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**JOB SATISFACTION AND PERCEIVED LEADERSHIP BEHAVIOURS
AMONG THE TURKISH NATIONAL POLICE: A CASE STUDY ON
ESKISEHIR POLICE DEPARTMENT**

By:

Ali Bogachan YUCEL

Dissertation submitted to the Faculty of the
University of Durham in partial fulfilment
of the requirements for the degree of

Philosophy of Doctorate

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School of Government and International Affairs

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ABSTRACT

Title of Dissertation: Job Satisfaction and Perceived Leadership Behaviours among the Turkish National Police: A Case Study on Eskisehir Police Department

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This research explores the management problems in the Turkish National Police Organisation (TNP) by assessing the perceived leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of police officers working at the Eskisehir Police Department in Turkey. The perceived leadership styles of the officers is examined from the standpoint of the Transformational and Transactional Leadership Theory of Bass (1985) by using the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) of Bass & Avolio (2004). The job satisfaction level of the officers is examined by using Paul Spector's Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) instrument. The data is collected from the police officers (n=298) working at various branches of the Eskisehir police department. Major findings of this research indicate that the majority of the police officers perceive moderate level transformational leadership behaviours from their police chiefs, and the overall job satisfaction of police officers is high. Another finding of this study indicates that there is a relationship between the perceived transformational leadership behaviours of police chiefs and the job satisfaction of police officers. These findings are discussed in context with numerous policy implications and recommendations for further research.

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Preface

This research is the continuation and more comprehensive form of the study conducted by Yucel (2007) about the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours of 4th year Turkish National Police Academy students. The findings of the previous research are compared with the findings of this research at Chapter 6 Empirical Results section.

Chapter 1: Statement of the Problem and Its Components

Introduction

One of the most important objectives of organisations is to enable their employees to work in peace and happiness is directly proportionate to job satisfaction at the work place. The latter is important not only for the individual but also for the employees – if they are satisfied with their work this will help them to be more productive for their organisation and consequently they will lead such organisation to success. Job satisfaction is found in the perceived interaction with the management style by the employees (Spector, 1997). Perceived management style changes according to the manager being just a manager or a leader. It is supported by the empirical evidence that, rather than simply managers, leaders play an important role for effective and successful organisations (Bass & Avolio, 1992, Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996, DeGroot, Kiker & Cross, 2000, Flores, 2004, Lim & Ployhart, 2004). Therefore, there is a need for leadership within organisations which desire to provide the job satisfaction.

On the other hand, science and technology are going through a process of rapid development and change. This change is observed faster in European Union all states. Due to as a necessity of globalisation organisations are comprised of different nationalities of subordinates. This change makes the leaders change themselves, as well as their subordinates and organisations. Accepting the change and being ready to change will provide opportunities for some of these organisations and will threaten the ones which resist change.

Thus, these rapidly changing conditions require adaptive and flexible leaders. Adaptive leaders can adapt to the changing conditions fast and behave as is required by these conditions. They can find creative solutions to the problems by taking heed



of the followers (Bennis, 2001). Bass (1985) calls these adaptive leaders transformational leaders.

According to the transformational and transactional leadership theory of Bass (1985), everybody exhibits leadership behaviour, however, the leader behaviour which waves from person to person in terms of the type and the level of such leadership behaviours. Therefore, Bass (1985) examines leadership styles under two primary headings: leaders of any organisation will either act more dominantly as a transformational leader or the dominance scale will tilt towards the transactional leader behaviour side. There are benefits of transformational leadership behaviour for both the subordinates and the organisation. While the outcomes of transformational leadership may be visible, such as success, motivation, effectiveness and commitment to the organisation (Bass & Avolio, 1992, Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; DeGroot, Kiker & Cross, 2000; Flores, 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004), so too are the disadvantages (Bass, 1998). The negative outcomes of the transactional leadership style may directly affect personnel and their job satisfaction. Several of the negative effects of the transactional leadership style are described in more detail in the next section.

A transformational leader is the leader who promotes achievement and self-fulfilment of the subordinates, on the one hand, and improves the development of the groups and the organisation, on the other hand (Bass & Avolio, 1992). In contrast to the transformational leader, a transactional leader is the conventional leader or manager. A transactional leader promises to reward the subordinates in the case of accomplishment of a task; and in contrast, punishes or deprives them of the reward in the case of incomplete tasks. In other words, there occurs a transaction between the leader and the subordinates. This transaction is also called *exchange*. In this exchange

or transaction the reward is dependant on the task accomplishment, which is called *contingent reward*. Subordinates work to reach the contingent reward that is promised by the leader. However, it is not important for a transactional leader to know how the subordinates feel, what they think, what they deserve and who they are as a person. In addition, transactional leaders do not attend to improving the skills of the subordinates, which will help to improve their performance and make them work beyond expectations. Transactional leaders also do not attend to development. They do not have a priority to improve their organisation and satisfy the subordinates. The only important thing for the transactional leader is the exchange between him/her and the subordinates that results in a completed task (Bass & Avolio, 1992; Bass, 1998).

In this context, studying the job satisfaction and perceived leadership style of police officers will help to better understand the problems stated below.

Statement of the problem

As of 2007, The Turkish National Police (TNP) is an organization with more than two hundred thousand employees. Due to the fact that it is a national organisation, it serves the entire Turkish nation, which has a population of more than seventy million. Among the two hundred thousand employees of the TNP there are approximately fifteen thousand police supervisors who are in charge of subordinates. These managers are structured in a paramilitary hierarchical structure that ranges from the entry level rank of inspector all the way through to the highest rank of First Degree Chief of Police / Superintendent (See Appendix L for the Ranks and Minimum Waiting Period in each Rank in the TNP). Some of higher ranking officers such as police chiefs may be lacking the appropriate level of leadership skills required for quality leadership is causing dissatisfaction among the personnel. Therefore, there is a lack of leadership in the TNP.

The issues that are faced by the TNP relating to the components of Bass' (1985) transformational and transactional leadership theory and Spector's (1997) job satisfaction components are as follows:

1- Work Hours: Working hours are too long. Most of personnel in the police departments in Turkey are working more than 40 hours per week. The rest hours in between shifts are limited. The personnel's right to time off such as weekends and annual vacation are not given in full or are restricted in the TNP (Zabun, 2000): This problem is related to the "operating conditions" and the "nature of work" when considered from Spector's (1997) standpoint. Nature of work is also examined under this problem because according to police organisation law (ETK) article 61, personnel of a police organisation have 24 hours in "days off" per week. According to Bass (1985), one of the components of transformational leadership is the "individualised consideration" behaviour of a leader to the subordinates. A transformational leader respects the rights of the subordinates and considers each individual personnel member. A transformational leader lets the subordinates rest as much as he/she asks them to work. Therefore, this problem is caused by a transactional leader behaviour that does not care if the personnel rest enough or not.

2a- Social opportunities are inadequate (inadequacy or lack of police guest houses in some cities and sports centres): The police housing/ accommodation opportunities are inadequate (Zabun, 2000). Therefore, police officers are having problems trying to find an appropriate place to spend their leisure time to improve themselves.

