadership, contingency sanctions, such suspensions, are given (Yahaya & Ebrahim, 2016).

Leaders who follow a transactional leadership style often don't proactively identify problems. Instead, they tend to wait for issues to arise before implementing corrective measures. This style of leadership is typically more management-oriented and serves as a foundation for the application of transformational leadership in complex leadership situations (James & Ogbonna, 2013).

C. Laissez-faire Leadership:

Laissez-faire leadership, also known as delegative leadership, is a style where the leader provides minimal direction. In this approach, team members are given the autonomy to make their own decisions (Lewin, Lippitt, & White, 1939). This style of leadership empowers team members, fostering a sense of ownership and personal responsibility. This approach, often referred to as "hands-off" leadership, grants employees a high degree of autonomy and flexibility in determining their own solutions and taking independent actions. Laissez-faire leaders typically refrain from actively participating in employee decision-making but focus on supporting personal development and fostering employee expression, particularly in challenging work situations (Amanchukwu, Stanley, & Ololube, 2015).

One notable advantage of laissez-faire leadership is its ability to stimulate employee creativity, problem-solving skills, and self-motivation. This leadership style encourages an atmosphere of innovation, streamlines decision-making processes, and empowers employees to act without constant managerial consultation. Additionally, it may foster employee respect and trust. However, the laissez-faire approach may not be suitable for employees who lack accountability or discipline.

While the laissez-faire leadership style can empower team members, it's not without its drawbacks. Critics, such as Anbazhagan & Kotur (2014), argue that this approach can lead to less efficient work among team members. Laissez-faire leaders may also hesitate or avoid making crucial decisions when necessary. Furthermore, this style may not be suitable for team members who lack the necessary skills, knowledge, or experience to make informed decisions (Eagly et al., 2003). It's important to note that while this style has its limitations, many of these are related to its direct impacts and often overlook the specific constraints and mechanisms that can affect its effectiveness.

Numerous studies, including those by Bass (1985), Gopal & Chowdhury (2014), and Abbas & Eltweri (2021), have consistently found that laissez-faire leadership can negatively impact employee motivation. This suggests that while laissez-faire leadership can offer team members autonomy, it may not always lead to increased motivation or productivity.

Leaders who exhibit a laissez-faire leadership style often postpone decision-making, show hesitation, and do not respond assertively to the demands of their leadership role (Piccolo et al., 2012). This style of leadership is particularly ineffective when followers lack the necessary knowledge, expertise, and experience, or when they are unable or unwilling to make decisions on their own. Individuals differ in their abilities and responses, and some employees may struggle with setting deadlines, managing projects independently, problem-solving, and aligning organizational goals with their objectives (Eagly et al., 2003). These employees often require a high level of interaction with their supervisors and leaders. In such situations, laissez-faire leadership falls short and can lead to suboptimal employee performance, including missed deadlines and misdirected efforts.

The laissez-faire leadership style is often considered the least productive and satisfying. Its complete disengagement from activities and lack of intervention can make work processes challenging and unproductive (Bass & Bass, 2008). Critiques of the laissez-faire leadership style's drawbacks often overlook the processes and contextual constraints tied to its effectiveness, focusing instead on its immediate outcomes (Bass & Bass, 2008). The capabilities of employees play a significant role in the success of the laissez-faire style. If employees lack the necessary knowledge and skills, their performance is likely to suffer. This leadership approach may not be suitable when high performance is the primary goal. Employees might feel uncertain about their role within the organization and less inspired, motivated, and guided.

D. Employee Motivation:

Most existing models and frameworks of motivation, barring a few recent additions, are rooted in the initial models explored between the 1940s and 1950s, despite the sustained scholarly interest in the concept of motivation. As per Küçüközkan (2015), these models can be broadly classified into two categories: content theories and process theories.

Content theories, which belong to one of the main schools of thought, are considered the original models of human motivation and continue to garner significant attention from scholars. The primary objective of content theories is to comprehend the underlying factors that drive human motivation and determine why individuals behave in specific ways. Consequently, these theories posit that behavior is influenced by changing needs and desires (Fisher, 2009).

In contrast, process theories view motivation as a rational process and focus on understanding the cognitive processes that propel individuals' behavior in particular directions. These theories aim to elucidate how specific actions, interactions, and contexts motivate individuals by examining the interplay between needs, behaviors, and rewards (Fisher, 2009). Notably, proponents of process theories emphasize the significance of individual differences, rejecting a one-size-fits-all approach. According to these theorists, individuals typically analyze their environment, develop thoughts and feelings, and make decisions in distinctive ways. Thus, these theories endeavor to explain the cognitive calculations individuals undertake before experiencing motivation.

1. Human Nature and The Concept of Motivation

Motivation can be defined as the collective efforts aimed at influencing the minds and aspirations of one or more individuals in alignment with a specific objective (Yeşil, 2016). Essentially, motivation serves as the driving force behind our actions, desires, and goals. It is an internal phenomenon that exists within us and is characterized by enthusiasm. Motivational factors play a crucial role in propelling us towards our goals and objectives.

In the realm of business, motivation entails the process of encouraging employees by convincing them that their diligent and efficient work is likely to be rewarded. It is the power that influences people's pursuit of specific goals through the use of incentives. Securing a means of livelihood is one of the primary motivating factors for individuals, along with the need for job security and an adequate wage. The advent of post-industrialization in the early 19th century gave rise to various additional consumption needs, which compelled individuals to earn and spend more. However, this period also brought about challenges such as division of labor, specialization, technological advancements, mechanization, and automation, which led to feelings of unease, dissatisfaction, and reluctance towards work. Consequently, there emerged a pressing need for more effective motivation. In this context, the concept of motivation, of great significance, seeks to explore the genuine reasons that inspire employees to willingly engage with their work. Broadly speaking, motivation can be defined as the provision of incentives to encourage employees to meet their physiological, safety, social, self-fulfillment, and developmental needs (Küçüközkan, 2015). To enhance personnel productivity, enterprises must delve into the motivations that drive their employees' needs. Failing to accurately diagnose these motives can result in inefficiency among the majority of personnel within the organization. Managers play a crucial role in comprehending the diverse needs of their employees, observing their behavior, and recognizing that individual needs vary. It is important to recognize that not every worker will be motivated by the same incentives or rewards, such as fear or monetary benefits. Similarly, employees need to understand their work environment to effectively navigate the actions and behaviors of those around them, fostering better relationships with colleagues and managers.

Implementing a rational motivation system can contribute to fulfilling employees' basic economic and social needs, increasing their job satisfaction, enhancing their productivity and skills, and promoting healthy competition among workers. The manifestation of human needs can be explained by concepts like the id (the instinctual self), ego (the conscious self), and superego (the moral self). The id represents the motives related to physiological needs within an individual's personality, exerting pressure on the ego in that regard. The ego, which emerges from individuals' interactions with others, serves as the realistic component of their personality. It seeks to satisfy inner desires through practical approaches. The superego acts as the arbiter, determining which of the id's demands, as filtered through the ego, will reach the conscious level and which will remain in the subconscious.

2. Motivation Theories

Throughout history, managers have relied on various theories and models of motivation to guide their understanding of what motivates people and to foster a motivated workplace. However, upon reviewing the relevant literature, it becomes evident that the majority of published models and frameworks of motivation, with a few exceptions, are rooted in the initial models studied in the 1940s and 1950s. According to Brooks (2009), these models may be generally divided into two groups: content theories and process theories.

Among these categories, content theories are considered the earliest real models of human motivation and continue to receive significant attention from scholars. The primary focus of content theories is to grasp the true motivators behind human behavior, to uncover what drives individuals to act in certain ways (Brooks, 2009). These theories posit that behavior is influenced by changing needs and desires.

On the other hand, process theories approach motivation as a rational process and seek to understand the cognitive processes that guide individuals' behavior in specific directions (Tosi & Mero, 2003; Brooks, 2009). These theories recognize the importance of individual differences, rejecting a one-size-fits-all approach. According to process theorists, individuals' behavior is shaped by their thoughts and feelings, which develop after assessing their environment. Thus, these theories aim to explain the cognitive calculations individuals make before experiencing motivation.

a. Content Theories of Motivation

An initial examination of motivation theories reveals that early theories are typically rooted in the motives that stem from people's needs and desires (Fisher, 2009). These theories are commonly referred to as content theories in the field of motivation. Among these theories, the most renowned models include Abraham Maslow's Hierarchy of Needs Approach, Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory, David McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory, and Claydon Alderfer's VIG Approach.

i. Maslow’s Theory of Need Hierarchy

Maslow's Theory of Need Hierarchy (1943) is widely recognized as a prominent content theory in the study of motivation. According to Maslow's model, needs play a crucial role in directing human behavior (Luthans, 2011). Understanding the needs of employees should be a top priority for managers as it provides insights into their motives. By paying attention to their followers' needs, managers can create an environment that satisfies those needs and effectively influence their behavior (Küçüközkan, 2015).

Maslow's Theory of Need Hierarchy suggests that human behavior is influenced by five basic human needs. To understand an individual's behavior at a given moment, particular attention should be given to their strongest need (Küçüközkan, 2015). The key claim of Maslow's theory is that humans are driven to fulfill their basic needs, and once those needs are satisfied, they tend to pursue higher-level needs (Maslow, 1943). Initially, in his 1943 research, Maslow proposed that individuals seek to fulfill lower-level deficit needs before progressing to the next level in the hierarchy (Landy, 1978; Luthans, 2011). However, it is important to note that in a 1987 article, Maslow clarified that the satisfaction of a need should not be viewed as 100% satisfaction. He explained that once individuals feel relatively satisfied with a set of needs, they start to experience other needs and naturally shift their focus towards meeting the next set of needs.

