

## Effects of Motivation to Lead on Leadership Preference: An Empirical Study

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### Abstract

According to the literature, science of management has started to become a jungle since 1960s. With the addition of many post-modern concepts, this jungle has turned into a much complex structure. A striking point is that a similar complexity is witnessed about a related subject – leadership. A focal point of this current study is leadership within the contingency approach, precisely the issue of preferring leadership in ever-changing situations. There are many different leadership approaches and some emphasize situational changes, and all these may be related with the other focal point of this study: Motivation to lead (MTL) – i.e., the person's willingness to claim and continue the role of leadership. The current study strives to uncover whether this willingness affects leadership preference in different situations. The results show that MTL can not fully affect leadership preference, albeit there is a partial effect.

**Keywords:** Motivation to Lead (MTL), contingency approach, leadership, Turkey

### 1. Introduction

Management has been an important subject since the earliest times of humanity. Depending on different dimensions such as politics, military, diplomacy and economics, management has taken many forms. Very similarly, the issue of leadership has been taking attention for thousands of years (Davis and Luthans 1979).

This similarity is not solely limited to visibility. The interest in management, in scientific terms, has started to emerge at the beginnings of the 20<sup>th</sup> century, Taylor (1911) being one of the pioneers. Since then, many different paradigms of management have emerged and

have simultaneously been considered. This fact is expressed by Koontz (1961) with the coined term, *management jungle*. Likewise, scholars have started to analyze leadership scientifically in the 19<sup>th</sup> century (e.g., Galton 1869) and at the dawn of the 20<sup>th</sup> century; the empirical research about leadership has already been on its way (e.g., Terman 1904). Today, there are many leadership theories, some of which may even contradict.

Though the variety in leadership may be confusing, there seems to be a common point: The person's assumption of leadership and his / her willingness to continue this role, namely motivation to lead (MTL) (Chan and Drasgow 2001). The leader is a human and therefore, whatever the issue is, he / she should have some inclination towards or against being a leader, and going on leading. In this case, it is implied that there will be some MTL, regardless of the leadership issue. Albeit there are very few studies (e.g., Clemmons and Fields 2011; Kark and Van Dijk 2007) that investigate the determinants of MTL, there is a great lack of studies subjecting effects of MTL on leadership issues, especially when different situations are considered. The idea that the preference of leadership in different situations may be related with MTL is the driving force behind this current study.

In this sense, the authors facilitate from Chan and Drasgow's (2001) MTL instrument and also prepare eight different situations for leadership preference by considering some of the foremost studies within the contingency approach of leadership. The concern is to find out whether participants' leadership preference in these situations is affected by their MTL. The participants are selected to be the top managers of the businesses in a specific organized industrial zone in İstanbul, as there are references to business context in the situations prepared for leadership acceptance.

This study is accredited as an important contribution to the literature in terms of theoretical and empirical issues. It is, first of all, an addition to the theoretical foundations claiming that MTL is to affect the person's leadership preference. Making this addition on the basis of the contingency approach may be considered as a highlight. Another striking fact is that this study is one of the early studies to inspect MTL-leadership preference empirically, which enables many suggestions to be made for the future. Finally, the authors consider that the study may also be perceived as an important contribution to the international literature by means of giving facts from the Turkish context regarding the subject.

## **2. An Overall Look on the Foremost Leadership Paradigms**

Leadership has been an important issue in man's life but generally, scientific concern about this issue stems from the 19<sup>th</sup> century, and this concern leads to the creation of many different paradigms of leadership. A literature review reveals that these can be aggregated in four major groups (Bryman 1996).

The first attention-taking and the oldest (Yukl 1989) paradigm is the traits theory, which posits that leaders are special people with characteristic features (Bryman 1996). Many features are claimed to exist and are grouped to three categories: abilities, personality characteristics and physical features (Cater 2006). It is also important to mention that the traits theory has roots from an antecedent, the great man theory (Vroom and Jago 2007), which claims that the extraordinary great men are the reasons of change and direct the societies (James 1880). However, traits theory is much criticized later due to the problems with the achieved results' consistencies (Kirkpatrick and Locke 1991; Stogdill 1948), and the fact that the nature of the leader's motivation is not sufficiently considered (McClelland and Boyatzis 1982). A strong critic is also towards the great man theory for its deficiency of scientific proof (Vroom and Jago 2007). By the 1950s, the traits theory is accused of being

false (Jago 1982). It is, however, noteworthy that the literature hands it to this theory starting from late 1970s, and some scholars (e.g., Kenny and Zaccaro 1983; McClelland 1975) agree that this approach is not to be entirely ignored.

Another prominent paradigm is the behavioral leadership theory, which focuses on the successful leaders' behaviors to extract the *correct* set of leader behaviors (Spillane et al. 2004). Scholars, agreeing with this theory, try to form general patterns of successful leadership behaviors such as monitoring, delegating or consulting (Hemphill and Coons 1950). Foremost research in this approach include the Michigan (Likert 1961) and the Ohio State Studies (Stogdill and Coons 1957), followed by the research of many other scholars such as Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), Mouton and Blake (1984) and White and Lippitt (1960). Similar to the traits theory, behavioral leadership theory is criticized for some reasons. Some inconsistencies are posited to exist in the Ohio State Studies (Korman 1966), in some of the related studies (Yukl 1989), and more sharply, forming a general pattern of leadership behavior is perceived as a great weakness. This weakness depends on the fact that the same set of behaviors is always expected to be presented in this theory, regardless of different situations; and possible inconsistencies between situations and leadership behaviors can be problematic for leadership success (Vroom and Jago 1988). The sudden and unexpected variations are claimed to be an extra issue that contributes to situational factors (March and Olsen 1984), and thus, may turn the leader's behaviors entirely obsolete if he / she insists on acting with the same pattern all the time (Smylie and Denny 1990).