2b- Facilities and Technology: There are inadequacies in some of the police station buildings, the vehicles (such as patrol cars) and the equipment in the TNP (Zabun, 2000): When considered from Bass' (1985) standpoint, a transformational

leader creates an environment so that the subordinates can feel better and work better. This responsibility of a transformational leader continues not only in their work life but also in their private life. Due to the fact that work life and private life interact with each other (Spector, 1997), a transformational leader finds solutions to his/her personnel's private life problems, such as inadequacy of social opportunities or housing problems; as well as in their work life, such as the inadequacies of premises, vehicles and equipment. Therefore, these problems are caused by a transactional leader behaviour who does not care if those problems exist or not. When considered from the standpoint of job satisfaction these problems are related to the lack of "fringe benefits" and "operating conditions" (Spector, 1997).

3- Compensation (Pay): Salaries are inadequate; personnel are not appropriately compensated for the amount of hours and work that they complete in their position at the TNP (Zabun, 2000): When considered from Bass' standpoint (1985), the organisational aims and objectives are important for the transformational leader. If monetary compensation becomes a problem that affects the motivation of the personnel, a transformational leader does his/her best to resolve the issue due to the inspirational motivation component of transformational leadership. A transformational leader motivates each member of the personnel according to their needs. Therefore, this problem is caused by a transactional leader who does not care about the pay of the personnel, and whether or not it is enough. This problem is examined under "pay" heading (Spector, 1997).

4- Inadequate training and education: The in-service training given to the subordinates is inadequate. The seminars or conferences given to the chiefs of police for them to better understand the psychology of the police officers are inadequate, and the meetings held to discuss the needs of the subordinates are also inadequate (Zabun,

2000): When considered from the Bass' (1985) standpoint, these problems are related to a lack of "individualised consideration" and the "intellectual stimulation components" of transformational leadership. According to the intellectual stimulation component, a transformational leader improves him or herself as much as he/she improves the talents of the subordinates. A transformational leader makes the subordinates take the necessary education classes so that they can therefore be more successful. Subordinates' psychology is considered under individualised consideration; a transformational leader cares what they think, how they feel and what more could be done for them so they can become more effective and successful. When considered from the standpoint of job satisfaction this problem is related to lack of satisfaction with "communication" and "supervision" (Spector, 1997).

5- Incentives: Rather than rewarding personnel for compliance, some of the chiefs manage by punishing in TNP (Zabun, 2000): According to Bass' theory (1985) this behaviour is a transactional leader behaviour that uses the positional power as a weapon. In contrast, a transformational leader manages by encouraging, motivating, and rewarding the personnel. When considered from the job satisfaction perspective this problem is related to satisfaction with "supervision" (Spector, 1997).

6- Supervision and Support: Some of the chiefs of police and the police organisation are not supporting the subordinates who perform well in the TNP (Zabun, 2000): When considered from Bass' theory (1985), this is one of the main points that distinguish the transformational leader from the transactional leader. A transformational leader supports the subordinates and creates the necessary environment for them to conduct their tasks better. Saying and doing are in harmony with respect to transformational leaders. Therefore, they retain their support even after the accomplishment of the task and whatever the result. When considered from

Spector's (1997) standpoint, this problem is also related to satisfaction with "supervision" (Spector, 1997).

7- Conflicting with superiors and role conflict: Some other problems encountered by police officers include conflicts with superiors, conflict of roles, and uncertainty in role playing (Zabun, 2000). According to the leadership theory of Bass' (1985), there is no role conflict or uncertainty in transformational leadership. Subordinates accept their leader willingly and the leader considers the impact on subordinates in the decision-making process. When considered from the standpoint of job satisfaction this problem is again related to satisfaction with "supervision" and "communication" (Spector, 1997).

Some of these problems mentioned above are causing stress to the police officers, which sometimes results in psychological problems. One other example of concern among line staff is the suicide rate, which has been increasing over time from 1989 to 2006. Research on suicide rates in the TNP states that there are a variety of reasons for suicide; however, among these variables, some of which are mentioned above, are directly related with the perceived management styles of police officers or mid-level chiefs who committed suicide (Zabun, 2000).

8- Lack of commitment: There is a lack of commitment among the co-workers. Most of the police officers do not meet with their co-workers after work, and they do not even like each other (Zabun, 2000). When considered from Bass' (1998) standpoint, transformational leadership promotes the commitment to the organisation, friends and supervisors. When considered from the standpoint of job satisfaction this problem is related to satisfaction with "co-workers" (Spector, 1997).

When all of the above mentioned job satisfaction related problems are collected, it is seen that the TNP personnel is unsatisfied with "operating conditions",

“nature of work”, “fringe benefits”, “operating conditions”, “pay”, “communication”, “supervision” and “co-workers”.

When some of the TNP chiefs' lack of leadership behaviour is examined according to the transformational and transactional leadership theory of Bass (1985), it is possible to assess that some chiefs use qualities of transactional leadership or laissez-faire more dominantly. Therefore, the majority of problems associated with leadership style are more often caused by the transactional leader or laissez-faire behaviours of the leaders in the TNP; thus, it is necessary to analyze the problematic leadership skills of police chiefs who are in charge of the subordinates. What leadership skills are they exhibiting currently, according to Bass's theory (1985), and what else should they do to improve these skills? Since answers to these questions are not known, the main question that addresses the problems is thus: What is the level of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of current police chiefs? For answering this question a sample of police officers are asked to evaluate their chiefs. Therefore, what is the perceived leadership style of police officers? Are their leaders acting more dominantly as a transformational leader or as a transactional leader? Finding answers to these questions and examining the relationship between the perceived leadership style and the job satisfaction of police officers will be helpful towards formulating solutions to management-style problems. Therefore, in this study the correlations between overall job satisfaction and perceived transformational leadership behaviours will be examined to assess the impact of perceived leadership over job satisfaction.

Aims and Objectives

The main aim of this study is to examine the job satisfaction, transformational and transactional leadership behaviours in the Turkish National Police (TNP) and to find out if there is a relationship between these variables. In addition, this study has the following objectives:

To examine the terms of leadership and management within the framework of their historical improvements and the theories they uphold.

To examine the transformational leadership from the theoretical perspective, discover the used fields and evaluate their necessity,

To examine the relationship between job satisfaction and leadership,

To find out the latest improvements on management and help the managers and the organisations to benefit from this,

To evaluate perceived leadership styles of police officers employed in the Eskisehir Police Department,

To establish the relationship between transformational and transactional leadership behaviours and job satisfaction of officers subject to research in the TNP,

To evaluate the identified transformational leadership behaviours within the framework of transformational leadership functions and theories,

To interpret and make recommendations from the results of the job satisfaction and transformational leadership behaviour questionnaire.

Research Questions

To conduct this quantitative research, cross-sectional research design is used. Two hundred and ninety eight (n=298) police officers took part in the survey conducted for this study. This research attempt to respond to the following research questions:

Research Question 1: What is the level of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of the police chiefs as perceived by the police officers?

Research Question 2: As perceived by the police officers, what kind of leadership style do the police chiefs administer to the police officers more dominantly?

Research Question 3: What is overall the job satisfaction score of the police officers?

Research Question 4: What is the relationship between the overall job satisfaction of police officers and perceived effectiveness, Management by Exception (Passive) (MbE passive), idealised influence (attributed) behaviours of police chiefs and the variable of marital status of police officers?

Research Question 5: What is the relationship between supervision satisfaction of police officers and their perceived extra effort, idealised influence (attributed), MbE (passive) and laissez-fair behaviours of police chiefs?