Figure 2: Maslow 's Hierarchy of needs Theory. Campbell & Craig (2012)

According to Maslow, the most essential needs for physical survival are the primary motivators that shape our behavior. As individuals satisfy the needs at the lower levels of the hierarchy, they become motivated by the needs at the subsequent higher levels (Fisher, 2009). Managers should pay attention to employees' unmet needs, as people have an inherent drive to fulfill their needs (Fisher, 2009). The most fundamental requirements are shown at the base of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, with higher-level demands shown at the top. According to Luthans (2011), these requirements include those for physiological survival (such as food, water, clothes, shelter, and sleep), safety, social needs, esteem (self-expression), and self-actualization

According to Maslow, motivation begins with fulfilling physiological needs, which are situated at the lowest level of the hierarchy (Maslow, 1943). These survival needs encompass the necessities of food, water, clothing, shelter, and sleep. Maslow emphasizes that psychological needs are the most dominant among all needs, and in their absence, other needs cannot serve as motivators for individuals (Maslow, 1943).

Until individuals' survival needs are adequately met, higher-level motivators in the pyramid will remain less relevant (Fisher, 2009).

Therefore, managers should first focus on satisfying employees' psychological needs in the workplace, which can be facilitated through proper salary and wages. Once individuals' physiological needs are fulfilled, safety needs, including physical, financial, and emotional safety, become the subsequent motivators (Maslow, 1943).

Within Maslow's hierarchy, the next level after fulfilling physiological and safety needs is social needs. As social beings, individuals seek relationships with others, including a sense of belonging, love, and affection (Maslow, 1943). At this level, the need for positive emotional relationships becomes a driving force for human behavior. Establishing positive relationships between employees and management within an organization is crucial for enhancing employee motivation.

The fourth level of Maslow's hierarchy encompasses esteem or ego needs, which involve aspects such as confidence, self-belief, personal and social acceptance, and respect from others (Luthans, 2011). To motivate employees with esteem needs, managers should foster an organizational climate of trust and provide praise and recognition from managers and colleagues.

Self-actualization needs represent the top and final stage of Maslow's pyramid, where individuals strive to realize their full potential and achieve personal fulfillment (Maslow, 1943). This includes the pursuit of ultimate experiences and the realization of one's true self (Luthans, 2011). Meeting self-actualization needs involves enabling individuals to discover and unleash their capabilities, talents, and passions.

In summary, Maslow's hierarchy acknowledges that individuals have a range of needs, starting from the basic physiological needs up to the highest level of self-actualization. By recognizing and addressing these various needs, managers can create a motivating work environment that supports employees' well-being, fosters positive relationships, provides recognition and respect, and encourages individuals to reach their full potential.

ii. Frederick Herzberg's Two Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor Theory posits that employee satisfaction has two dimensions based on two distinct groups of factors: motivating factors and hygiene factors (Luthans, 2011). In his research on a group of 200 individuals, psychologist

Frederick Herzberg concluded that certain factors do not significantly impact human attitudes, but their absence can lead to dissatisfaction or apathy (Küçüközkan, 2015). In other words, according to Herzberg's theory, the presence of hygiene factors does not create satisfaction, but their elimination helps to alleviate sources of dissatisfaction (Brooks, 2009). Thus, the next step toward ensuring satisfaction lies in the application of motivating factors, which are primarily associated with the content of job performance (Küçüközkan, 2015). Herzberg states that without both hygiene factors and motivating factors, employees will not experience true satisfaction or be able to perform well.

Hygiene factors can be broadly defined as the contextual or environmental factors in a person's work that, if absent, can lead to dissatisfaction (Luthans, 2011). Examples of typical hygiene factors include wages, working conditions, job security, supervision style, and the quality of workplace relationships (Fisher, 2009). On the other hand, motivating factors primarily consist of intrinsic job elements that directly provide employees with a sense of satisfaction (Fisher, 2009). Achievement, acknowledgement, the nature of the work itself, responsibility, and prospects for promotion are some of these factors (Luthans, 2011).

iii. David McClelland's Need for Achievement Theory

By arguing that people have three different sorts of needs—the need for accomplishment, the need for affiliation, and the need for power—David McClelland's Need for accomplishment Theory sheds light on why some people are more driven to succeed than others (Brooks, 2009; Fisher, 2009). The need for a sense of success and the pursuit of individual objectives or development are examples of the need for achievement (Küçüközkan, 2015). The need for affiliation pertains to individuals' need for social interaction, friendship, and being liked by others (Küçüközkan, 2015). Lastly, the need for power relates to individuals' drive to lead, increase personal prestige, or gain status (Küçüközkan, 2015).

McClelland's theory asserts that these three needs are the primary factors that motivate individuals, and their activation is essential for motivation to occur (Rybnicek et al., 2019). The specific combination and balance of these needs vary among individuals, as they are developed through culture and life experiences. Typically, one of these motivators tends to be more dominant than the other two for each individual

(Fisher, 2009). Therefore, managers play a crucial role in creating appropriate work environments by understanding and analyzing their own and others' needs for relationship, power, and achievement (Brooks, 2009). Recognizing the dominant need in an individual helps us understand how to effectively motivate that person (Fisher, 2009).

iv. Alderfer’s ERG Approach

Alderfer's ERG (Existence, Relatedness, Growth) Approach can be seen as a simplified version of Maslow's hierarchy of needs, as it also categorizes needs into distinct groups (Küçüközkan, 2015). Alderfer condensed Maslow's five needs into three: existence needs, relatedness needs, and growth needs, arranged from bottom to top (Brooks, 2009). These three needs are considered fundamental and are pursued by employees.

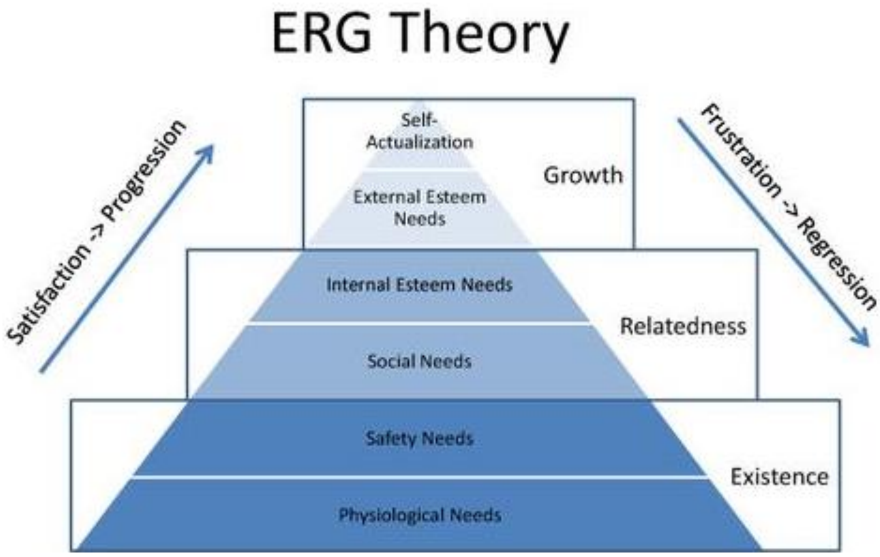

Figure 3: ERG Theory. Source: mbaknol.com

In Alderfer's model, existence needs encompass the psychological and safety needs previously identified in Maslow's hierarchy, relating to our basic survival as humans (Küçüközkan, 2015). This includes the need for water, food, good health, a sense of safety, and shelter. According to the theory, without the satisfaction of these basic survival needs, individuals cannot effectively focus on higher-level needs.

Relatedness needs refer to the desire of individuals to connect and build relationships with others (Küçüközkan, 2015). This highlights the importance of interpersonal relationships in the workplace and the need for social connections and interactions.

Growth needs revolve around an individual's need for personal development, creativity, and meaningful work (Küçüközkan, 2015). It encompasses the desire to explore one's potential and achieve personal growth within a specific environment.

By categorizing needs into these three groups, Alderfer's ERG Approach provides a framework for understanding employees' motivations and the factors that contribute to their well-being and satisfaction in the workplace.

In contrast to Maslow's hierarchy, Alderfer's ERG Approach introduces three key relationships among the different categories of needs: Satisfaction-progression, Frustration-regression, and Satisfaction-strengthening (Brooks, 2009). One of the notable differences is that Alderfer's theory suggests that the satisfaction of one need does not necessarily lead to the satisfaction of other needs, unlike Maslow's theory (Brooks, 2009).

The satisfaction-progression principle in Alderfer's approach highlights that the pursuit of one need does not imply the satisfaction of other needs (Brooks, 2009). For example, an individual's attempt to satisfy their growth needs does not automatically satisfy their existence or relatedness needs.

The frustration-regression principle suggests that if a need at a higher level is not satisfied, an individual might regress and shift their focus to fulfilling needs at a lower level (Brooks, 2009). For instance, if ambitious employees lack growth opportunities, they may become frustrated and shift their focus to fulfilling their relatedness needs by seeking more social interactions with their team members. If those relatedness needs also remain unsatisfied, they may regress further to satisfy their existence needs.

The satisfaction-strengthening principle explains that individuals may continuously seek the satisfaction of a need that is already fulfilled due to their failure to satisfy another set of needs (Brooks, 2009). This principle acknowledges that individuals can experience a dynamic interplay between different needs.

Unlike Maslow's sequential approach, Alderfer's ERG Theory recognizes that different levels of needs can be satisfied simultaneously rather than in a strict hierarchy (Brooks, 2009). According to the ERG Theory, the simultaneous satisfaction of existence, relatedness, and growth needs is crucial for individuals to feel truly motivated. Therefore, managers should aim to promote all elements of the ERG

Theory simultaneously to enhance motivation. Focusing on only one or two aspects of the theory, or ignoring one of the need groups, can lead to ineffective motivation strategies (Brooks, 2009).

b. Process Theories of Motivation

Content theories, Which revolve around the question of what motivates people, primarily focus on job satisfaction. They prescribe the specific needs and values that must be fulfilled in a job to attain positive job satisfaction (Küçüközkan, 2015). Conversely, process theories concentrate on the cognitive processes and mechanisms underlying motivation. They seek to explain how motivation occurs and explore the dynamics of effort and performance results (Küçüközkan, 2015). While content theories address the practical aspect of motivation, process theories delve into the cognitive aspects and elucidate the cognitive processes of motivated individuals (Tosi & Mero). In summary, content theories emphasize the factors driving motivation and job satisfaction, while process theories elucidate the cognitive processes and decision-making mechanisms involved in motivation.

i. Vroom's Expectancy Theory

Vroom's theory, known as the VIE theory, is based on three components: valence, instrumentality, and expectancy (Erez & Isen, 2002). According to Vroom, motivation is influenced by the interplay of these three factors. Valence is the term used to describe the importance or value an individual assigns to a particular action or result, taking into account their personal needs, desires, and anticipations (Vroom, 1964). It represents the subjective assessment of whether the outcome is worthwhile or not. The value employees assign to the rewards of an outcome must be significant enough to drive their behavior (Brooks, 2009).