The third prominent paradigm of leadership is the contingency theory, which is addressed towards the behavioral theory's shortcoming of ignoring different situations and situational changes. This theory assumes that there is no single correct leadership behavior; leader and leadership behaviors should change appropriately according to situations (Stogdill 1948; Hemphill 1949). This assumption is shared by some well-known and intriguing studies that belong to Fiedler (1967), Hersey and Blanchard (1969), House (1971), Vroom and Jago (1988) and Vroom and Yetton (1973).

Though these studies commonly focus on the consideration of situations, they are different in terms of explaining what the situations depend on. Fiedler's study (1967) begins with the least preferred coworker scale, which is used to uncover leader's orientation towards the relationships with others or the tasks to tackle with. Fiedler (1972) revises his study later and considers three criteria that determine the situations: health of leader-follower relationships, task structure and leader's positional power.

House (1971) uses the term *path-goal* to imply that the leader should clarify the path, which the followers must follow in order to reach specific goals. The scholar uses variables such as initiating structure and consideration at the beginning (House 1971) but later, instrumental and supportive variables are also considered (Klenke 2004; Schriesheim and Von Glinow 1977) in order to select among four different leadership behaviors: supportive, directive, achievement and participative (Klenke 2004).

Hersey and Blanchard (1969) claim that the maturity of followers actually determines the situations and the leader has four alternative roles: telling (giving orders), selling (giving orders and telling the reasons of these orders), participating (listening to the ideas of the followers) and delegating (passing some or all of the authority to followers). Decomposition of followers' maturity yields that it is bipartite: job maturity, the sufficiency for the tasks to handle; and psychological maturity in terms of intelligence, behaviors and personality (Graeff 1983; La Monica 1983).

Another related study is the decision process theory (also known as the normative leadership decision model) that is initially introduced by Vroom and Yetton (1973), and developed further by Vroom and Jago (1988). Based on the study of Vroom and Yetton (1973), the leader is to ask seven lined-up questions related to the situation and moves on a decision tree while answering each. This movement points out the appropriate decision making approach from the selections made among five alternatives; two of which are authoritarian, two more are consultative, and the one left being a joint decision by the leader and the group of followers. Vroom and Jago (1988) further revise this model. These two scholars use 12 questions instead of seven in order to consider the situation more deeply; they increase the precision of the situation evaluation by using a five-point scale for 10 of these 12 questions instead of the previous model's dichotomous scale; and they prefer to use combinations of situational determinants instead of solely depending on decision rules (Vroom and Jago 1988).

The literature points out that *new (or modern) leadership paradigm* has been heavily taking attention since 1980s. This paradigm involves many approaches such as leader-member exchange (LMX), charismatic, transformational, servant, transactional, strategic and spiritual leadership theories.

LMX theory assumes that there is a trade-off between the leader and the followers (House and Aditya 1997), and emphasizes on the quality of this trade-off (Liden et al. 1997; Vecchio and Gobdel 1984). It is interesting that transactional leadership has a similar assumption to that of LMX - leader tries to maintain the current situation, which includes a mutual dependence between the leader and the followers, and the reciprocal exchanges between these two are beneficial for both parties (Kellerman 1984; Yukl 1981). Again, transactional leadership theory focuses on the overall trade-off quality (Landy 1985).

There is a common ground for interest in charismatic and transformational leadership theories, as the changes in 1980s led to the questioning of contingency approach's sufficiency for vast organizational changes (Conger and Kanungo 1994). Charismatic leadership, as put forward by Weber (1968), claims the use of charisma as an agent of change in society and the out-of-the-box leader, with own charisma, is the source of this change. It is noteworthy that charismatic leadership has been taking interest from the scholars of organization studies since 1970s (e.g. House 1977). Transformational leadership resembles charismatic leadership as they both emphasize change with the use of leadership and charisma (Bass 1985). It is catchy that there are many different definitions of transformational leadership and some of these point out a *transcendent* approach to leadership issue (e.g., Judge and Bono 2000; Shoemaker 1999).

Despite being ignored by some theories such as transactional leadership; this transcendentalism, sometimes accompanied by spirituality, is faced in some newer leadership theories as well. An example is the servant leadership theory, which assumes that the leader actually serves followers for the sake of them and for the community overall (Greenleaf 1977). An important feature is that the servant leader does not pursue fame, power or monetary interests, but seeks the development of others in terms of maturity and spirituality (Schnorrenberg 2007; Spears 1995). Covey (1991) acts similarly by focusing on leaders' serving. The scholar develops principle-centered leadership theory to indicate that the leader should serve others by abiding by the rules of nature in order to foster optimism and protect the spiritual balance within the followers (Covey 1991). A similar study belongs to Fleming (2004), who sees spirituality as a path for transcendentalism in order to achieve the true meaning of existence. Finally, another prominent theory, spiritual leadership, claims that the

transcended mind of the leader affects him / her and the followers (Fairholm 1998) to move towards goals, and this movement depends on the use of leader's spiritual resources (Korac-Kakabadse et al. 2002).