Research Question 6: What is the relationship between co-workers' satisfaction with police officers and their perceived idealised influence (attributed), MbE (active) behaviours of police chiefs?

Research Question 7: What is the relationship between satisfaction of police officers with nature of their work and their perceived intellectual stimulation, MbE

(passive) behaviours of police chiefs, and the variables of marital status and gender?

Research Question 8: What is the relationship between communication satisfaction with police officers and their perceived effectiveness, MbE (passive) behaviours of police chiefs?

The research questions are measured using statistically validated instruments. The first survey is the Employee Demographic Survey (EDS) including information such as age, gender, level of education, marital status, number of children they have. The second survey is the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) prepared by Bass & Avolio (2004) and it questions the perceived leadership style of the police officers. The third instrument is the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) by Spector (1997) questioning the job satisfaction of police officers. The data is gathered from the police officers working in various branches of the Eskisehir police department.

Empirical Results

Major research questions will analyze the research to select the best analysis method to finish the study. In this case, research questions mainly measure the degree of relationship among the variables because there is only one dependent variable and it is continuous in its value. Additionally, we have many independent variables with no covariates, therefore a regression linear model was employed and aimed to find each variable's effect on the dependent variable. A t-test was also applied in order to test the significance level of each independent variable on the dependent variable.

Significance of the study

The Turkish National Police is an organisation with more than two hundred thousand employees; and because it is a national organisation, it serves the entire Turkish nation with a population of 70 million. It is of vital importance for the organisation to function efficiently and effectively, not only to provide harmonization within the organisation but also to serve better the whole nation. At this point, leadership and job satisfaction of officers play an important role in developing and creating an effective force as well. The leaders transform the officers and make them work beyond the expectations. Such transformational leaders also improve the talents of officers and the organisation according to the latest developments. The components of transformational leadership lead the officers and the organisation to success and job satisfaction (Bass, 1998).

Leadership behaviour plays an important role with respect to officers being effective and successful in their work life. The literature of transformational leadership suggests that every manager can learn to be a transformational leader but it is better to teach this system as early as possible. Transformational leadership best fits to the organisations with paramilitary hierarchical structure because it promotes commitment to the organisation, friends and supervisors (Bass, 1998).

Due to the fact that the study of leadership and more importantly, transformational leadership is relatively new, police chiefs who are now working within the Turkish National Police Organisation (TNP) did not have the opportunity to take leadership classes during their study at the Police Academy. Therefore, this study is presently important to the TNP because the kind of leadership skills that the police chiefs are administering to the subordinates and the fact that the relationship between the perceived leadership and job satisfaction is not known.

This study is unique because this is the first study focusing on police officers and assessing their perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction in Turkey. Secondly, it is the first study in Turkey which examines leadership behaviours of police chiefs and job satisfaction of police officers from the standpoint of the transformational leadership theory of Bass (1985) by using Bass & Avolio's (2004) MLQ instrument and Spector's (1997) JSS instrument. Thirdly, it will be the first study in English which assesses perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction of police officers within the TNP.

Thus, this research will examine the job satisfaction of police officers and discover their perceived leadership style. Hopefully, the findings will help in the assessment of the current situation and as a result, in the ability to make recommendations.

Limitations

Determining the best management style is not easy because there are many different management styles. On the other hand, it is not possible to examine all management and leadership styles and then to synthesize the findings. Therefore, this research is limited to the perceived leadership styles and job satisfaction of the police officers subject to research.

The problem statement is established upon a research conducted by Zabun (2000), which examines some of the problems faced in the TNP that are considered the leading causes of suicide of the police officers and mid-level police chiefs. After establishing the problem statement, the problems stated by Zabun (2000) are examined according to the transformational and transactional leadership theory of Bass (1985). This research will examine whether the transactional leader behaviour which causes dissatisfaction exists in the Eskisehir Police Department more

dominantly than transformational leadership or not. Therefore, this research is also limited to the Eskisehir Police Department and cannot be generalized to the TNP.

Definition of terms

The following definitions of terms used in this paper are provided for clarification purposes with respect to clarify the meaning of unfamiliar or confusing terms, and so that it can aid in further understanding.

Transformational Leadership: Promotes achievement and self-fulfilment of the subordinates and improves the development of the groups and the organisation according to latest developments and improvements through use of its components (Bass & Avolio, 1992).

Transactional Leadership: Conventional leadership or management, lacking in transformational leadership behaviours (Bass, 1990).

Job Satisfaction: Employees who like the work they do are considered to have job satisfaction; in contrast, the employees who do not like their work are considered dissatisfied (Spector, 1997).

Police Chief: Police managers or supervisors.

Assumptions

The importance of leadership has been felt by many organisations. Rather than a traditional manager, a “leader manager” has become a talent which is needed not only by the organisations but also by the personnel working at those organisations (Maxwell, 1993). Since the authoritarian leader is not wanted anymore and is not successful in today’s modern management environment, the transformational leader type, who impresses and attracts others with his/her charisma, gives inspiration to the followers, pays attention to each individual with individualised consideration, raises new leaders, helps followers to see the events from a different perspective and implants vision with the intellectual stimulation (Bass, 1998), is presumed necessary.

Another assumption is that the job satisfaction and the perceived leadership style of police officers is presumed to be measured by the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS) questionnaire and the Multiple Leadership Questionnaire MLQ 5X.

Chapter 2: Leadership

Introduction

The evolution of man, moving from his/her independence to group behaviour, results in the creation of leaders with leadership skills. Human beings are the most significant among all the living creatures on earth. The most important feature distinguishing humans from other living creatures is that humans move towards a certain objective. Leaders bring humans to their objectives. A leader is the person who makes an effort to enable people to attain their objectives and leadership is the name of this effort undertaken by a leader. Leadership holds an important position in human history such that the significance of leadership in organisations has found a place in books and inscriptions ever since the beginning of written history (Fiedler, 1996, Augier & Teece, 2005).

Human beings are social and accordingly they feel the necessity to live in a group with other individuals. Leaders are as necessary as the groups themselves to make them reach certain objectives. Although working in groups simplifies and accelerates the work on one side, the work itself will get difficult and is hindered in case of a problem occurring in the group. Therefore, a leader who urges the group to work and reveal the hidden skills in the group, thus facilitating the work to be done, is required. A leader can be considered as the conductor of an orchestra who provides the individuals in the group with an instrument appropriate for their personality and ability. It is natural to have multiple leaders in a group and these leaders in turn lead the sub-groups. However, all in all, every group has a single leader (Bass, 1998).

Considering the concept of leadership in terms of outcomes, the outcomes are the activities carried out in any field by people who can influence others around them positively, formulate plans for progress and contribute to human development by

using their vision (Safty, 2004, Covey, 2006). In contrast, with respect to what to do with a team continuously losing games, whether to change the “players” or to change the “coach”, it is concluded that “coach” should be changed (Bass, 1998).

Today, leadership is perceived as a concept more linked to the “art of influencing”. A leader is the person influencing ordinary people and making them do extraordinary things. The concept of leadership has evolved in the last thirty five years. “Autocratic leader”, in which the leader leads the personnel through fear and intimidation has lost its effect and importance today. Leaders adopting such type of management are excluded from the system, pushed aside and not assigned to senior management duties. Today, the concept of leadership is considered together with the necessity of “continuous learning”. The concept of Chief Learning Officer (CLO) has started to become widespread, more so than Chief Executive Officer (CEO) and managers have started asking the question of “what else can I learn?” rather than subscribing to the mindset that “I know, I command and they do” (Akar, 2004).