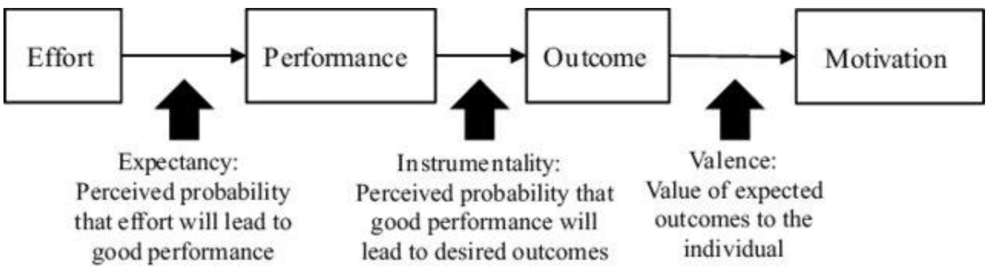

Figure 4: Vroom's (1964) Expectancy Theory. (sourced from http://faculty.css.edu/dswenson/web/OB/VIEtheory.html)

Instrumentality, on the other hand, pertains to individuals' perception of whether the reward will be delivered and their expectations will be fulfilled. It reflects employees' confidence that their efforts in accomplishing a specific task will lead to the desired outcome, such as a payment, promotion, or recognition (Küçüközkan, 2015).

Expectancy, which is the third component of Vroom's theory, is a belief that one's efforts will lead to the desired performance or outcome (Erez & Isen, 2002). Expectancy is affected by factors such as prior experiences, the perceived difficulty of the goal, and self-confidence (Landy, 1978). Individuals will be motivated, in accordance with Vroom, when they feel that their effort will result in performance, when there is a clear connection between performance and desired results, and when the results are important to them (Suciu, Mortan & Lazr, 2013).

Vroom emphasizes that the absence of any of these three factors can diminish individuals' motivation. To maintain and enhance motivation, it is crucial for managers to consider and address the valence, instrumentality, and expectancy aspects of their employees' work and rewards.

ii. Porter and Lawler' Expectancy Theory

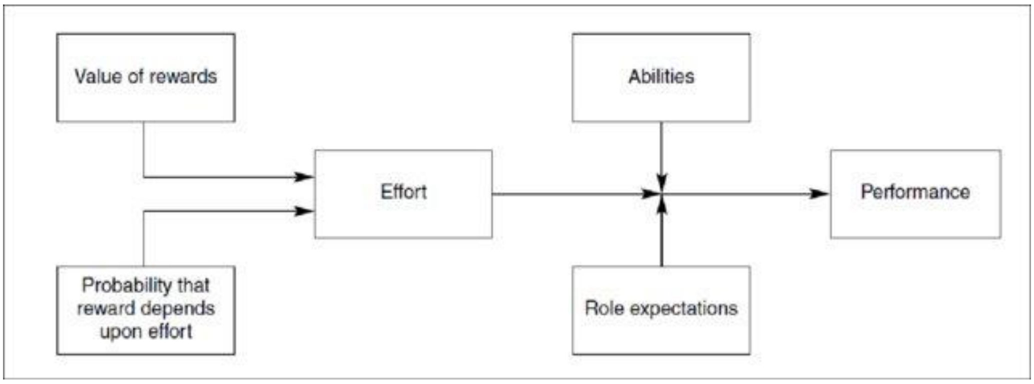

Figure 5: Porter & Lawler (1968)

Porter and Lawler expanded on Vroom's expectancy theory by emphasizing the relationship between performance and satisfaction (Brooks, 2009). They agreed with Vroom's model that if individuals believe that increased effort will lead to better performance, and better performance will subsequently result in satisfaction, they will be motivated (Küçüközkan, 2015). However, Porter and Lawler introduced the idea that performance is not solely driven by effort; it is influenced by factors such as personal ability, skills, character, knowledge, and role perception (Luthans, 2011).

They argued that even with high levels of effort, performance will not be satisfactory without the appropriate qualifications (Brooks, 2009).

Porter and Lawler aimed to provide a solid theoretical foundation for Vroom's model and further develop it by considering the improvement of organizational conditions (Küçüközkan, 2015). Their contributions built upon Vroom's expectancy theory and added additional insights into the role of individual qualifications and the influence of organizational factors on motivation and performance.

iii. Equity Theory

According to equity theory, understanding the motivational forces behind people's actions requires examining the value aspects of motivation. John Stacey Adams proposed this theory in 1963, highlighting the importance of fairness and equity (Brooks, 2009). Equity theory suggests that employees are motivated by comparing their own efforts to both internal and external standards (Fisher, 2009). Individuals constantly evaluate their contributions to the job and the rewards they receive, ensuring that they are fairly compensated in relation to their peers. They also take into account the inputs and outputs of their colleagues in this evaluation process (Luthans, 2011).

The central focus of Adams' theory is the perception of justice and the fairness of resource distribution among relational partners (Küçüközkan, 2015). Equity theory posits that individuals inherently calculate the ratio between their inputs (e.g., hard work, knowledge, skills) and outputs (e.g., pay increase, promotion, recognition) (Landy, 1978). They compare what they have given and what they have received in comparison to others to determine whether the distribution of resources is fair. If individuals perceive inequity, feeling that they are not fairly rewarded or treated in comparison to others, they experience distress and may adjust their inputs to restore equity (Brooks, 2009).

According to equity theory, achieving a strong and productive relationship with employees and creating a motivating work environment requires establishing a fair balance in the distribution of resources. Without addressing perceived inequities, it is challenging to foster positive relationships and maintain employee motivation.

$$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} < \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other'sinputs}}$$

$$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} > \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other's inputs}}$$

Equity occurs when

$$\frac{\text{person's outcomes}}{\text{person's inputs}} = \frac{\text{other's outcomes}}{\text{other's inputs}}$$

Figure 6: Schematical Representation of Equity Theory. (Luthans, 2011)

iv. Self Determination Theory (SDT)

In the mid-1980s, Edward Deci and Richard Ryan introduced a novel approach to understanding human behavior and motivation called Self-Determination Theory (SDT) (Pinkas, 2020). SDT posits that overall motivation overall motivation is not exclusively described by a disrupted balance of demands and instrumental conditioning, but rather by a complicated interacting process between external and internal control. According to SDT, for people to feel motivated, three fundamental psychological needs (autonomy, competence, and relatedness) must be met (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017). When these needs are fulfilled, individuals become motivated and perform better in their workplace.

Deci and Ryan expanded on traditional approaches to motivation by illustrating motivation along a continuum consisting of three main types: amotivation, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation. They also integrated various regulatory styles into their theory, moving beyond the unitary concept of motivation and providing a more comprehensive model that differentiates between types of motivation. This extensive and empirically grounded model encompasses sub motivational drives under the categories of Intrinsic Motivation and Extrinsic Motivation, as well as the presence of a state where no motivational drive exists (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017). Since its introduction, SDT has gained significant appreciation among scholars and has become an integral part of the motivation literature. The application of SDT in research studies on motivation has also seen a significant increase.

As Pinkas vividly puts it, through SDT, Deci and Ryan provided an illustration of motivation as "a continuum that begins with amotivation, goes through different levels of extrinsic motivation (external regulation, introjected regulation, identified regulation), and finally ends with intrinsic motivation (internal regulation)" (Pinkas, 2020).

A closer look at SDT enables us to see that the two scholars simply defined amotivation as the absence of any motivation (Deci & Ryan, 2008). It refers to the lack of self-determination in individuals' actions. On the other hand, intrinsic motivation was defined as performing an activity mainly due to its inherent satisfactions. Intrinsically motivated individuals are completely controlled by internal sources and behave in a way that pursues inherent satisfaction, such as the search for novelty or the extension of capacity (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017).

Deci and Ryan defined extrinsic motivation as individuals' motivation that is controlled and regulated by external circumstances unrelated to the activity itself (Dinçer & Yeşilyurt, 2017). According to SDT, extrinsic motivation is composed of three sub-motivation drives known as identified regulation, introjected regulation, and external regulation. External regulation in its broadest sense, refers to motivation driven by rewards, punishments, or constraints. Externally regulated employees do not feel any attachment to the activity itself; their motivation stems from the evaluation of tangible consequences (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017).

Introjected regulation refers to individuals' internalization of the idea that the task is important. It involves motivation driven by the internalized rules and demands, as individuals seek to avoid a sense of guilt for harming their environment. Individuals who perceive their environment as controlling and feel pressured to complete tasks fall into this category (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017).

Lastly, identified regulation dimension refers to individuals' motivation based on understanding the rationale and value of the tasks. They are motivated because they see the reasons behind the tasks and acknowledge their importance (Kırkağaç & Öz, 2017).

By providing a comprehensive framework with different types and dimensions of motivation, SDT offers insights into the multifaceted nature of motivation. Understanding these dimensions can inform interventions and create environments that support autonomy, competence, and relatedness needs, promoting intrinsic motivation and overall well-being (Pinkas, 2020).

III. THEORETICAL FRAMEWORK AND HYPOTHESIS DEVELOPMENT

A. Theoretical Framework

According to Nguyen, Mujtaba, and Ruijs (2014), motivation is what drives a person's behavior, level of effort, and persistence. Expectancy theory explains how employees choose their behaviors based on their perception of the outcomes that will follow (Vroom, 1964; Latham & Pinder, 2005). This theory states that workers are motivated to complete a task if they feel their effort will result in high performance, and good performance will result in a desired result or reward.

Leadership styles can significantly impact employee motivation. Transformational leadership theory suggests that leaders can tap into followers' needs and connect them with their internal satisfaction and motivation, which becomes a critical factor in employee engagement with organizational goals (Kahn, 1990). As per Zareen, Razzaq, and Mujtaba (2013), this style of leadership cultivates employees who are motivated and engaged, fully committing to their roles and tasks while experiencing heightened job satisfaction.