### 3. Leadership Emergence and Motivation to Lead

As leadership is a social process, in order for the leadership emergence, leader must have legitimacy. This legitimacy may be built on several factors including the mutual trust between leader and followers (Graen and Uhl-Bien 1995; Yan 2001), approval of the former leader (Handler 1990), a well prepared succession plan (LaChappelle 1997), sociability of the leader (Garcia-Alvarez et al. 2002), leader's coordination ability (Hemphill 1961), as well as his / her role as a common communicator in the group (Mullen et al. 1989). All these legitimacy-providing factors can be aggregated within two groups: the features of the leader and followers' leader acceptance.

This legitimacy, however, may not always be beneficial in terms of leading performance if leader's demographic features are in question solely. Features such as gender (Eagly et al. 1995; Thompson 2000) and height or age (Judge and Cable 2004; Stogdill 1974) are not always related to leadership effectiveness.

An interesting event is that some scholars have tried to step out the legitimacy issue entirely while considering leader emergence. Scholars such as Carter et al. (1951) and De Souza and Klein (1995) pinpoint that for a leader to emerge; he / she has to dominate other group members by acting energetically, splitting groups into smaller subgroups to overcome opposition, and by convincing other group members of his / her causes.

If the focus moves to followers' acceptance, *leader prototype theory* is faced (Lord et al. 1982). This theory posits that a leader is stereotyped by group members; and the potential leader, who best matches group members' expectations related with a leader, has the biggest chance to become the actual leader (Lord et al. 2001). A generalization in terms of stereotyping leadership emergence is made by Clinton (1988, 1989, 2005), who analyzes the lives of over 420 Christian leaders. The scholar finds out that leader emergence depends on three steps (Clinton 1988). First step is processing – i.e., the development of leadership sufficiency, second step includes the understanding of the right timing when others necessitate leadership and third step is the potential leader's response to these necessities (Clinton 1989). Despite the efforts to stereotype leadership emergence, as similar to the case with leader's personal features, leadership stereotyping may not always be accurate (Nye and Forsyth 1991).

An attention-taking truth is that leader's features and followers' stereotyping are especially effective for leadership offer, but claiming leadership role is relatively under-rated in this sense. The claim or getting hold of leadership is, in fact, another research direction in the leader emergence literature. Some scholars (e.g., Stein et al. 1979) consider this matter and introduce a *valence model of emergent leadership*. This model includes a process by which the leader emerges; and in the first step, potential leaders announce their willingness for leadership, the second step includes conflicts among these potential leaders and in the third step, the one passes through the conflicts is obeyed by the group members. This valence model is not entirely free of legitimacy, the third step necessities the approval of the prevailing party by the group members. It is also asserted (e.g., Curtin 2004) that this approval actually depends on the extent, to which the leader is perceived to be sufficient in order to contribute to group's goals – the idiosyncrasy credit (Hollander 1961).

The literature also suggests that claiming leadership has empirically been considered via some instruments. A good example belongs to Chan and Drasgow (2001), who coin the term *motivation to lead (MTL)*. These two scholars consider MTL to be a reason for personality differences. Briefly speaking, MTL is the extent, to which a person is willing to become and continue being a leader, and this willingness depends on three factors. One factor is the affective component, which calls upon the desire of a person to lead a group (Chan and Drasgow 2001). This factor, referring to emotional appetite for both leadership and group, especially emphasizes the psycho-social aspect of assuming leadership. The second factor is the non-calculative component, which is related to the possible benefits the person is eager to get when he / she is to lead (Chan and Drasgow 2001). By and large, decision-making can be risky and the decision-maker may think to have a leverage. The non-calculative component is actually related to this leverage – i.e., it is about the privileges or the security the leader feels necessary as a result of his / her position as a decision-maker. The last component is social-normative and is about perceiving leadership as an honorable and necessary duty (Chan and Drasgow 2001).

#### 4. Methodology

In line with the aim of the study, this research analyzes effects of motivation to lead (MTL) on leadership preference in different situations. MTL is assessed by Chan and Drasgow's (2001) 27-item scale, which is also in the focus of many studies (e.g., Clemmons and Fields 2011; Gegenfurtner 2007; Kark and Van Dijk 2007). A drawback is that this instrument has not been used in the Turkish context, and this urges the authors to perform an explanatory factor analysis on the relevant data collected.

The situations, in which leadership preference is assessed, are primarily prepared by considering Fiedler's (1972), and Hersey and Blanchard's (1969) prominent studies that belong to the contingency theory of leadership. In the first step, the authors keep an eye on Fiedler's three criteria (health of leader-follower relationships, task structure and positional power), and there are some revisions made, similar to what Gegenfurtner (2007) did. The authors choose to omit Fiedler's two criteria, namely the health of leader-follower relationships and positional power at this step, due to the participants. The participants are all top-level managers, and thus, the authors agree that there is no ground to include situational changes in terms of positional power. The authors are also not interested in assessing the health of leader-follower relationships as all the situations to assess leadership preferences are hypothetical. This causes hypothetical leader-follower relationships to emerge, which can not be assessed from the sides of leader and followers simultaneously because it becomes impossible to collect data from followers, who do not actually exist. The next step depends on the idea of Hersey and Blanchard – the authors consider the maturity (sufficiency) of the followers.