Leadership consists of activities with accelerated dynamism and less hierarchy and will take a more democratic form in the future. Among other models of leadership, the model valuing human development will be the effective one (Safty, 2004).

1. Leadership and Leadership Approaches

Leader and the Concept of Leadership

Leadership studies have been located in the centre of management science within the last several decades. There are thousands of publications in the leadership field and that number continues to increase every day. The leadership field has become an interdisciplinary one which deals not only with management but also with psychology, sociology, public and educational administration and political science (Yukl, 1989).

In general terms of leadership history, some theorists believe that leadership develops in a social influence process. The latter is a time line that passes during which the groups communicate a decision with respect to the suitable leader. Other theorists believe that life has a role specialization and all group members play their role in life. The group member who has more influence than the others, as well as some leadership traits, becomes the leader of the group. The leader may have been appointed beforehand or may come up in line with the need of the group (Fiedler, 1996, Yukl, 1989).

The definition of leadership is taken from different perspectives. Some of them define leadership in terms of individual traits and leader behaviour, while others examined the interaction patterns and role relationships. There are also definitions of follower perceptions and influence over followers. Among these definitions, leaders' influence over the followers is the most common one (Yukl, 1989). Some of the definitions are as follows: Helleriegel and Slocum (1986) describe leadership as the power of influencing. Maxwell (1993) also defines leadership as an influencing process to attract the followers. Covey (1989) describes a leader as a pro-active intellectual who first tries to understand the followers and thus followers can

understand him/her. Turner (2003) states that understanding leadership is more difficult than the actual practice of leadership. As a conclusion for the definitions, it is important to note that "there are almost as many definitions of leadership as there are persons who have attempted to define the concept" (Stogdill, 1974b, p. 259).

Leadership can be analyzed from two points of view: process and feature. The process in the structure of the organisation and the objectives and training of personnel, in providing the personnel with the necessary vision and motivation for the organisation to reach its objective constitutes the first phase. The second phase is that the leader should have the characteristic features of influencing the group members. It is not possible for a leader to win recognition by force and violence. The leader can only show and use his/her power of influence among people when his/her leadership skills are appreciated by them and when those same people believe and accept him/her. Great leaders produce other leaders. Those working closest to a leader are the ones who determine his or her success level (Maxwell, 1993). But the converse of this statement is also possible; those working closest to a leader are the ones who determine the level of his or her failure. There is a direct relationship between the power of the leader and the power of the organisation. Organisations with weak leaders will also be weak and vice a versa (Maxwell, 1993). Therefore, the TNP needs strong leaders to be strong.

Historical Evolution of Leadership:

Since 40,000 B.C., leaders typically have been strong, aggressive, warlike, communicative, clever, adventurer people. From 8,000 B.C. to the birth date of Christ, intelligent, brave, charismatic and persuasive people had been accepted as leaders. Leaders able to establish an empire on their own (before Christ) include the

Persian Emperor Darius, who lived between B.C. 550 and 486, the Macedonian Emperor Alexander the Great (B.C. 356-323), and the Hun Emperor Attila (A.D. 400-453) (Akbulut, 2004).

The common features of these three leaders are that they were “clever, charismatic, brave, warlike, cruel, good speakers, intellectual and had a vision” (Akbulut, 2004, p.348). However, they preferred to be alone and did not raise any leaders to follow them, which resulted in the disintegration of their empires pursuant to their death.

As an example of historical great leaders, it is possible to list the leadership secrets of Attila as follows.

Table-1, Leadership secrets of Attila,

1- Desire for management	8- <i>Setting an example</i>
2- Morale and discipline	9- <i>Giving authority</i>
3- Determination	10- <i>Rewarding</i>
4- Traditions	11- <i>Knowing the enemy</i>
5- Command and Control	12- <i>Learning lessons from the past</i>
6- Consultation	13- <i>Winning</i>
7- <i>Obedience</i>	14- <i>Individual leadership features</i>

(---, 1989, p.27).

Timur, as a further example of impressive leadership, was the founder of the Timur State in 14th century Anatolia. He stated that his viziers should be selected among those having the following features:

- a. Being noble,
- b. Being far-sighted and intelligent,
- c. Paying attention to the problems of subordinates and treating them in a good manner,
- d. Being patient and resistant against challenges and being peaceful.

Timur wanted individuals with these four features to be assigned as consultants, if not as viziers, and wanted these people to be trusted, be held in high esteem by the public and awarded the rights to elect and be elected (Tekin, 2001).

First Systematic Studies on Leadership

Basic education has a history of 5,000 years. On the other hand, university education has a history of 900 years. However, the speed of producing information and access to information has never been so fast as it is today. “The amount of information produced in the last 30 years is much more than the information produced in 5,000 years” (Akbulut, 2004, p.350). The spread of the Internet enables access to information from anywhere in the world. Such enormous speed in production and sharing of information has resulted in this era being called the information era. In this context, it is not possible to be successful in our era by using the leadership and management methods of leaders such as Suleyman the Magnificent and Napoleon, which brought them success in the past. New leaders should be able to adapt themselves to the rapidly changing and improving conditions and should be able to perform the transformation required by the era both within themselves and within their organisations (Stogdill, 1974; Jukl, 1989; Bass 1998).

Greek historian Xenophan wrote the first systematic book about leadership 2000 years ago. Xenophan describes the traits that a leader should have as follows (Enzenauer, 2004):

A leader should set targets clearly. The leader is Responsible for vague targets, not the followers.

A leader should give vision to the followers. Thus, the thinking style of the

followers will change and they will start asking, “Which task will I conduct?” rather than, “What will happen to me?”

A leader should inspire the followers. Thus, a leader will psychologically empower the followers and prepare them for the task at hand.

A leader’s success becomes visible especially during hard times. If the followers do not leave the leader alone, this means that the leader is a good one.

A good leader should set an example for the followers and lead by being an example.

A leader should be accessible and available all the time.

A leader leads by going in the front line, not by staying in the shadows.

A leader provides fair discipline on time.

A leader is honest and trustworthy.

As it is stated above many of these leader traits are still valid. The leaders in our era are not the ones who manage an organisation from their seats, but the ones who monitor the activities of rival companies both within and outside the country, as well as those who apply and further develop the innovations in their own organisations. Those organisations unable to perform this transformation will lag behind and be unsuccessful. Thus, organisations using information technologies effectively will have more rapid access to information and as a result of this, those making good use of information technology will catch up with the necessary transformation more rapidly and will update their organisation faster. A leader and his/her team should be individuals who first learn to learn, know how to reach information rapidly and manage the information they receive (Fisher, 2000).