On the other hand, transactional leadership focuses on the achievement of specific goals through a system of rewards and penalties (Bass & Avolio, 1994). In this leadership style, leaders inspire followers by establishing clear objectives and providing rewards for achieving them or penalties for failing to meet them. While this leadership style may be effective in certain situations, it has been criticized for being overly controlling and not fostering creativity or innovation (Zareen et al., 2013).

Leaders who adopt a laissez-faire leadership style advocate for unrestricted tolerance, and the team often becomes disorganized. The leader guides followers through the decision-making process but does not actively participate in decision-making. According to Zareen et al. (2013), this leadership style provides followers the chance to make decisions, use their skills, and learn from their failures, which can lead to employee commitment and longer tenure in the organization.

Figure 7. describes the theoretical framework of the study.

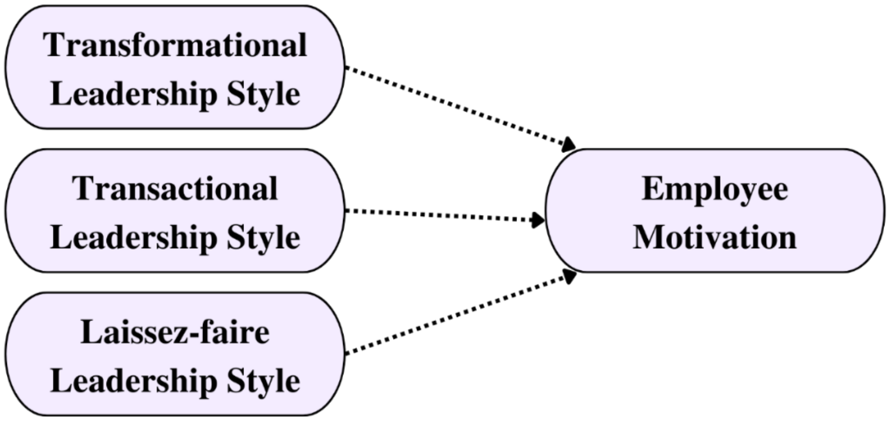

Figure 7. Theoretical framework of the study

To gather information from employees and analyze the connection between various leadership styles and employee motivation, the suggested study employed a survey approach. Regression analysis was utilized in the study to evaluate the hypotheses and assess how strongly the variables were related.

B. Hypothesis Development

Numerous studies have looked at the connection between organizational leadership styles and employee motivation. Naile & Selesho (2014) argue that investigating this link is crucial for firms. In the past, leaders primarily focused on organizational performance, productivity, and sales, often neglecting human factors and thus having an unclear relationship with their stakeholders, particularly employees who are responsible for transforming the firm's vision into reality (Chipunza, Samuel, & Mariri, 2011). Leaders need to recognize that different individuals are motivated by different factors, such as monetary rewards or recognition and appreciation, as emphasized by Basford and Ofermann (2012). Therefore, customized strategies must be developed to provide rewards that are specific to the needs of each employee, such as job security, compensation, recognition, or power. Flexible leadership styles have been found to have a positive correlation with employee motivation, according to studies by Chipunza et al. (2011) and Naile & Selesho (2014), as opposed to rigid styles.

1. The impact of transformational leadership on Employee Motivation

The vision, charisma, and intellectual stimulation of transformational leaders, according to Bass and Riggio (2006), inspire and encourage their followers. They focus on individualized consideration and create a supportive work environment that autonomy, encourages creativity, and personal growth.

Bass and Riggio (2006) argue that transformational leaders, through their charisma, vision, and intellectual stimulation, inspire and motivate their followers. They place a high emphasis on individual consideration, fostering a positive work environment that encourages autonomy, creativity, and personal growth.

Research by Liu, Siu, and Shi (2010) and Wang & Howell (2012), among others, has demonstrated a positive correlation between transformational leadership and increased productivity, job satisfaction, and employee motivation. The behaviors and communication styles of leaders significantly impact employee attitudes and behaviors. Leaders who offer individualized attention, support, and guidance can enhance employee self-efficacy, a critical factor in motivating individuals to perform at higher levels.

Furthermore, transformational leadership can foster a positive organizational culture that supports employee motivation. By emphasizing values and objectives that align with employees' own aspirations and beliefs, leaders can establish a shared sense of purpose and significance that motivates employees to work together towards a common goal (Sosik & Godshalk, 2000).

However, as highlighted by a study by Lin, Scott, and Matta (2019), while transformational leadership can enhance employees' intrinsic motivation, it can also create pressure to conform to the leader's values and goals, which may reduce employees' autonomy and lower their motivation. Additionally, Erdogan & Bauer (2010) discovered that human characteristics including personality features might affect how transformational leadership and employee engagement are related. The above discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H_1: Transformational leadership will have a positive impact on employee motivation.

2. The impact of transactional leadership on Employee Motivation

Transactional leadership is a style that emphasizes task completion, sets clear objectives and expectations, and uses rewards and penalties to encourage desirable behaviors in employees (Bass, 1985). Numerous studies have been conducted to examine the impact of transactional leadership on employee motivation.

A study by Ahmad et al. (2015) found that transactional leadership had a positive effect on employee motivation. The research identified a positive relationship between transactional leadership styles, including contingent reward, active management by exception, and passive management by exception, and employee motivation. According to the researchers, transactional leaders can motivate their employees by establishing clear expectations, providing feedback, and offering rewards for outstanding performance.

However, some studies have also shown that transactional leadership may have negative effects on employee motivation. Hinkin and Tracey's (2000) study found that certain transactional leadership behaviors, such as micromanaging, controlling, and using punishment to correct mistakes, could lead to decreased employee motivation. The research suggests that employees who feel excessively controlled and monitored may experience reduced motivation and job satisfaction, resulting in lower levels of organizational commitment and higher turnover rates.

Hence, it can be postulated that the specific leadership behaviors exhibited by the leader will determine how transactional leadership affects employee motivation. Transactional leadership can positively influence employee motivation when a leader uses constructive feedback and rewards to encourage desirable behaviors. However, if the leader exhibits controlling and micromanaging behaviors, it can have a negative impact on employee motivation. Thus, the specific behaviors displayed by the transactional leader determine whether their leadership style has a positive or negative impact on employee motivation. The above discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H_2: Transformational leadership will have a positive impact on employee motivation.

3. The impact of the Laissez-faire leadership on Employee Motivation

As per Zareen, Razzaq, and Ramzan (2013), laissez-faire leadership is typified by leaders taking a non-interventionist stance, offering limited direction and empowering followers to make their own decisions. This style of leadership is often associated with a lack of direction, accountability, and feedback, which can result in reduced employee motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006).

Laissez-faire leaders typically refrain from actively directing or controlling their followers. Instead, they maintain a low-profile approach, showing respect to all stakeholders, avoiding disruptions, and relying on a small group of trusted individuals to accomplish tasks (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012).

These leaders accept the existing organizational structure without offering guidance or critique. They establish goals and objectives only when necessary and avoid micromanagement. Communication is minimal, limited to essential conversations. Laissez-faire leaders do not prioritize employee development because they feel people are capable of taking care of themselves (Wong & Giessner, 2015).

Research consistently indicates a negative relationship between laissez-faire leadership and employee motivation (Chipunza et al., 2011). Recent studies suggest that this leadership style can contribute to increased work stress and workplace bullying, while decreasing work confidence (Che et al., 2017; Glambek, Skogstad & Einarsen, 2018). Additionally, laissez-faire leadership has been linked to negative outcomes such as stress, burnout, emotional exhaustion, and low job satisfaction (Madera, Dawson & Guchait, 2016). It is also associated with poor organizational citizenship behaviors, employee performance, and commitment (Podsakoff et al., 2000).

It should be noted that in certain situations, laissez-faire leadership may be suitable, especially when employees are highly skilled and experienced (Chaudhry & Javed, 2012). Some research suggests that this leadership style can increase employee motivation by allowing more freedom and flexibility in decision-making (Zhu et al., 2011). However, it is crucial to recognize that, in general, laissez-faire leadership has a detrimental influence on employee motivation. However, the success of this leadership style varies depending on the conditions and qualities of the individuals being led. The above discussion leads to the following hypothesis:

H_3: Laissez-faire leadership style will have a positive impact on employee motivation.

IV. RESEARCH METHODOLOGY

The methodological part of the study includes the Target Group of Respondents, Scales, Sample Questions sections.

A. Target Group of Respondents

The target group of respondents for this study consisted of working professionals in various industries in Morocco. The questionnaire was distributed online through multiple channels, including personal networks and online groups, to reach a diverse range of individuals actively engaged in the workforce. The data was collected between April 2023 and May 2023. A total of 208 respondents participated in the survey, providing valuable insights into their perceptions and experiences related to the research topic. It is important to note that three responses were excluded from the analysis as the respondents identified themselves as students rather than employees. By including respondents from different companies and backgrounds, the study aimed to capture a broader perspective on the factors being investigated. The diverse composition of the sample enhances the generalizability of the findings and provides a more comprehensive understanding of the research phenomenon within the context of the Moroccan workforce.

B. Scales

1. Leadership Styles Scale

The abridged version of Northouse's (2001) Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire Form 6-S (MLQ-6S) produced by Bass and Avolio (1992) was used to measure Transactional and Transformational Leadership. The scale includes 21 elements that assess both transactional and transformative leadership. The test used a 5-point Likert scale, with response possibilities ranging from "strongly disagree" to "strongly agree." This instrument is widely considered as the most commonly used and well-validated leadership assessment tool in the world (Tejeda, 2001), and it has been used to measure transformational leadership systematically in a variety of organizational contexts and cultural settings (Northouse, 2001).

Several studies have shown a connection between transformational leadership traits and desirable organizational outcomes, such as effective change. Tejeda (2001) defines transformational leadership as four factors: idealized influence, customized concern, intellectual stimulation, and inspiring drive. The transactional scales include contingent compensation and management by exception (active and passive), as well as a scale dealing with laissez-faire leadership. Various methodologies have been used to establish the MLQ's dependability, such as analyzing rate-retest consistency, subordinate-superior agreement, and peer assessments based on small group performance (Bass, 1998).