After some final rewordings are made towards the preference of leadership role, three unique criteria for this research are built: Rewarding (pay raises / more positive reputation), expertise of the followers (high level – knowing the duties well and working together for a long time / low level – being inexperienced for the duties and never worked together before) and the task structure (easy task – presence of clear rules to perform and standardized task / hard task – a great absence of rules and procedures, and very variable task). These three criteria lead to emerge of eight distinct situations. The participant is allowed to select only one of these situations to assume the leadership role.

As for the participants, the authors decide to get data by administering questionnaires to top-level managers in the businesses of Beylikduzu Organized Industrial Zone. There are 690 businesses in this zone (BOSB 2013), and with 5% margin of error and 95% confidence level, the sample size is calculated to be 247. The authors decide to apply 250 questionnaires to compensate for missing or invalid data. The questionnaires are applied by a professional firm and the authors obtain the filled questionnaires along with a list of participants. The authors then phone each participant to check whether the questionnaires were really filled in.

**4.1. Statistical Structure and Reliability of MTL**

The statistical structure of MTL is shaped by an explanatory factor analysis. The results indicate that Kaiser-Meyer-Olkin (KMO) value is 0.945 and the Bartlett’s test value is statistically significant, indicating that the data are suitable for this analysis. There are three factors extracted, which have eigenvalues greater than one, and they can aggregately explain 70.7% of the total variance. Table 1 shows these three factors, along with their items, respective factor loadings and the relevant reliability analyses results.

Table 1 Here

The three factors in Table 1 can be summarized as follows:

**Leadership desire:** How much the person is eager to lead others with or without the consideration of groups, and the person’s feelings of responsibility and concern for others.

**Acceptance of leadership:** The extent, to which the person considers that anyone, including him / herself, should accept the leadership role.

**Expediency in leadership:** How much the person is expedient, and thus, considers his / her benefits to become a leader.

As for the next step, the authors go on with a second-level factor model to check whether these three extracted factors can be aggregated under the concept of MTL. In order to do this, the authors facilitate from structural equation modeling (SEM) and use Lisrel 9.1 software. Figure 1 shows this second-level factor model, with the t-values. All the t-values in this model point out that the relationships are statistically significant at the 5% level (two-tailed).

Figure 1 Here

A further analysis, using the model’s fit indices uncover that the model in Figure 1 is realistic, thus, can be used in the later steps of the research. These fit indices and the suggested limits (Iacobucci 2010; Sivo et al. 2006; Yuan et al. 2010) are given in Table 2.

Table 2 Here

The last step regarding the analysis of this second-level factor model is to check with the standardized residuals, again to understand how realistic the model is. Figure 2 shows the stemleaf and the Q-plot of the model’s standardized residuals. The stemleaf plot, in general, points out a normal distribution, whereas the Q-plot reveals a moderate symmetrical distribution of the standardized residuals along the diagonal. Briefly, Figure 2 shows that the model is also valid when its standardized residuals are inspected.

Figure 2 Here

The structural equations in (1), (2), and (3) point out that the three factors do have significant relationships with MTL.

$$\begin{aligned} \text{Leadership Desire} &= 1.004 * \text{Motivation to Lead, Error Variance} = 0.519, R^2 = 0.867 \dots \dots \dots (1) \\ \text{Standard Error} & \quad (0.0366) \quad \quad \quad (0.0707) \\ \text{Z-values} & \quad \quad 27.385 \quad \quad \quad 15.602 \end{aligned}$$

P-values	0.000	0.000
Acceptance of Leadership = 0.685*Motivation to Lead, Error Variance = 0.531, R <sup>2</sup> =0.469.....(2)		
Standard Error	(0.0293)	(0.0507)
Z-values	23.374	10.485
P-values	0.000	0.000
Expediency in Leadership = - 0.424*Motivation to Lead, Error Variance = 0.820, R <sup>2</sup> = 0.180.....(3)		
Standard Error	(0.0200)	(0.0627)
Z-values	-21.146	13.080
P-values	0.000	0.000

All the results achieved so far point out that the three factors extracted are the ingredients of MTL. When participants become more motivated to lead, their leadership desire also elevates. As expected, the tightest connection is between these two. With a weaker connection, increases of motivation to lead cause increases of accepting leadership role as a duty, albeit the extent of the increase is smaller than that of the previous relationship. What the authors do not expect is that any increase of leading motivation decreases expediency. In other words, when participants are more motivated to lead, they are less keen on getting any interest.

The authors consider that it is appropriate to analyze the effects of MTL on leadership preference in different situations. These effects are analyzed via two different approaches. The authors first use a structural equation model, in the form of a path analysis, and try to understand how MTL, as a whole, affects leadership preference. Next, the authors use a general linear model (GLM) to understand how each item in MTL is able to affect leadership preference.

**4.2. MTL’s effects on leadership preference in different situations**

The second-level factor model in Figure 1 was inspected and was found out to be statistically valid. This time, the authors claim that MTL, derived from this model, should be able to affect leadership preference in different situations and use a path model to test this claim. Figure 3 shows this path model and pinpoints the related t-values. A very striking result yielded is that MTL, as a whole, is not able to affect leadership preference.

Figure 3 Here

Similar to the analysis of the prior model in Figure 1, the authors keep an eye on the path model’s fit indices and find out that it is fairly valid in statistical terms (Table 3).

Table 3 Here

Finally, the authors check the distribution of the path model’s standardized residuals as seen in Figure 4, and find out that the path model is again fairly realistic.