Distinction between Leader and Manager

Research supports that the manager and the leader are different personalities. At the same time, no one proposes that managing and leading are the same. A person can be a manager, but not necessarily a leader. However, it is also possible to be a leader without being a manager (Yukl, 1989). It is already believed within the TNP that managers of the TNP are also its leaders. According to Bennis and Naus (1985, p. 21) "managers are people who do things right and leaders are people who do the right thing." TNP chiefs should carry both of these traits. According to Bass (1985), leaders are transformational, managers are transactional; and for exhibiting an effective leadership, leaders should use both the qualities of a leader and a manager together (See transformational vs. transactional leadership). It is important for a manager to get things done and it is important for a leader that those things have a meaning for them (Zaleznik, 1977). This is one of the points that is bringing about management caused problems within the TNP organisation. The fact of forcing the subordinates to work and not caring whether it has a meaning for them or not is causing some of the problems stated herein. In addition, "management works within the system, leaders work on the system" (Covey, 1989, p. 297). For the continuous development and improvement of the organisation, managers should act as a leader and work on the system (See the need for transformational leadership). Just as in the TNP, a manager is the person who has been awarded the power to influence people via formal procedures, whereas leaders are the individuals who have passed through a social process and acquired power by influencing the people around them during this process. A person acquiring power through the social influencing process can be both a leader and a manager (Kibort, 2004, Archambeau 2005, Buckingham, 2006).

Therefore a police chief should gain the leadership skills to be both a manager and a leader.

Management is the sum of the activities of reaching certain goals through others or by making somebody undertake a task; and managers are individuals who carry out their work or activities related to management alone or in groups. A manager is also the person who makes gains for the organisation by directing employees. Managing and administrating are neutral expressions of the art of management. Leadership, which makes management meaningful and expresses the success achieved by human beings, should be perceived as a normative concept (Safty, 2004). Therefore, TNP chiefs' leadership behaviour will make the task conducted by the police officers meaningful.

According to Gardner (1990), distinctions between leader managers and ordinary managers are as follows: Leader managers are far-sighted people who can see through the underlying reasons of crises occurring every day and can consider things in the long-term. Fields of interest for leader managers are not only limited to the unit they manage and they want to go beyond their field of authority by observing the work and interaction of other units within the same atmosphere. Leader managers attach importance to the vision and value judgments, and encourage the personnel by motivating them. They have the political skills to offer solutions in case of a debate and do not accept sentences expressing insolubility like "this is the situation". "A boss manages his/ her workers, but a leader directs them. The boss is dependent on authority, whereas leader is dependant on strong will. The boss frightens whereas the leader excites. The boss says "me", the leader says "us". The boss knows how to do and leader teaches how to do. The boss says "do it", whereas the leader says "let's do

it” (Maxwell, 1993, p.13). Therefore, instead of being a manager or a just a chief of police, TNP police chiefs should act as a leader.

Can Leadership be Learned?

The belief that leadership is an inborn feature is true but incomplete. Leadership can be taught afterwards, although some individuals are equipped with the inborn features of leadership; they need to develop these features to be able stay on top. Managing people and educating leaders firstly requires accepting people the way they are, believing that they will do their best, appreciating the accomplishments of the personnel and undertaking the responsibility underlying the work. It is possible to categorize people who want to be leaders under four headings (Maxwell, 1993, 1995).

1. Those Born as Leaders (should have at least three of these features):
 - a- Those born with leadership features,
 - b- Those who have leaders they can follow/ emulate for their whole life,
 - c- Those developing their leadership features through education,
 - d- Those having the sense of discipline necessary for becoming a great leader.
2. Those who Learn to be Leaders (should have all these features):
 - a- Those who have leaders they can follow/ emulate for most of their life,
 - b- Those learning leadership through education,
 - c- Those having the sense of personal discipline necessary for becoming a great leader.
3. Those with Hidden Leadership inside of them (should have all these features):
 - a- Those who have seen ideal leaders in recent past,
 - b- Those who start learning leadership through education,

c- Those having the sense of personal discipline necessary for becoming a great leader.

4. Those Having Limited Leadership (all three features may be necessary):

a- Those who have seen very little or no leadership examples in their lives,

b- Those who have very little or no leadership training or education,

c- Those having the desire to become a leader.

As it is all seen above leadership is not only an inborn feature but also can be taught afterwards. If a person can not be the leader then he/she is going to be the follower who follows the leader. The differences between a leader and a follower are as follows;

Table-2, Differences between a Leader and a Follower,

LEADER	FOLLOWER
Influences.	Reacts.
Shows the way, picks up the phone and makes contacts.	Listens, waits for the telephone to ring.
Spends time for planning, solves the problems.	Spends time for living, reacts to problems.
Invests time with people.	Spends time with people.
Fills his agenda with what is necessary.	Fills his agenda with his priorities.

(Maxwell, 1993, p.36)

As it is all seen in the table 2 leaders are the active action people who influences others, who shows the way and spends time for problem solving, in contrast the followers are the ones who are reacting to the happenings. Leaders do not work alone and are not lonely all the time. Leaders attract other potential leaders around them, because the mindsets of all leaders are similar. The way that leaders express their feelings can be perceived by other leaders. Leaders are not afraid of people who promise for a brilliant future. They should be provided an atmosphere in which growth is conducive. The leader, in turn, should provide an atmosphere that

encourages potential leaders. The following matters should be taken into consideration for the potential leader to work more productively.

- a. Encouraging the potential leaders to be successful
- b. Building a safe environment for the potential leader in which he/she can take risks
- c. Allocating an experienced consultant for the potential leader
- d. Providing the necessary opportunities and resources for the potential leader
- e. Spending time and money for the potential leader to be trained in the required fields (Maxwell, 1995).

The above mentioned components are also important for the future of the organization, raising new leaders, making them the experts in their field will result in continuation of the organization. Therefore it is important to support the potential leaders for the future of TNP.

Characteristics of an Efficient Leader

Kretch, et al. (1962) were early pioneers in leadership research, identifying the functions of a good leader; determining the behaviour model of the group, organizing the activities of the group, determining the group ideology, representing the group outside of its own boundaries, preventing conflicts within the group, and rewarding group members. These functions have provided the framework for subsequent leadership research; quality of a good leader.

A good leader is the person who senses, communicates, forms a vision, is receptive to change, does not support the status quo, achieves success with his/her team, shares and communicates his/her values to the team. Leadership is partially a

personal trait and partially a developed feature. A leader should be able to motivate groups and to direct them enthusiastically towards objectives (Bass, 1990; Covey, 1995; Miller & Levitin, 1976).

An effective leader is the person who can decide on the appropriate person for a duty, form a team in which individuals will work in harmony and holds a vision, while encouraging the personnel to commit themselves to their work and creates the environment of trust inside and outside the organisation (Fiedler, 1996, Schermerhorn, 1996, Covey, 2006). A successful expert is the person who knows how to do a task. A successful teacher is the person who can teach how to do a task; a successful manager is the person who makes sure the necessary task has been carried out. A successful leader is the one who motivates his personnel to work better (Maxwell, 1993). Traits to carry a leader to success include:

1-Personality:

The first feature a potential leader should have is a good personality. A leader should have a strong and sound personality. Honesty, integrity, internal discipline, educability, commitment, determination, attention and strong work ethic are the features to be found in an individual with good personality. What a person with good personality says and what he does are in harmony. People utter nice words about him and he behaves in a coherent manner (Bass, 1998, Engelbrecht, Aswegen & Theron, 2005).