Furthermore, studies have consistently found a positive relationship between transformative conduct and high MLQ ratings, as indicated by performance ratings from supervisors and direct reports, as well as traditional financial indicators (Bass, 1995). When using the MLQ in diverse organizational settings, similar findings have been reported (Bass, 1995). Significant evidence from Tejeda (2001) and Avolio and Bass (1999) research supports the MLQ's validity across several validity categories. Tejeda (2001) discovered early evidence of predictive and construct validity using a limited set of MLQ questions, with the transformational subscales demonstrating substantial inter-correlations, indicating convergent validity. Furthermore, the transformational leadership scales had negative relationships with both management-by-exception subscales and laissez-faire leadership, indicating that discriminant validity was supported.

2. Motivation Scale

The Work Extrinsic and Intrinsic Motivation Scale (WEIMS) established by Deci and Ryan (2008) was used in this investigation. The WEIMS scale is well known and used to measure employee motivation in a variety of business contexts. It is made up of 18 items that are scored on a 5-point Likert scale and evaluate inner motivation, extrinsic incentive, and task-related satisfaction. Previous research has established the construct validity and reliability of the measure.

Confirmatory factor analysis was used to verify the construct validity of the WEIMS scale, which confirmed that the scale's components load onto six separate latent constructs reflecting different motivational aspects. This research shows that the scale accurately measures the motivational components intended. Cronbach's alpha coefficients were also used to examine the scale's internal consistency dependability. Results consistently demonstrate satisfactory or good levels of internal consistency for each of the six subscales of the WEIMS, ranging from .60 to .84. These findings indicate that the scale reliably and consistently measures employee motivation across the assessed dimensions.

By utilizing the WEIMS scale, this study aims to comprehensively examine employee motivation within the specific research context. The scale's well-established validity and reliability make it a valuable tool for investigating the factors influencing and driving employee motivation, ultimately contributing to the advancement of knowledge in the field.

3. Sample Questions

Demographic section:

- Gender
- Age
- Number of Years you have been working.

Motivation Section: Why do you do your work?

- Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.
- For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.

Leadership Section: What is Your Perception of Your Supervisor's Behavior and Style?

- My leader makes employees feel good to be around him/her.
- My leader is contented to let others to continue working in the same ways always.

V. DATA ANALYSIS AND HYPOTHESIS TESTING

A. Sample

1. Gender

The sample for this study was carefully chosen to represent people working in diverse areas in Morocco. The survey received responses from 208 people. Three respondents, however, were recognized as students and were thus eliminated from the study, resulting in a final sample size of 205.

Table 1: Gender

	Frequency	Percent	Valid Percent	Cumulative Percent
Male	126	61.46	61.46	61.46
Female	79	38.54	38.54	100
Total	205	100	100	

The demographic analysis revealed a diverse sample in terms of gender, age, work experience, tenure in the current organization, and the sector of work. The gender distribution showed a higher representation of males (61.46%) compared to females (38.54%). (Table 1)

2. Age

Table 2: Age

Age	Frequency	Percent
22	11	5.4
26	11	5.4
27	10	4.9
45	8	3.9
39-77	165	80.49

Total	205	100
Missing	0	
Minimum	19	
Maximum	77	

The age distribution among the participants is quite diverse, spanning from 19 to 77 years. The age groups of 22 and 26 years are the most represented, each with 11 participants, accounting for 5.4% of the total sample. Following closely is the age group of 27 years with 10 participants, accounting for 4.9% of the sample, and the age group of 45 years with 8 participants, making up 3.9% of the sample. (Table 2)

This indicates that the sample includes a mix of early-career professionals, primarily in their early to mid-twenties, and mid-career professionals, around 45 years old. It's important to note that while the age range extends up to 77 years, two of the participants in this upper age range are already retired.

The age distribution is a significant component to examine in the study since it might impact the opinions and experiences of the participants in the workplace. For example, younger participants may have different views and experiences compared to older participants due to differences in work experience, career stage, and generational influences.

3. Overall Work Experience

Table 3: Overall Work Experience

Overall Work Years	Frequency	Percent
3	21	10.2
1	20	9.8
2	13	6.3
31	10	4.9
4-42	141	68.8
Total	205	100
Minimum	1	
Maximum	42	
Missing	0	

The overall work experience of the participants in the sample is quite varied, reflecting a broad spectrum of career stages. The work experience spans from 1 to 41 years. The most represented work experience is 3 years, with 21 participants, which accounts for 10.2% of the sample. Following closely, 20 participants have 1 year of work experience, making up 9.3% of the sample. Notably, 2 years of work experience is also well-represented, with 13 participants accounting for 6.3% of the sample. 10 participants (4.9%) have 31 years of experience, the rest of participants have between 4 to 42 years of experience. (Table 3)

This distribution indicates that the sample includes a mix of individuals who are relatively new to the workforce, those who have a few years of experience, and those who have spent a significant part of their career working. The wide range of work experience in the sample provides a comprehensive view of the workforce in Morocco, capturing the perspectives and experiences of individuals at different career stages. This variation in work experience is an essential issue to incorporate in the analysis since it might impact the participants' perspectives on many aspects of their work and workplace.

4. Years in Current Organization

Table 4: Years in Current Organization

Years	Frequency	Percent
1	35	17.07
2	21	10.24
3	15	7.32
4	11	5.37
5	6	2.93
6	5	2.44
7	2	0.98
8	7	3.41
9	3	1.46
10	9	4.39
11	1	0.49
12	3	1.46
13	4	1.95

14	7	3.41
15	8	3.90
16	2	0.98
17	4	1.95
18	4	1.95
19	2	0.98
20	3	1.46
21	1	0.49
22	2	0.98
23	4	1.95
24	1	0.49
25	4	1.95
26	5	2.44
27	4	1.95
28	1	0.49
29	2	0.98
30	4	1.95
31	7	3.41
32	4	1.95
33	3	1.46
34	2	0.98
35	1	0.49
39	2	0.98
40	2	0.98
41	1	0.49
42	1	0.49
Total	203	99.02
Missing	2	0.98
Total	205	100

The distribution of years that participants have been working in their current organization is also diverse, ranging from 1 to 41 years. The most represented year is 1 year, with 35 participants, which accounts for 17.1% of the sample. Following closely, 21 individuals have remained with their present employer for at least two years, accounting for 10.2% of the sample. Additionally, 15 participants have spent 3 years in their current organization, accounting for 7.3% of the sample. The 2 missing participants are the one already retired. (Table 4)

This suggests that a significant portion of the sample consists of individuals who are relatively new to their current organizations. However, the presence of individuals with up to 41 years of experience in their current organization indicates a substantial level of tenure and stability among some participants.

The wide range in the number of years working in the current organization provides a comprehensive view of organizational tenure among the workforce in Morocco. This variation in organizational tenure is a significant feature to examine in the study since it might impact participants' perspectives on numerous aspects of their work and workplace.

5. Working Sectors

Table 5: Working Sectors

	Frequency	Percent
Banque et finance	10	4.88
Construction and Design	3	1.46
Culture	2	0.98
Distribution	4	1.95
Education	54	26.34
Energy	3	1.46
Financial services	4	1.95
Food & Beverage	7	3.41
Healthcare	18	8.78
Industrial maintenance	1	0.49
Industrials (Manufacturing)	8	3.90
Insurance	1	0.49
IT	18	8.78
Logistics	1	0.49
Marketing	2	0.98
Mining	1	0.49
Non-governmental organization	4	1.95

Public sector	16	7.80
Real estate	3	1.46
Retail	31	15.12
Retired	1	0.49
Security Services	5	2.44
Service	1	0.49
Telecom and Trading	1	0.49
Textiles	3	1.46
Tourism	3	1.46
Total	205	100

Participants in the survey come from a variety of industries, representing the diversified nature of Morocco's workforce. The most represented sectors are Education, with 54 participants (26.3% of the sample), Retail, with 31 participants (15.1% of the sample), and Healthcare and IT, with 18 participants (8.8% of the sample) in each. (Table 5)

Additionally, there are participants from the IT sector, Public sector, and Food & Beverage sector, among others. The presence of participants from a broad range of sectors provides a comprehensive view of the working conditions and experiences across different industries in Morocco.

This sector variety is an essential component to incorporate in the study since it might impact participants' perspectives on numerous aspects of their employment and workplace. For instance, the experiences and perspectives of someone working in the Education sector might be different from those of someone working in the Retail or Healthcare sector.

B. Factor Analyses

Factor analysis is a statistical approach that is used to condense a large number of variables into a smaller set of relevant and representative variables. It assists in determining the dimensions that participants identify on a scale and recognizes which items correspond to the same dimension as in the original data (Durmus, B., Yurtkoru, S., & Inko, M., 2013).

The first stage in component analysis is to identify particular links or correlations between variables. This includes calculating the "Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Sampling Adequacy Coefficient (KMO)" and carrying out the "Bartlett Test of Sphericity." The bottom limit of the KMO, according to Durmus et al. (2013), is 0.50. A KMO rating of 1 shows that variables are perfectly predictable. The Bartlett Test assesses if there are enough correlations between variables to do component analysis, with a p-value of less than 0.05 suggesting adequate associations (Durmus, B., Yurtkoru, S., & Inko, M., 2013).

To establish relevance in the "Rotated Component Matrix," each variable's absolute value should be more than 0.5 (Durmus, B., Yurtkoru, S., & Inko, M., 2013).

1. Factor Analysis for Transformational Leadership

A dataset of 205 respondents and 12 variables was used for the Transformational Leadership scale factor analysis. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was employed for extraction. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) measure of sampling adequacy was found to be 0.945, which is significantly higher than the suggested value of 0.6, suggesting that the sample is well-suited for factor analysis.