Figure 4 Here

The path model in Figure 3 shows that leadership preference in different situations is not affected by MTL. Put it other way, participants’ leadership choices under different situations are not affected by their leadership motivation. The authors consider that there should be some important implications behind this unexpected result.

A foremost implication is that the leadership preference should be affected by the factors, not accounted for by the components of MTL. In other words, the participants may consider that their desire to become a leader, the paradigm that leadership is an honorable

duty; and the expectance of interest from leadership should not be related with their leadership choice in different situations.

Another implication is again related with the nature of MTL components. The analysis of MTL's structure in Figure 1 uncovered that expediency is inversely related with the MTL. That is, an increase of MTL means that the participants are becoming more unwilling to get interest to become a leader and continue leading. The other side, leadership preference, includes three criteria, one of which is entirely about getting interest: Rewarding. This criterion includes pay raises or more positive reputation if leadership is chosen. The authors consider that this criterion may be effective to turn MTL-leadership preference relationship obsolete.

As explained before, the last goal is to understand how each item of MTL affects leadership preference. To this end, the authors use a GLM. The results are indicated in Table 4, and only a few items of MTL are found out to affect the participants' leadership preference in different situations.

Table 4 Here

Table 4 suggests that only two items of MTL affect leadership preference in different situations. One item is absolutely about the willingness to lead a group (I usually want to be the leader of the groups that I work in) and this item belongs to leadership desire factor of MTL. A noteworthy fact is that this item reflects the participants' demand for leadership and does not include any reference to any situation. In other words, it is about leadership desire in all situations. This urges the authors to believe that this item is expected to affect leadership preference in any situation.

The other item that affects leadership preference is actually about the merit of volunteering for leadership role (People should volunteer for leadership role without being asked). This item's effect may be scrutinized in more than one way. It is important that this item may be understood as a means for leadership willingness and just like the other effective item, is an overall statement when different situations are to be considered. In this case, it is well expected that this item is effective on leadership preference in different situations. Another important point is that only one situational criterion for leadership preference among the three is about getting interest. The others are, on the other hand, about the professionalism of the followers and the task structure. This leads to an expectation that this item, which does not refer to getting any interest for leadership, should affect leadership preference in different situations, which is mostly built upon non-interest focusing criteria.

As a last resort, the authors check the homogeneity of the data for the sake of GLM and the related results are given in Table 5. There is no homogeneity problem about the distribution of the relevant data across groups.

Table 5 Here

## **6. Conclusion and Suggestions**

While management has roots even in the ancient world, managing is not enough; the modern world necessitates leadership as well. This requirement may be fulfilled by the willingness to accept leadership, by acting according to the view that leadership is a vital and an honorable duty, or only by the choice of others. This shows the fact that emerge of leadership role depends on many factors. Whatever the factors are, leadership itself, depends on a variety of theories and some of these can even contradict with each other.

All of these burden the work of scholars, who wish to focus on the issue of leadership. On the other hand, the motivation to possess and continue the role of leadership – motivation to lead (MTL) – is a relatively new issue to tap in. The nature of MTL is moreover beneficial to

study as this concept is an overall one; i.e., it overarches how leadership role emerges and what leadership is. These vital aspects lure the authors of this current study to consider MTL.

Because of its overall nature, it is possible that MTL's linkages with many other leadership aspects should be exploited. In this sense, the authors continue with a relatively decent paradigm of the leadership literature: Contingency approach. Leadership acceptance in different situations is assessed by three criteria: rewarding, task structure and professionalism. Therefore, the acceptance of leadership in different situations are believed to be affected by MTL. This belief is tested for the first time ever in the Turkish context.

While MTL's structure mostly holds for the Turkish context, an important result is that expediency in leadership is inversely affected by its higher latent variable, MTL. This implies that when the participants are more motivated for leadership, they also become less keen on getting interest from this role. In other words, a greater motivation is fed by two premises: the desire for leadership and the issue of considering leadership as an honorable duty.

Keeping the structure of MTL, its effects on leadership preference is analyzed but an unexpected result is achieved. MTL, as a whole, is unable to affect the leadership preference. A reason is thought to be the presence of other factors that are not considered within MTL. A second reason believed is the inconsistency between the contents of leadership preference and MTL. While leadership preference mostly depends on non-interest seeking items, one of the three components of MTL is actually the expediency in leadership.

It is however, amazing that some items within MTL affect the leadership preference. These items are about the desire to become a leader within the groups present and the volunteerism for the leadership role. As both of these items are towards the claim of leadership role, their effects are expected by the authors. There is also an important possible implication as well. A monolithic MTL is found out to be ineffective upon the leadership preference and a possible reason is the presence of expediency as one of the MTL factors. The item pointing out the volunteerism for leadership disregards expediency and is able to affect the leadership preference. These, considered together, urge the authors to think that the participants are willing for leadership roles and make leadership choices without much focusing on their own interests.

This study is a pioneer in terms of the model proposed and tested. It is also the very first study to test the relationship between leadership preferences in different situations and MTL in the Turkish context. In this case, there are many options for future studies. Issues such as culture, emotions and differences among contexts may be added to future models. Motivation to lead may be enriched by forming and testing new instruments. Leadership preference may also be extended upon more criteria and newer approaches to leadership such as spiritual, strategic and servant leadership may be considered for this extension.