A leader maintains his decision about an issue till the very end; he does not abandon himself to despair and can focus his energy and concentration on one point, which shows his determination. A leader should be a reliable person whose words and actions do not contradict, who does not make the promise he cannot fulfill and keeps the promise he gives. Otherwise, the leader loses all the support given to him. A

leader whose one action contradicts with the other causes a lack of belief (Stotz, 2005, Akbulut, 2004). It is possible to determine whether a person can be a leader or not by looking at the way he/she leads his/her own life (Maxwell, 1993, p.51). A leader should set an example for others with his/her energetic and hard-working character. Those leaders who can pull themselves together and have developed a working discipline will never stay alone like those who become weak and make mistakes (Covey, 2005)

2- Influence:

It was mentioned in previous chapters that leadership is influencing process. If a leader enthusiastically and excitedly presents the work to be done and monitors the ongoing work with the same desire, then he/she will be heading for the objective. People who work around the leader will follow the leader because he has influenced them in some way. This influence stems from some features of being a strong leader that may include:

- a- The leader's influence due to the position or office he holds.
- b- The leader's ability to motivate.
- c- Influence of the outcomes of the work done by the leader and produced by him.
- d- The leader's position of enabling personal development of himself and others.
- e- The leader's adjustment of his organisation and personnel to developing conditions in accordance with his personality (Maxwell, 1995).

The leader is inspired and influenced by some people as much as he influences the people around him/her (House et al, 2004). Considering that the leader will turn out to be the person he follows, it is important that this person has moral features

(Maxwell, 1995). Who the leader influences is as important as the fact that he influences people. Some leaders are followed by groups saying “yes, sir” all the way but it is better to work with strong personalities than people saying “yes, sir” (Wind & Main, 1999).

3- Positive Attitude

A leader’s positive attitude is a valuable feature both for himself and the organisation. A leader seeing life from a positive perspective can manage to accomplish what others cannot because he has not restricted himself (Maxwell, 1993). Seeing the events positively, or seeing the glass as full, is another factor that contributes to the success of the leader (Akbulut, 2004). The importance of a positive attitude is summarized by the quote, “Pessimistic complains about the wind, optimistic hopes that it will cease, whereas the leader sets sail” (Maxwell, 1993, p. 1)

4- Vision

One of the factors necessary for achieving success at work is having an idea about the possibilities for the future. Having a common vision in an enterprise will enable that enterprise to be successful (Turner, 2003). Establishing a vision, rather than managing, is more important for the organisation. A manager ensures the progress of the work by sticking to the available system. However, the leader makes use of “innovative and creative” features belonging to the people around him. Potential leaders working in an organisation produce creative ideas once they understand the vision of their leader. It is not possible to be a successful leader by oneself. A leader should train leaders around him, convey his vision to them and benefit from the visions of such other leaders. This way, the leader’s burden will lighten and his vision will continue to develop.

Vision directs an organisation and provides guidance. The direction determined by rules, laws or regulations is ineffective when compared to the direction drawn by the vision. The importance and influence of the vision starts once the leader actually sees the importance of such vision, and expands when the leader starts transfusing it to the personnel by providing examples; and it is realized when people start producing in the direction of that vision. "Exactly everything a leader does is dependant on the vision he has." If the leader has a small vision, the outcome of his work and the number of his followers will be relatively small. Only the people who are not afraid of taking risks, have flexibility, and do not restrict their own potential and think big, can grow and become a strong leader. Once the vision is formed, it is important to work with a team that can be successful. A successful team cannot be found, but created. It is necessary to teach the personnel in the organisation how to do the work, to lead the way and to develop themselves (Maxwell, 1995).

5- Teamwork

The team that will carry the leader to success is a well-trained, harmonized, motivated team perceiving the vision of the leader. Without teamwork, achieving many things will be impossible and through teamwork i.e. solidarity, many difficulties will be overcome. It will be possible to proceed towards success by faster and sounder steps (Akbulut, 2004).

Communicating as a leader requires a high level of comprehension. A leader who shares his thoughts with others will achieve good results in communication. As well as the leadership skills, the ideas, expertise and memory of a leader also attract the attention of the team. A leader who addresses the team members by their first name is an important factor affecting the team members. On the other hand, a leader's working together with his/her team under difficult conditions is an action motivating

and increasing their commitment to the leader. A team respecting and understanding each other should be the utmost objective of the leader. "The secret of success lies in self-confidence, professional soldiers, religious beliefs and a little luck." Leaders who do not like their subordinates and do not value the job they are doing have not been able to reach the higher positions they would aspire to. The success achieved, in both the case of a small unit and a great army, is a reflection of the leadership level of the commander (---, 1989, p.27-28)

Another important factor in teamwork is not the quantity but the quality of the work. In other words, the technique utilized in the work is important. An organized working method will prevent many problems from occurring. For this reason, it is necessary to make a priority list as follows: Urgent and important issues should be prioritized and a schedule for the completion of less urgent issues should be determined and tackled within the daily agenda. A method for rapidly solving issues of high and low urgency, without putting forth too much effort, should be developed, and an assistant should be charged with this task if necessary. Issues of low urgency and importance can be channelled to other personnel (Maxwell, 1993).

Intelligence and Leadership

Today's leaders should have emotional intelligence as well as classical technique and analytic competency. Maintaining healthy and fruitful relations with people is a result of emotional intelligence (EQ). EQ as a new concept has been added to intelligence measurement after 1995. Only the leaders with emotional intelligence will motivate their personnel to work effectively and achieve success in management. Whereas it is not possible to improve IQ, it has been stated that EQ can be improved. It has been specified that IQ is effective by 20 percent and EQ by 80 percent in the success of an individual, and it lies in the hands of such individual to be successful. Emotional intelligence can be summarized under five main headings (Dulewics, Young & Dulewics, 2005, Albrecht, 2006, Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley, 2003):

1- Self-awareness:

A person's getting to know himself/herself, being able to notice an emotion at the formation stage, forms the basis of emotional intelligence. People familiar with their emotions can lead better lives. Those who do not notice their emotions hope for the fairness of the results.

2- Ability to manage emotions:

Control of emotions is linked to the ability of a person to know oneself. A person's ability to comfort him/herself, to get rid of pessimism and anxiety, and find solutions in negative situations, is evaluated under this heading. Those people with a weak ability of controlling their emotions feel unhappy and uneasy, whereas those with a strong ability overcome such situations more easily. "A successful leader is the one who behaves in a logical and calm manner when faced with failure and who can find constructive solutions".

3- Mobilising oneself (Motivation):

Organisations do not reach a good performance level by accident; achieving good performance is connected to the high motivation and direction of employees by the manager (Thompson, 1998). Emotions can influence the performance of an ongoing task positively or negatively. Intensifying emotions towards one focus and devoting oneself to working with desire and enthusiasm as a result is a factor which brings success. When emotions are intensified in negative terms and there is reluctance to work, the possible outcome may be low productivity and a low level of success. In this context, it can be seen that emotional intelligence has the power of influencing all the skills of a person.

4- Understanding the emotions of others (Empathy):

A person able to read and understand his own emotions can understand what another person feels as well. Those people with disjointed thoughts and ideas, having problems in their own inner world, will have difficulty in understanding other people. It was mentioned before that people dealing with negative emotions, i.e. personal problems, would have a lower rate of success in their job. A leader will try to understand the emotions of his/her personnel through empathy, will attempt to solve the problems of the personnel and thus the productivity of the personnel will increase (Bass, 1998, Albrecht, 2006, Dulewics, Young & Dulewics, 2005).