Table 6: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Transformational Leadership

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.945
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1695.891
	df	66
	Sig.	<.001

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was similarly significant (approx. Chi-Square = 1695.891, df = 66, p.001), showing that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and hence appropriate for component analysis. (Table 6)

Table 7: Total Variance Explained for Transformational Leadership

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %

1	7.36	61.35	61.35	7.36	61.354	61.354
2	0.80	6.69	68.04			
3	0.64	5.30	73.34			
4	0.56	4.67	78.01			
5	0.51	4.22	82.22			
6	0.43	3.59	85.81			
7	0.39	3.23	89.04			
8	0.33	2.78	91.82			
9	0.31	2.60	94.42			
10	0.26	2.14	96.56			
11	0.23	1.88	98.44			
12	0.19	1.56	100			

The Total Variance Explained table shows that the first factor has an eigenvalue greater than 1, which is typically used as a cutoff for determining significant factors. This factor explains approximately 61.354% of the total variance in the data. (Table 7)

The Rotated Component Matrix is typically used when more than one factor is extracted in a factor analysis. In this case, only one factor was extracted, as indicated by the eigenvalue greater than 1 in the Total Variance Explained table. Therefore, the solution cannot be rotated, and the Rotated Component Matrix is not applicable.

The Component Matrix, which provides the factor loadings of each item on the single extracted factor, is the relevant matrix in this case. All items (Q1, Q2, Q3, Q4, Q8, Q9, Q10, Q11, Q15, Q16, Q17, and Q18) have high loadings on the single extracted factor, indicating that they all measure the same underlying construct of Transformational Leadership as shown in Table. (Table 8)

Table 8: Component Matrix for Transformational Leadership

	Component 1
Q1. My leader makes employees feel good to be around him/her	0.816
Q2. My leader tells others in a few simple words what needs to be done	0.759
Q3. My leader helps others to think about old problems in new ways	0.833

Q4. My leader helps other employees to develop themselves	0.845
Q8. Other people have complete faith in my leader.	0.735
Q9. My leader uses tools, images, stories and models to help other people understand.	0.746
Q10. My leader provides employees with new ways of looking at complex or difficult issues	0.825
Q11. My leader gives employees feedback to let them know how they are doing.	0.709
Q15. Other people are proud to be associated with my leader.	0.736
Q16. My leader helps the employees to find meaning in their work	0.826
Q17. My leader helps employees to rethink about issues that they had never thought of or questioned before	0.774
Q18. My leader gives personal attention to others when they are in need.	0.780

In conclusion, the factor analysis of the Transformational Leadership scale suggests that Transformational Leadership in this sample can be represented as a single-dimensional construct. All items in the scale are strongly associated with this construct and contribute to the measurement of Transformational Leadership.

2. Factor Analysis for Transactional Leadership

A dataset of 205 respondents and 6 variables was used for the Transactional Leadership scale factor analysis. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was employed for extraction. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy measure was determined to be 0.760, which is more than the suggested value of 0.6, suggesting that the sample is adequate for factor analysis.

Table 9: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Transactional Leadership

Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.76
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	263.44
	df	15
	Sig.	<.001

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was also significant (about Chi-Square = 263.437, df = 15, p.001), showing that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and hence eligible for component analysis. (Table 9)

Table 10: Total Variance Explained for Transactional Leadership

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	2.62	43.64	43.64	2.62	43.64	43.64	2.45	40.902	40.902
2	1.08	17.93	61.58	1.08	17.93	61.58	1.24	20.674	61.575
3	0.79	13.12	74.69						
4	0.64	10.71	85.40						
5	0.49	8.10	93.51						
6	0.39	6.49	100						

According to the Total Variance Explained table, the first two components have eigenvalues larger than 1, which is commonly used as a limit for selecting important variables. These two variables account for about 61.575% of the overall variation in the data. The first component accounts for 40.902% of the variation, while the second accounts for an additional 20.674%. (Table 10)

Table 11: Rotated Component Matrix for Transactional Leadership

	Component	
	1	2
Q5. My leader tells employees what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work	0.682	0.208
Q6. My leader is satisfied when employees meet the agreed targets.	0.383	0.642
Q12. My leader rewards employees when they achieve their targets.	0.822	-0.016
Q13. As long as things are working, my leader does not try to change anything.	-0.071	0.862

Q19. My leader lets employees to know what they are entitled to after achieving their targets.	0.812	0.021
Q20. My leader reminds employees the standards they need to maintain while doing their work.	0.709	0.204

The Rotated Component Matrix shows each item's factor loadings on the extracted factors following rotation. The relationships between the items and the factors are represented by factor loadings. Items having a high loading on a specific factor are thought to be highly connected with that factor. Items Q5, Q12, Q19, and Q20 have strong loadings on the first factor in our study, indicating that they assess a specific feature of Transactional Leadership. Q6 and Q13 have strong loadings on the second component, indicating that they assess another facet of Transactional Leadership. (Table 11)

Factor 1: "Reward Communication". This factor contains elements Q5, Q12, Q19, and Q20, all of which concern the leader speaking about incentives and expectations. These items include the leader telling employees what they need to do to be rewarded (Q5), rewarding employees when they meet their targets (Q12), informing employees of their entitlements after meeting their targets (Q19), and reminding employees of the standards they must maintain in their work (Q20).

Factor 2: "Performance Satisfaction and Stability". This factor contains elements Q6 and Q13, which deal with the leader's satisfaction with the performance of staff and reluctance to change. These items specifically entail the leader being satisfied when personnel reach agreed-upon objectives (Q6) and not attempting to modify anything as long as things are working (Q13).

Finally, the component analysis of the Transactional Leadership scale reveals that Transactional Leadership may be represented as a two-dimensional concept in this sample. The specific interpretation of these factors is based on the items that load highly on each factor. The first factor might be related to the leader's communication about rewards and expectations, while the second factor might be related to the leader's satisfaction with employees' performance and resistance to change.

3. Factor Analysis for Laissez-faire Leadership

A dataset comprising 205 respondents and three variables was used for the factor analysis of the Laissez-Faire Leadership scale. Principal Component Analysis

(PCA) was employed for extraction. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy measure was determined to be 0.575, which is somewhat less than the suggested value of 0.6, suggesting that the sample is marginally acceptable for factor analysis.

Table 12: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Laissez-faire Leadership

		0.575
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	16.653
	df	3.000
	Sig.	<.001

The Bartlett's Test of Sphericity was similarly significant (approx. Chi-Square = 16.653, df = 3, p.001), showing that the correlation matrix is not an identity matrix and hence appropriate for factor analysis. (Table 12)

Table 13: Total Variance Explained for Laissez-faire Leadership

	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings		
Component	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	1.343	44.752	44.752	1.343	44.752	44.752
2	0.857	28.582	73.334			
3	0.800	26.666	100			

The Total Variance Explained table shows that the first factor has an eigenvalue greater than 1, which is typically used as a cutoff for determining significant factors. This factor explains approximately 44.752% of the total variance in the data. (Table 13)

Only one factor was extracted, as indicated by the eigenvalue greater than 1 in the Total Variance Explained table. Therefore, the solution cannot be rotated, and the Rotated Component Matrix is not applicable.

Table 14: Component Matrix for Laissez-faire Leadership

	Component
	1
Q7. My leader is contented to let others to continue working in the same ways always	0.699
Q14. My leader gives employees freedom to do whatever they want.	0.634
Q21. My leader does not ask anything more from others than what is absolutely necessary.	0.672

The Component Matrix, which provides the factor loadings of each item on the single extracted factor, is the relevant matrix in this case. All items (Q7, Q14, and Q21) have high loadings on the single extracted factor, indicating that they all measure the same underlying construct of Laissez-Faire Leadership, which we have named "Leadership Non-Interference". (Table 14)

The component analysis of the Laissez-Faire Leadership scale reveals that Laissez-Faire Leadership may be represented as a single-dimensional construct in this sample. All elements on the scale are strongly related with this concept and help to gauge Laissez-Faire Leadership.

4. Factor Analysis for employee motivation

Table 15: KMO and Bartlett's Test for Motivation

KMO and Bartlett's Test		
Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin Measure of Sampling Adequacy.		0.849
Bartlett's Test of Sphericity	Approx. Chi-Square	1320.735
	df	153
	Sig.	<.001

A dataset comprising 205 respondents and 18 variables was used for the factor analysis of the employee motivation scale. Principal Component Analysis (PCA) was utilized for extraction, while Varimax was employed for rotation. The Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) sampling adequacy measure was determined to be 0.849, which is greater than the suggested value of 0.6, suggesting that the sample is adequate for factor analysis. (Table 15)

Table 16: Total Variance Explained for Motivation

Component	Initial Eigenvalues			Extraction Sums of Squared Loadings			Rotation Sums of Squared Loadings		
	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %	Total	% of Variance	Cumulative %
1	5.983	33.239	33.239	5.983	33.239	33.239	4.031	22.396	22.396
2	1.824	10.135	43.374	1.824	10.135	43.374	2.903	16.126	38.522
3	1.460	8.112	51.486	1.460	8.112	51.486	1.812	10.067	48.589
4	1.115	6.193	57.678	1.115	6.193	57.678	1.636	9.090	57.678
5	0.867	4.818	62.496						
6	0.833	4.630	67.126						
7	0.763	4.238	71.364						
8	0.729	4.052	75.416						
9	0.690	3.836	79.251						
10	0.576	3.199	82.451						
11	0.572	3.175	85.626						
12	0.514	2.855	88.481						
13	0.469	2.606	91.087						
14	0.399	2.216	93.303						

15	0.363	2.017	95.320
16	0.321	1.782	97.102
17	0.275	1.528	98.631
18	0.246	1.369	100

The Total Variance Explained table shows that the first four factors have eigenvalues greater than 1, which is typically used as a cutoff for determining significant factors. These four factors together explain approximately 57.678% of the total variance in the data. The first factor explains 33.239% of the variance, the second factor explains an additional 10.135%, the third factor explains an additional 8.112%, and the fourth factor explains an additional 6.193%. (Table 16)

Table 17: Rotated Component Matrix for Motivation

	Component			
	1	2	3	4
Q1. Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.	0.591	0.108	-0.069	0.387
Q2. For the income it provides me.	0.269	0.148	0.033	0.762
Q3. I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.	0.007	-0.298	0.627	-0.013
Q4. Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things.	0.549	0.407	-0.138	0.013
Q5. Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am.	0.363	0.633	-0.005	-0.093
Q6. Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.	0.567	0.323	0.342	0.001
Q7. Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.	0.663	0.270	-0.060	0.240
Q8. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges.	0.741	0.299	-0.073	-0.013

Q9. Because it allows me to earn money.	-0.001	-0.029	0.076	0.797
Q10. Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.	0.464	0.485	-0.084	0.210
Q11. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.	0.503	0.475	0.214	-0.102
Q12. I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.	-0.020	0.061	0.804	-0.015
Q13. Because I want to be a "winner" in life.	0.713	-0.037	0.162	0.085
Q14. Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives.	0.710	0.198	-0.107	0.147
Q15. For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.	0.564	0.447	0.017	-0.037
Q16. Because this type of work provides me with security.	0.136	0.713	0.083	0.307
Q17. I don't know, too much is expected of us.	-0.023	0.259	0.719	0.156
Q18. Because this job is a part of my life.	0.220	0.817	0.020	0.035

The Rotated Component Matrix shows each item's factor loadings on the extracted factors following rotation. The relationships between the items and the factors are represented by factor loadings. Items having a high loading on a specific factor are thought to be highly connected with that factor. A threshold of 0.5 was employed in this investigation to detect high loadings. (Table 17)

The first factor, which could be named "Intrinsic Motivation", includes items Q1, Q4, Q6, Q7, Q8, Q11, Q13, Q14, and Q15. These items are strongly associated with this factor and may represent aspects of motivation related to personal satisfaction and achievement.