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**Figure Legends**

**Fig. 1** Second-level factor model of MTL. MTL: Motivation to lead; LEAD\_DES: Leadership desire; ACC\_LEAD: Acceptance of leadership; EXPE\_LEA: Expediency in leadership

**Fig. 2** The distribution of second-level factor model's standardized residuals

**Fig. 3** Path model to analyze the effects of MTL on leadership preference. MTL: Motivation to lead; LEAD\_DES: Leadership desire; ACC\_LEAD: Acceptance of leadership; EXPE\_LEA: Expediency in leadership; VAR00028: Leadership preference in different situations

**Fig. 4** The distribution of path model's standardized residuals

**Table 1** Results of the explanatory factor and reliability analyses for MTL

	Leadership desire	Acceptance of leadership	of Expediency leadership	in
<b>Factor's Cronbach's Alpha Value</b>	<i>0.967</i>	<i>0.843</i>	<i>0.769</i>	
<b>Overall Cronbach's Alpha Value</b>	<i>0.931</i>			
(3) I am a qualified person to be in charge of others in business context	.915			
(21) It is an honor for me to be asked for leading	.900			
(4) I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in	.863			
(18) It is a rather dirty work to lead others than an honorable one <sup>a</sup>	.862			
(1) I usually prefer to be the leader instead of being a follower while working in a group	.853			
(5) I am a person who supports a leader but avoids being a leader <sup>a</sup>	.844			
(2) I prefer to take on the tasks voluntarily in the groups or teams that I work in	.842			
(6) I think that I will make more contribution to the groups that I work in if I become a follower instead of being a leader <sup>a</sup>	.835			
(9) I am definitely not a leader by nature <sup>a</sup>	.831			
(7) I am usually distant to the idea of leading a group <sup>a</sup>	.725			
(22) I feel that it is a duty to lead others if I am asked for	.715			
(19) I was taught that it is meritorious to lead others	.703			
(13) I want to know "what is in it for me" if I am to lead a group	.693			
(20) I was taught it is necessary to be a volunteer to always lead others if possible	.658			
(16) I accept to lead others even if I cannot get special rewards or interests via leadership	.649			

(14) I have my own problems to worry about rather than worrying for the group that I work in <sup>a</sup>	.628
(25) People should volunteer for the leadership role without waiting for others to ask them	.810
(26) It is not right to decline leadership role	.785
(24) It is an appropriate action for the people to accept the leadership role when they are asked for	.752
(23) I always accept leading if I am asked or appointed for	.705
(12) I accept to be a leader for a group if I know that I will get an interest from leadership role	.858
(11) I will never accept leading if I cannot get any interest from leadership	.757
(10) I want to lead a group if only I have an enormous advantage	.730

<sup>a</sup> Inversely keyed.

**Table 2** The second-level factor model's fit indices and the suggested limits

Fit indices	Good fit	Acceptable fit	Model's indices	fit
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	$RMSEA < 0.05$	$0.05 \leq RMSEA \leq 0.08$	0.127 (Unacceptable fit)	
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$0.95 \leq GFI \leq 1.00$	$0.9 < GFI < 0.95$	0.987 (Good fit)	(Good fit)
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	$0.90 \leq AGFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 < AGFI < 0.9$	0.984 (Good fit)	(Good fit)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$0.95 \leq CFI \leq 1.00$	$0.9 < CFI < 0.95$	0.946 (Acceptable fit)	
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$0.90 \leq NFI \leq 1.00$	$0.85 < NFI < 0.9$	0.933 (Good fit)	(Good fit)
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	$SRMR < 0.05$	$0.05 \leq SRMR \leq 0.1$	0.0681 (Acceptable fit)	

**Table 3** The path model's fit indices and the suggested limits

Fit indices	Good fit	Acceptable fit	Model's fit indices
Root Mean Square Error of Approximation (RMSEA)	RMSEA < 0.05	$0.05 \leq \text{RMSEA} \leq 0.08$	0.122 (Unacceptable fit)
Goodness of Fit Index (GFI)	$0.95 \leq \text{GFI} \leq 1.00$	$0.9 < \text{GFI} < 0.95$	0.987 (Good fit)
Adjusted Goodness of Fit Index (AGFI)	$0.90 \leq \text{AGFI} \leq 1.00$	$0.85 < \text{AGFI} < 0.9$	0.984 (Good fit)
Comparative Fit Index (CFI)	$0.95 \leq \text{CFI} \leq 1.00$	$0.9 < \text{CFI} < 0.95$	0.946 (Acceptable fit)
Normed Fit Index (NFI)	$0.90 \leq \text{NFI} \leq 1.00$	$0.85 < \text{NFI} < 0.9$	0.932 (Good fit)
Standardized Root Mean Square Residual (SRMR)	SRMR < 0.05	$0.05 \leq \text{SRMR} \leq 0.1$	0.0662 (Acceptable fit)