5- Ability to Manage Relationships:

Managing relationships is the ability to handle the feelings of others. This ability is among the indispensable requirements for leadership. It is composed of four subgroups:

a- Ability to direct groups: Directing the group is one of the leader's basic skills. It is thus among the leader's duties to: decide who will be assigned which task

in the organisation, determine in how much time and at which stages the work will be carried out, to monitor the works in progress and to control the conformity of the results to the objectives.

b- Ability to find solutions in the event of debate: The ability to mediate among parties in case of possible disagreements will contribute to the productivity of both the personnel and the organisation.

c- Having personal contact with the other people: Knowing the work potential and working techniques of contact people through the progress of a task and when starting a new task will facilitate the objective.

d- Ability to make Social Analysis: Understanding the feelings and emotions of people, what they want to do and their problems, if any, and to be able to have empathy will facilitate getting closer with them. It will be realized that the above mentioned points, when considered as a whole, will contribute to carrying out relations between people smoothly; they will be the keys to success in social life and also constitute the requisites of charisma (Dulewics, Young & Dulewics, 2005, Prati, Douglas, Ferris, Ammeter & Buckley 2003).

Leadership and Power Relations

A leader influences the followers, peers, superiors and stakeholders with the power he/she has. A leaders' level of influence is related to the amount of power he/she has. The power that the leader has helps him/her direct the organisation. Allocating the resources, punishing those who should be punished and awarding those who should be awarded are all a result of the power of the leader. The power of the leader establishes his/her authority on the employees. This authority shapes the employees to conform to the leader. This power is mobile and increases or decreases according to the

mutual influence process. A leader's power is sometimes measured with the potential power he/she has; at other times his/her realized influence is taken into consideration (Yukl, 1989).

A leader has two types of power: first, the personal power which is coming from the attributes of the leader and secondly, the positional power which is coming from the attributes of the conditions (Yukl, 1989).

1- Personal Power of the Leader:

A leader's personal power is the power deriving from the personality of the leader. This power cannot be separated from the leader. When the leader takes a new post, then this power will accompany him/her to the new post. The leader, having effective personal power, influences the people around them. In the event of a conflict, personal power is more dominant than the power deriving from the position. As mentioned under the heading of the features required in the leader, such as vision, charisma, self-confidence, honesty, personal integrity, establishing good communication, these are the features that increase personal power.

The personal influence of a leader becomes a personal power: Followers want to identify themselves with the leader, and they want to be as their leaders are. Therefore, they respect the leader and want to be appreciated by him/her. All these feelings ensure the followers will comply with the leader's direction. This type of leader, possessing a high level of power and influence is included in the charismatic leader category. In addition, a leader's influence over his/her superiors and laterals is as important as his/her influence with the subordinates. A leader can provide satisfactory benefits to the subordinates and be effective if his/her communication with the superiors and laterals is good. Having good influence over the superiors and laterals increases a leader's positional power, and increased positional power helps a

leader to by-pass the limitations of the formalities which may impede the accomplishment of the tasks (Yukl, 1989). In addition, the leader's expertise in the field of the task he/she is carrying out, and being appreciated for this skill by both the workers and others, indicates the personal power deriving from expertise (Anderson, 1998). On the other hand, innovative approaches to the problems are one of the factors which increase the leader's power among the followers. A leader's power decreases if these innovations fail (Yukl, 1989).

2- Leader's Positional Power:

A leader needs positional power to be effective. Positional power is also called traditional power. This power is that which derives from the position or the post of the leader. Whoever comes to this position gains the same power. A person who has been promoted to a superior post in the organisation is considered as powerful by other workers. Therefore, it is reported that a person being appointed to a new post is to handle the power that the post brings about on the first day he/she is appointed to that post. The power that leader should have depends on the nature of organisations, the task they conduct and the conditions of the workers. A leader should be able to make necessary changes within the organisation, have the power to reward successful employees and punish the problem makers. For example, if a leader can reward the successes of his personnel, give them time off, create positive conditions and eliminate the negative ones, this power is an indicator of the leaders' positional power of rewarding the personnel (Gitlow, 1991). As another example, if the leader can assign a task and empower the personnel, increase or decrease their current authority, change their position, assign a worker at a higher position to a lower task, or prevent the promotion of the personnel who should be promoted, this power constitutes the positional power of sanction of the leader (Schermerhorn, 1996, Gitlow, 1991).

Using large amounts of power causes either enthusiastic commitment of the followers, their passive compliance, or their stubborn resistance. Effective leaders use their personal and positional power in a humble way that doesn't threaten the self-esteem of followers. On the other hand, leaders having exaggerated positional power carry the risk that they do not need to use other forms of influence. For example, a leader won't ask subordinates to participate in a decision-making process or else won't feel the need to inspire the followers. Therefore, it is better for a leader to have a moderate level of power which is controlled by the organisational limitations (Yukl, 1989, Takala, 2005).

Because of the lack of the necessary leadership education in the TNP, police chiefs who are causing the management style problems that are stated in problem statement are either not using their personal power, or using the positional power too much, which results in dissatisfaction among the staff. The leaders who use large amounts of positional power are examined under the transactional leadership topic and the leaders who use both personal and positional powers adequately are examined under the transformational leadership topic in the next section dealing with transformational leadership theory.

Problems encountered by the Leader

Some of the problems that the leader encounters are related to weaker personnel who give sub-standard performance. The decisions to be made with respect to this type of personnel are among the most difficult. Senior leaders have to make smart choices in such cases. A leader who cannot cope with weak personnel will not only decrease his esteem, but also hinder the organisation's ability to reach its objective and disrupt the motivation of the personnel.

There are three things that can be done about the weak personnel. The leader has to choose the appropriate course of action.

1- Training: If the reason for low performance of the personnel is the lack of training and not being able to master the subject due to lack of knowledge, the training he/she will receive can help the personnel understand the working principles of the organisation or better perceive the vision of the leader. Investing in the current personnel by means of training is a more positive and economic solution when compared to employing new personnel.

2- Rotation (replacement): Sometimes the personnel cannot show his/her abilities and skills in the unit he/she is assigned to. If the employee is making an effort and showing a resolution to be successful but cannot, he/she can be rotated to another unit that is comparable to his/her abilities.

3- Dismissal: Dismissal is one of the most difficult decisions that the leader will have to make because it will necessitate the employment of new personnel from outside the organisation, which poses a new risk and causes loss of time. This is so because a new employee is not known or familiar to the organisation and there is a possibility that he may not be appropriate for the job. It may cause a loss of time because of the time it would take for the new employee to learn the work and the environment, as well as gain experience. Personnel who know the job, and are trained in that organisation will reach success by the leader's vision, his/her guidance and encouragement. Therefore, finding a good substitute is as important as dismissing personnel with low performance (Maxwell, 1995).

Definition of a Problematic Leader

The following matters are the main problems that can be observed in a leader. A leader displaying at least five of these shows his resistance to change. This is an indicator of a problem in the company or the institution. These problems can be listed as follows: The leader being inconsiderate towards the people, having a weak imagination, experiencing personal problems, avoiding responsibilities, being defeated by his rage, not taking risks, lacking confidence and feeling the need to defend himself, experiencing lack of harmony with oneself and team members, not having the team spirit, and fighting against change (Maxwell, 1995). Based on this foundational research, various types of leadership styles have evolved in theoretical research.