The second factor, potentially named "Identity-Related Motivation", includes items Q5, Q10, Q16, and Q18. These items are strongly associated with this factor and may represent aspects of motivation related to the role of work in one's life and identity.

The third factor, which could be named "Challenge-Related Motivation", includes items Q3, Q12, and Q17. These items are strongly associated with this factor and may represent aspects of motivation related to challenges and expectations at work.

The fourth factor, potentially named "Financial Motivation", includes items Q2 and Q9. These items are strongly associated with this factor and may represent aspects of motivation related to financial aspects.

In conclusion, the factor analysis of the motivation scale suggests that motivation in this sample can be represented as a multi-dimensional construct consisting of four factors: Intrinsic Motivation, Identity-Related Motivation, Challenge-Related Motivation, and Financial Motivation. The specific interpretation of these factors is based on the items that load highly on each factor.

C. Reliability Analysis

Cronbach's Alpha was used to determine the internal consistency of a collection of scale or test items in this study to assess the measurement's reliability (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011). Cronbach's Alpha, which ranges from 0 to 1, offers an overall rating of the measure's dependability.

The Alpha coefficient will be 0 if the scale items are completely independent and have no correlation. If the items have a high correlation, the Alpha coefficient approaches one, suggesting good consistency and a shared assessment of the underlying idea (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

A "good" Alpha coefficient is subjective and is based on theoretical understanding of the scale. Many methodologists, however, propose a minimum Alpha coefficient of 0.65 to 0.8, or higher in some circumstances. Alpha coefficients less than 0.5 are typically considered undesirable, especially for scales that purport to assess a single dimension (Tavakol & Dennick, 2011).

The Statistical Package for the Social Sciences (SPSS), a widely used software in social scientific research for statistical analysis, including reliability analysis, was employed in this work.

Table 18: Reliability Analysis for Transformational Leadership

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.942	12

The Transformational Leadership Scale was comprised of 12 items in this study. This scale's Cronbach's Alpha value is 0.942. This is considered a high degree of dependability because it exceeds the required threshold of 0.7. This shows that the questions on this scale are connected as a group and are most likely assessing the same underlying idea, Transformational Leadership. (Table 18)

Table 19: Reliability Analysis for Transactional Leadership

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.714	6

The Transactional Leadership scale included 6 items and a Cronbach's Alpha rating of 0.714. This is somewhat higher than the required threshold of 0.7, indicating a reasonable level of dependability. This suggests that the items on this scale are reasonably connected as a set and are most likely assessing the same underlying concept, Transactional Leadership. (Table 19)

Table 20: Reliability Analysis for Laissez-faire Leadership

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.382	3

The Laissez-Faire Leadership scale has three components. Cronbach's Alpha for this scale was 0.382, which is less than the acceptable level of 0.7. This shows that the items on the Laissez-Faire Leadership scale may not be measuring the same underlying concept consistently. (Table 20)

Table 21: Reliability Analysis for Motivation

Cronbach's Alpha	N of Items
0.848	18

The motivation scale consisted of 18 items.. This scale's Cronbach's Alpha value is 0.848. This is considered a high degree of dependability because it exceeds the required threshold of 0.7. This implies that the Motivation scale items reliably measure the Motivation construct. (Table 21)

In conclusion, the Cronbach's Alpha reliability analysis indicates that the Transformational Leadership, Transactional Leadership, and Motivation scales in this study have good to exceptional reliability. One possible constraint in our reliability investigation was the Laissez-Faire Leadership scale, which had a lower Cronbach's Alpha value. This might be due to a number of factors, including the scale's tiny number of elements or the components not being strongly connected to one another. To increase the dependability of the Laissez-Faire Leadership scale, future study might update the items or explore adding new things to the scale. More qualitative study may be conducted to better understand the concept of Laissez-Faire Leadership and how it can be measured most precisely. Despite this constraint, the overall findings of the reliability study give useful insights into measuring leadership styles and motivation in Morocco's private sector.

D. Hypothesis Testing

The aim of this chapter is to investigate the relationship between various leadership styles and employee motivation. We will specifically examine a set of hypotheses to identify the influence of transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership on employee motivation. The outcomes of this study will help us understand how leadership actions impact employee motivation in Morocco's private sector.

The hypotheses tested in this study are as follows:

- H_1: Transformational leadership will have a significant effect on employee motivation.
- H_2: Transactional leadership will have a significant effect on employee motivation.
- H_3: Laissez-faire leadership will have a significant effect on employee motivation.

Multiple regression analysis was used to examine the hypotheses. This statistical approach measures the interactions between several independent factors and a single dependent variable. In this study, we want to know how different leadership styles, such as transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership, affect employee motivation. This approach is particularly important since it not only identifies the existence of a link but also assesses its strength and direction. It enables us to manipulate other factors while focusing on the distinct influence of each leadership style on motivation. Before performing the regression analysis, for each scale, a new variable was created by averaging the replies to the corresponding questions. This was done in order to provide a single score for each component that could subsequently be utilized in the regression analysis.

The dependent variable in the analysis was employee motivation, represented by the average score of responses to motivation-related questions in the survey (Avg_MV). The three independent variables were Transactional leadership (Avg_TA), Transformational leadership (Avg_TF), and Laissez-faire leadership (Avg_LF). Each of these was represented by the average score of responses to the respective leadership style questions in the survey.

The regression analysis findings are displayed in four tables: the Model Summary table, ANOVA table, Coefficients table, and Collinearity Diagnostics table.

Table 22: Model Summary

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate
1	.479[a]	0.230	0.218	0.571

The Model Summary table summarizes the model's performance. The R-square value of.230 suggests that the three leadership styles explain roughly 23% of the variance in employee motivation. The adjusted R-square value of.218 accounts for the number of predictors in the model and indicates that if the model was constructed from the population rather than a sample, it would explain for about 21.8% of the variation in employee motivation. (Table 22)

Table 23: ANOVA

Model		Sum of Squares	df	Mean Square	F	Sig.
1	Regression	19.535	3	6.512	19.986	<.001[b]
	Residual	65.491	201	0.326		
	Total	85.026	204			

The ANOVA table determines if the regression model substantially outperforms no predictors in predicting the dependent variable (Avg_MV). The F-value of 19.986 and related p-value of less than.001 show that the model predicts employee motivation strongly. (Table 23)

Table 24: Coefficient

	Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients	t	Sig.	Collinearity Statistics	
	B	Std. Error	Beta			Tolerance	VIF
(Constant)	1.974	0.213		9.264	0.000		
Avg_TF	0.127	0.063	0.186	2.030	0.044	0.456	2.195
Avg_TA	0.222	0.081	0.260	2.723	0.007	0.421	2.375
Avg_LF	0.102	0.056	0.124	1.836	0.068	0.834	1.199

The Coefficients table offers further information on the effect of each predictor. The standardized coefficients (Beta) reveal the degree and direction of the relationship between each predictor and the dependent variable after correcting for the other predictors. (Table 24)

The average transformational leadership coefficient (Avg_TF) was found to be positive and statistically significant (= 0.127, p.05), showing that increasing transformational leadership has a positive influence on employee motivation. This highlights the importance of transformational leaders, such as those that inspire and empower their staff, on employee motivation.

Similarly, the coefficient for transactional leadership (Avg_TA) was positive and statistically significant ($\beta = 0.222$, $p < .01$), indicating a positive impact on employee motivation. Transactional leaders who provide clear expectations, rewards, and recognition for achieving targets and meeting performance standards can positively influence employee motivation.

However, the coefficient for laissez-faire leadership (Avg_LF), while positive, did not reach statistical significance ($\beta = 0.102$, $p > .05$). This suggests that while Laissez-faire leadership may have some influence on employee motivation, this effect is less consistent and may depend on other factors not included in the model.

The Collinearity Statistics section gives information on the model's multicollinearity. All predictors' Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values are substantially below 5, indicating that multicollinearity is not an issue in this model.

This study's findings confirm the assumptions that transformational and transactional leadership have good effects on employee motivation. These findings are consistent with earlier studies highlighting the significance of transformational and transactional leadership actions in generating employee motivation. These leaders may inspire and encourage their people by offering a clear vision, setting high standards, and recognizing their accomplishments.

Although the coefficient for laissez-faire leadership was positive, the lack of statistical significance suggests caution in interpreting the impact on employee motivation. Laissez-faire leadership, characterized by a hands-off approach and limited guidance, may not significantly contribute to enhancing employee motivation in this particular context.

The study's conclusions have significant significance for private-sector firms and managers. Understanding the influence of various leadership styles on employee motivation may help shape leadership development programs and tactics targeted at increasing staff engagement and performance. To establish a compelling work environment, organizations might benefit from fostering and developing transformational and transactional leadership behaviors.

The study's conclusions have significant significance for private-sector firms and managers. Understanding the influence of various leadership styles on employee motivation may help shape leadership development programs and tactics targeted at increasing staff engagement and performance. To establish a compelling work environment, organizations might benefit from fostering and developing transformational and transactional leadership behaviors.