**Table 4** The results of the GLM

Dependent Variable: Leadership preference in different situations.								
Source	Type sum squares	III of df	Mean square	F	Sig.	Partial eta squared	Noncent. parameter	Observed power <sup>b</sup>
Corrected Model	389.527 <sup>a</sup>	92	4.234	1.594	.006	.501	146.674	1.000
Intercept	157.834	1	157.834	59.432	.000	.289	59.432	1.000
I am a qualified person to be in charge of others in business context	21.369	4	5.342	2.012	.096	.052	8.046	.592
It is an honor for me to be asked for leading	8.480	4	2.120	.798	.528	.021	3.193	.251
<b>I usually want to be the leader of the groups that I work in.</b>	<b>30.090</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>7.522</b>	<b>2.833</b>	<b>.027</b>	<b>.072</b>	<b>11.330</b>	<b>.761</b>
It is a rather dirty work to lead others than an honorable one <sup>c</sup>	2.951	4	.738	.278	.892	.008	1.111	.110
I usually prefer to be the leader instead of being a follower while working in a group	14.733	4	3.683	1.387	.241	.037	5.548	.424
I am a person who supports a leader but avoids being a leader <sup>c</sup>	4.748	4	1.187	.447	.774	.012	1.788	.153
I prefer to take on the tasks voluntarily in the groups or teams that I work in	8.102	4	2.025	.763	.551	.020	3.051	.241
I think that I will make more contribution to the groups that I work in if I become a follower instead of being a leader <sup>c</sup>	3.707	4	.927	.349	.844	.009	1.396	.128
I am definitely not a leader by nature <sup>c</sup>	6.277	4	1.569	.591	.670	.016	2.364	.192
I am usually distant to the idea of leading a group <sup>c</sup>	18.140	4	4.535	1.708	.151	.045	6.831	.514
I feel that it is a duty to lead others if I am asked for	6.288	4	1.572	.592	.669	.016	2.368	.192

I was taught that it is meritorious to lead others	11.224	4	2.806	1.057	.380	.028	4.226	.327
I want to know “what is in it for me” if I am to lead a group	20.236	4	5.059	1.905	.113	.050	7.620	.565
I was taught it is necessary to be a volunteer to always lead others if possible	8.288	4	2.072	.780	.540	.021	3.121	.246
I accept to lead others even if I cannot get special rewards or interests via leadership	12.826	4	3.207	1.207	.310	.032	4.830	.372
I have my own problems to worry about rather than worrying for the group that I work in <sup>c</sup>	9.549	4	2.387	.899	.466	.024	3.596	.281
<b>People should volunteer for leadership role without being asked.</b>	<b>29.619</b>	<b>4</b>	<b>7.405</b>	<b>2.788</b>	<b>.029</b>	<b>.071</b>	<b>11.153</b>	<b>.753</b>
It is not right to decline leadership role	16.493	4	4.123	1.553	.190	.041	6.210	.471
It is an appropriate action for the people to accept the leadership role when they are asked for	13.393	4	3.348	1.261	.288	.033	5.043	.387
I always accept leading if I am asked or appointed for	22.739	4	5.685	2.141	.079	.055	8.562	.622
I accept to be a leader for a group if I know that I will get an interest from leadership role	6.430	4	1.607	.605	.659	.016	2.421	.196
I will never accept leading if I cannot get any interest from leadership	18.360	4	4.590	1.728	.147	.045	6.913	.519
I want to lead a group if only I have an enormous advantage	10.574	4	2.643	.995	.412	.027	3.982	.309
Error	387.736	14 6	2.656					

Total	3194.000	23 9
Corrected Total	777.264	23 8

<sup>a</sup> R Squared = .501 (Adjusted R Squared = .187)

<sup>b</sup> Computed using alpha = .05

<sup>c</sup> Inversely keyed.

**Table 5** Levene’s test results

Dependent Variable: Leadership preference in different situations.			
F	df1	df2	Sig.
0.480	238	0	0.491
Tests the null hypothesis that the error variance of the dependent variable is equal across groups.			
<p><b>Design:</b> Intercept + I am a qualified person to be in charge of others in business context + It is an honor for me to be asked for leading + I usually want to be the leader in the groups that I work in + It is a rather dirty work to lead others than an honorable one<sup>a</sup> + I usually prefer to be the leader instead of being a follower while working in a group + I am a person who supports a leader but avoids being a leader<sup>a</sup> + I prefer to take on the tasks voluntarily in the groups or teams that I work in + I think that I will make more contribution to the groups that I work in if I become a follower instead of being a leader<sup>a</sup> + I am definitely not a leader by nature<sup>a</sup> + I am usually distant to the idea of leading a group<sup>a</sup> + I feel that it is a duty to lead others if I am asked for + I was taught that it is meritorious to lead others + I want to know “what is in it for me” if I am to lead a group + I was taught it is necessary to be a volunteer to always lead others if possible + I accept to lead others even if I cannot get special rewards or interests via leadership + I have my own problems to worry about rather than worrying for the group that I work in<sup>a</sup> + People should volunteer for the leadership role without waiting for others to ask them + It is not right to decline leadership role + It is an appropriate action for the people to accept the leadership role when they are asked for + I always accept leading if I am asked or appointed for + I accept to be a leader for a group if I know that I will get an interest from leadership role + I will never accept leading if I cannot get any interest from leadership + I want to lead a group if only I have an enormous advantage</p>			

<sup>a</sup> Inversely keyed.

Figure 1.