Additional factors that may impact the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation, such as corporate culture, job characteristics, and personality variations, should be investigated in future study. Longitudinal research can help us gain a better understanding of the dynamic nature of leadership and its influence on employee motivation across time. Furthermore, performing comparison research across other businesses or cultural settings might improve our understanding of the findings' generalizability.

Moreover, it is worth investigating the mediating mechanisms that may explain the relationship between leadership styles and employee motivation. For example, studies could explore the role of psychological empowerment, job satisfaction, or organizational commitment as potential mediators in this relationship. Understanding these underlying processes can provide valuable insights into how leadership behaviors translate into enhanced employee motivation.

Furthermore, it is critical to note the study's limitations. The data were acquired from a specific sample of employees in Morocco's private sector, which may restrict the findings' generalizability to other contexts. To improve the external validity of the findings, future research should seek to include a more varied and representative population.

VI. DISCUSSION AND CONCLUSION

Table 25: Hypotheses Outcomes on the Impact of Leadership Styles on Employee Motivation

Hypothesis	Supported / Not Supported
Transformational Leadership will have a positive impact on employee motivation	**Supported**
Transactional Leadership will have a positive impact on employee motivation.	**Supported**
Laissez-Faire Leadership will have a positive impact on employee motivation.	**Not Supported**

The journey of this research has been both enlightening and challenging, providing a comprehensive exploration into the realm of leadership styles and their impact on employee motivation. This final chapter aims to encapsulate the essence of the preceding chapters, drawing connections between the literature review, the survey findings, and the broader implications of this study.

In the literature review, we delved into the intricacies of leadership styles, particularly transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire leadership. The review highlighted the work of Zhu, Chew, and Spangler (2005), who emphasized the transformative power of CEOs' transformational leadership in enhancing human resource management and, consequently, organizational outcomes. This study supports our findings, which demonstrate that transformational leadership has a positive and statistically significant influence on employee motivation (= 0.127, p.05). This implies that leaders who inspire and empower their staff have a major impact on employee motivation.

Similarly, the examination of research pointed to the success of transactional leadership, a style distinguished by clear expectations, rewards, and acknowledgment for meeting goals. The results of our poll confirmed this, with transactional leadership having a positive and statistically significant influence on employee motivation (= 0.222, p.01). However, while laissez-faire leadership was beneficial, it did not achieve statistical significance (= 0.102, p >.05), indicating that its impact on employee motivation is less constant and may be influenced by other characteristics not included in the model.

The survey results also provided a comprehensive understanding of employee motivation. The Rotated Component Matrix for Motivation (Table 17) revealed various factors that motivate employees, ranging from personal satisfaction to financial incentives. For instance, the satisfaction derived from taking on interesting challenges (0.741) and the desire to be a "winner" in life (0.713) were among the highest-rated motivational factors. These findings suggest that motivation is a multifaceted construct, influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factors.

The survey data statistical analysis offered a solid foundation for our conclusions. All predictors' Variance Inflation Factor (VIF) values were significantly below 5, indicating that multicollinearity was not an issue in this model. This demonstrates that correlations among predictors had no undue impact on the links between predictors (leadership styles) and outcomes (employee motivation).

These results have far-reaching ramifications. They emphasize the significance of both transformational and transactional leadership in developing a motivated workforce. They do, however, emphasize the complexities of motivation, implying that a one-size-fits-all strategy may be ineffective. Leaders must therefore adjust their style to their workers' specific requirements and objectives, creating an environment that promotes growth, contentment, and productivity.

As we look towards the future, it is clear that effective leadership is not merely about directing employees but about inspiring, empowering, and motivating them to reach their full potential. This research serves as a steppingstone towards understanding this dynamic, paving the way for future studies to explore this fascinating interplay between leadership and motivation.

Potential future research directions could include exploring the impact of these leadership styles across different sectors and cultures to gain a more nuanced understanding of their effects. Additionally, research could delve into the specific factors that may influence the effectiveness of laissez-faire leadership, given its less consistent impact on employee motivation. Further research could also explore the interplay between intrinsic and extrinsic motivational factors and how they are influenced by different leadership styles.

In evaluating various leadership styles, it becomes evident that no single approach is universally effective or detrimental. Leadership efficacy is contingent upon a multitude of variables, including organizational context, employee dynamics, and overarching company objectives. This complexity suggests the necessity for leaders to display adaptability in their management approaches. Even styles often criticized for their impact on employee motivation, such as laissez-faire leadership, may yield favorable outcomes under specific conditions. Among the styles examined, transformational leadership stands out for its long-term focus and commitment to employee development and empowerment. However, it should be noted that the ideal leadership style is not static but fluid, requiring situational assessment and adaptability.

Moreover, the limitations of this study provide additional avenues for future research. For instance, the study's focus on a specific sector and geographical location may limit the generalizability of the findings. Future research could address this by examining a more diverse range of sectors and geographical locations. Additionally, because this study is cross-sectional, it gives a snapshot of the correlations between leadership styles and employee motivation at a certain point in time. Longitudinal research might reveal how these associations change over time.

For a richer understanding of leadership styles, a multi-faceted approach that incorporates both qualitative and quantitative research methods is recommended. Longitudinal studies could offer valuable insights into the long-term impacts of different styles on organizational performance and employee well-being. Given that the efficacy of leadership styles can vary based on the specific context, targeted research across diverse sectors is crucial. Comparative studies evaluating the effectiveness of various leadership approaches in different industrial settings could prove invaluable. Moreover, a focus on employee well-being as a significant performance metric could add a holistic dimension to leadership research. Finally, organizations may benefit from leadership training programs that emphasize the adaptability and flexibility of leadership styles, preparing leaders to better meet diverse organizational challenges.

In conclusion, this study has thrown light on the significant influence of leadership styles on employee motivation It emphasizes the significance of both transformational and transactional leadership in developing a motivated workforce. It does, however, emphasize the complexities of motivation, implying that a one-size-fits-all strategy may not be helpful. Leaders must therefore adjust their style to their workers' specific requirements and objectives, creating an environment that promotes growth, satisfaction, and productivity.

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APPENDIX

QUESTIONNAIRES

Section I: Demographic Information

1. Sex: ( ) Female ( ) Male
2. Age:
3. Number of years you have been working:
4. Number of years you have been working in your current organization:
5. The sector you are currently working in:

- ( ) Healthcare
- ( ) Banking & finance
- ( ) IT
- ( ) Retail
- ( ) Real estate
- ( ) Food & Beverage
- ( ) Insurance
- ( ) Public sector
- ( ) Non-governmental organization
- ( ) Textiles
- ( ) Energy
- ( ) Industrials (Manufacturing)
- ( ) Tourism
- ( ) Education
- ( ) Other:

Answer the below questions according to this scale

1=absolutely disagree; 2=Disagree; 3= No idea; 4=Agree; 5=absolutely agree.

Section II: Why Do You Do Your Work?

1. Because this is the type of work I chose to do to attain a certain lifestyle.
2. For the income it provides me
3. I ask myself this question, I don't seem to be able to manage the important tasks related to this work.
4. Because I derive much pleasure from learning new things
5. Because it has become a fundamental part of who I am
6. Because I want to succeed at this job, if not I would be very ashamed of myself.
7. Because I chose this type of work to attain my career goals.
8. For the satisfaction I experience from taking on interesting challenges
9. Because it allows me to earn money.
10. Because it is part of the way in which I have chosen to live my life.
11. Because I want to be very good at this work, otherwise I would be very disappointed.
12. I don't know why, we are provided with unrealistic working conditions.
13. Because I want to be a "winner" in life.
14. Because it is the type of work I have chosen to attain certain important objectives
15. For the satisfaction I experience when I am successful at doing difficult tasks.
16. Because this type of work provides me with security.
17. I don't know, too much is expected of us.
18. Because this job is a part of my life.

Section III: What is Your Perception of Your Supervisor's Behavior and Style?

1. My leader makes employees feel good to be around him/her
2. My leader tells others in a few simple words what needs to be done
3. My leader helps others to think about old problems in new ways
4. My leader helps other employees to develop themselves
5. My leader tells employees what to do if they want to be rewarded for their work
6. My leader is satisfied when employees meet the agreed targets
7. My leader is contented to let others to continue working in the same ways always
8. Other people have complete faith in my leader
9. My leader uses tools, images, stories and models to help other people understand
10. My leader provides employees with new ways of looking at complex or difficult issues

11. My leader gives employees feedback to let them know how they are doing
12. My leader rewards employees when they achieve their targets
13. As long as things are working, my leader does not try to change anything
14. My leader gives employees freedom to do whatever they want
15. Other people are proud to be associated with my leader
16. My leader helps the employees to find meaning in their work
17. My leader helps employees to rethink about issues that they had never thought of or questioned before
18. My leader gives personal attention to others when they are in need
19. My leader lets employees to know what they are entitled to after achieving their targets
20. My leader reminds employees the standards they need to maintain while doing their work
21. My leader does not ask anything more from others than what is absolutely necessary

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Bilgilerinize rica ederim.

Dr.Öğr.Üyesi Mehmet Sencer GİRGİN
Müdür Yardımcısı

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2017-2020 Bachelor of Economics and Management. Abdelmalek Essaadi University, Tetouan, Morocco.

2021-2023 İstanbul Aydın University-Master, Department of Business Administration, Istanbul, Turkey.

Experiences:

2015-2019 Retail Stores: Gained valuable experience in customer service and sales. I learned how to communicate effectively with different types of customers and handle their inquiries and complaints.

2019-2020 eBay Dropshipping: Learned how to find winning products and improve product pages to increase sales.

2020-2021 e-Commerce: As the owner of an online store for cosmetic products, I gained experience in end-to-end e-commerce product management, including product research, online store launch, product page creation, pricing, and sales tracking.

Languages:

-Arabic: Native Language

-English: Advanced

-French: Intermediate

-German: Intermediate

Skills:

-Soft skills: Communication, Teamwork, Sales and Marketing, Problem Solving, Flexibility, Creativity.

-Hard skills: MS Office (Word, Excel, Powerpoint), Design (Canva)