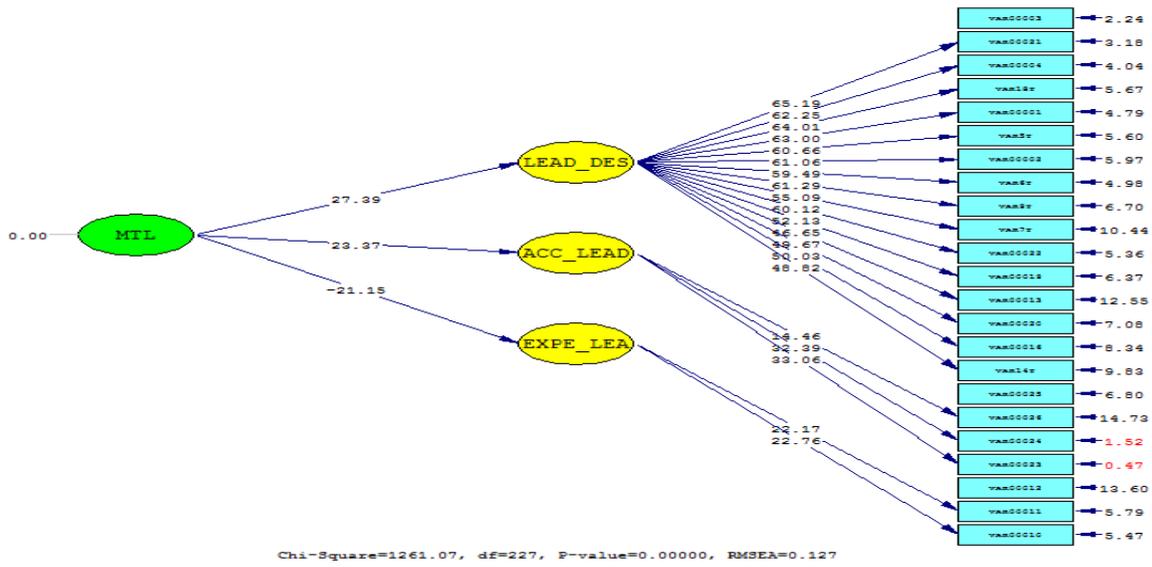


Figure 2.

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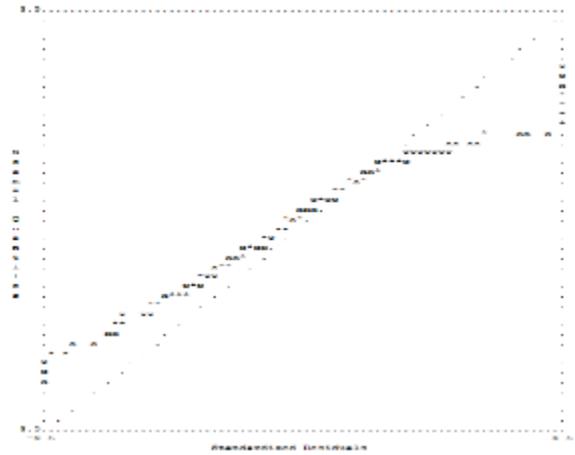


Figure 3.

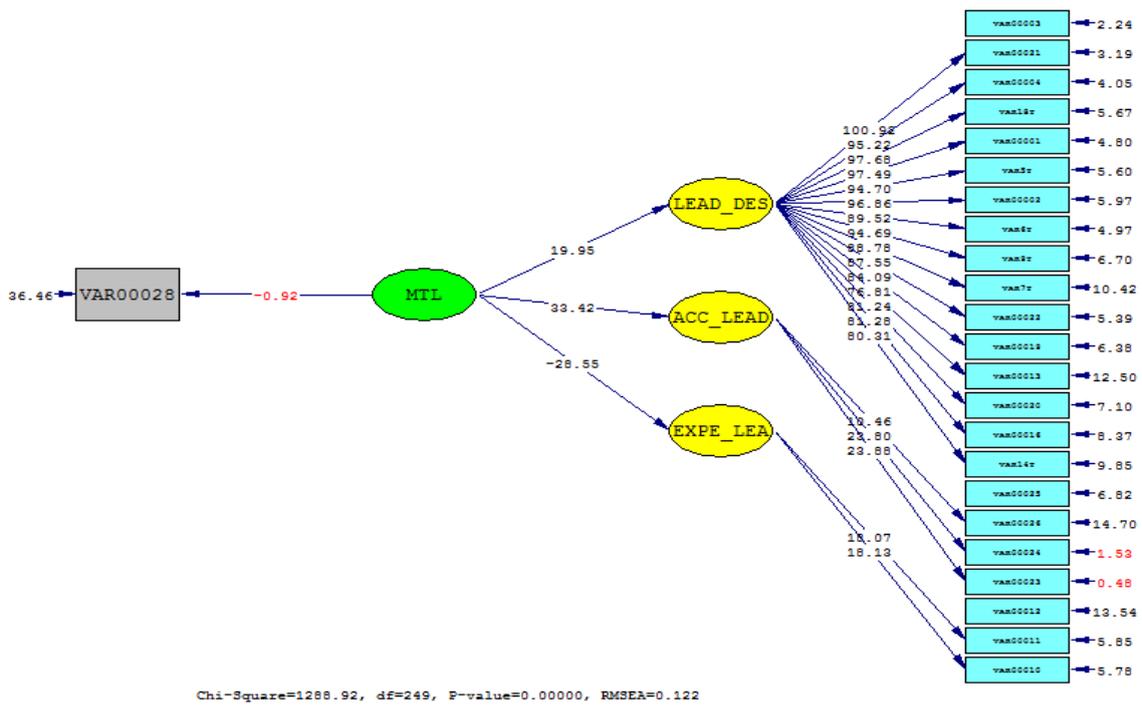


Figure 4.

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