2. Leadership Theories

This part examines leadership theories and takes the reader from the early leadership studies to the transformational leadership theory of Bass (1985). This research will not discuss all but some of the major theories. Therefore, leadership theories are divided into two groups: before the 1970's and after the 1970's. Leadership studies conducted before the 1970's can be summed up under three groups. The first group consists of theories related to traits; the second group consists of theories related to behaviours; the third group consists of theories related with conditions (also called theories of contingency).

In the first group of studies, some of the traits of world-wide famous leaders are examined (Katz, 1955, Stogdill, 1974, Jukl, 1989). Researchers thought that someone who carries the traits found in famous leaders can likewise be a good leader. Therefore, the distinguishing features of those famous leaders were determined, and

measurement techniques were also developed for this aim. (See Theory of Traits for details)

After the traits approach, researchers focused on leader behaviours and tried to compare effective leader behaviours with those of a less effective one, and then to determine the differences between them. Ohio State University and Michigan State University studies are the leading studies in this field (See Theory of Behaviouralism for details).

The third group of studies focused on the effects of contingency in the process of leadership (Bartol & Martin, 1994). While Fiedler examines the characteristics of leadership in terms of relationship motivated and task motivated (Fiedler, 1967), the Hersey and Blanchard model focuses on task behaviour and relationship behaviour of leaders (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). (See Contingency Theory of leadership for details).

Before the 1970's:

Theory of Traits

In the initial studies carried out on leadership, well-known leaders having a significant position in history such as Napoleon, Gandhi and Lincoln were taken as examples. The traits of these leaders, as well as the commonalities and their distinguishing features were determined, and therefore the measurement techniques to be used in leadership studies were also determined (Katz, 1955, Stogdill, 1974, Jukl, 1989).

In the leadership research, a general opinion that a leader is smart, self-confident, experienced in his/her subject, and is an active manager was accepted. On the other hand, studies lacking scientific value were also carried out and one group

defended that the leaders must be tall while the others defended that short individuals will be better leaders (Yukl, 1989, Robbins 1998). In contrast to the previous trait research which focuses on the personality and intelligence of leader, the recent trait research focuses on motivation in management and specific skills that a leader should possess (Yukl, 1989).

In summary, the traits approach research tried to explain leadership according to the personal characteristics of a leader and to determine the effective leader because it was believed that the traits of a leader are associated with his/her success.

Unfortunately, these studies could not be statistically validated because their relative reliability and correlations among the variables were weak and inconsistent (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

Theory of Behaviouralism

Some researchers initiated some noteworthy leadership studies in the 1940's. In these studies, they tried to compare effective leader behaviours with those of a less effective one and determine the differences between them. The conclusion reached by the researchers was that an effective leader's behaviour would be the same under any condition (Fiedler, 1996, Bartol&Martin, 1994).

Ohio-State Studies

In the studies conducted by Ralph Stogdill from Ohio State University, the importance of leadership behaviours in reaching the objectives of any organisation was examined in late 1940's. The questionnaires prepared were applied in military and industrial sectors and it was determined that the leaders pose two different sorts of behaviour. The first of these is the behaviour which is centred on consideration, and

the other is the behaviour which is centred on initiating structure. The leader showing behaviours aimed at consideration is the type of leader who handles personnel problems and tries to find solutions for them (Stogdill, 1974, Northouse, 2004).

The leader aiming at initiating structure is the one who makes structural arrangements so as to reach the objectives of the organisation. This is the leader who plans the activities to be done, organizes the groups, segregates the duties within the group, and manages it by shaping and diverting the tasks being performed (Robbins 1998, Bartol & Martin, 1994, Northouse, 2004).

Although the leadership classification in the Ohio State studies is similar to that of Michigan State, there are several significant differences. In the Ohio State studies, it can be assessed that if the behaviours aimed at consideration are less effective in a leader then the behaviours aimed at initiating structure will be more effective, or vice versa. In other words, it was mentioned that a leader can show both sorts of behaviours at different ratios (Stogdill, 1974, Robbins 1998).

Michigan Studies

Rensis Likert conducted studies on leader behaviours carried out in Michigan State University in 1961. In the studies conducted, successful groups were observed and leadership behaviours in these groups were attempted to be determined. In the Likert research, two different groups working in the organisations were observed. In the first group, workers with high efficiency were dealt with directly, while workers with lower efficiency were simply observed in the other group. Therefore, behaviours of an effective leader were determined. These behaviours were accumulated into two groups. The first group is an example of job-centred leader behaviour, and the other group is an example of employee-centred leader behaviour.

The leader's behaviour in the first group was determined to be in a job-centred manner, such that the personnel learn the job, the task is executed and success is achieved. The leaders in the second group showing employee-centred leader behaviour were determined to be more interested in the morale and motivation of the employees, the arrangement of the groups to work together and the working atmosphere and conditions of these groups, as well as taking into consideration the satisfaction of the employees. According to Likert's studies, it was emphasized that the leader chooses one of the two behaviours mentioned above (Likert, 1979, Certo, 1992, Robbins 1998). In summary, leadership studies that focused on behaviours of a leader had also failed because it is reported that although leader behaviour is important it cannot by itself fully explain the leadership process (Bass, 1985).

Theory of Contingency

In contingency models of leadership, three well-known models will be dealt with. The first is Fiedler's contingency model, the second is Hersey and Blanchard's contingency theory, and finally, the third is the Vroom, Yetton and Jago model.

Fiedler's Effective Leadership Theories

The first group working on the contingency model is comprised of Fred Fiedler and his assistants. According to Fiedler (1967), the kind of atmosphere and the type of organisation that the leader is in are the most important factors that will determine the effectiveness or the success of such leader. In his studies, Fiedler tried to determine whether the personal traits of the leader are conformant with the atmosphere he works in. Fiedler uses the terms "relationship motivated" and "task motivated" while defining the characteristics of the leader (Fiedler, 1967).

As mentioned in the previous chapter, the task motivated leader is one who concentrates on the task, similarly to the type of leader who prefers initiating structure. The relationship-motivated leader is similar to an employee-centred type of leader, in other words, the type of leadership focusing on the needs and the motivation of the personnel.

For the task-motivated leader, the important thing is that the task is accomplished in a high quality way in the shortest time. These types of leaders give orders and they want the task to be accomplished no matter what. They do not pay attention to the ideas of the personnel working under their command. This type of leader is similar to autocratic type of leaders.

However, leaders adopting a management type centred on relationships pay attention to the ideas of his/her personnel. The harmony and friendship of personnel with one another is significant for them. This type of leader is similar to a democratic type of leader (Bartol & Martin, 1994, Brandi, 2005).

So to determine whether the leader is task-motivated or relationship-motivated, Fiedler's 3 step Least Preferred Co-Worker (LPC) test was used. According to the results of the questionnaire, the leaders scoring high were classified as the ones paying attention to relationships; while those who had lower scores were classified as task-motivated leaders. In addition to this test, Fiedler determined three factors to define the contingency approach. These factors are explained in more detail in the next section with the following sub-titles: leader-member relations, task structure, and leader's positional power (Fiedler, 1967, 1977; Hunt, 1968, Fiedler & Mahar, 1979; Robbins, 1998).

1- Leader-Member Relations:

The first factor covers the relations between the leader and his/her personnel.

The existence of an atmosphere of love-respect and trust in the organisation was translated to mean that the relations within the organisation were good.

2- Task Structure:

Fiedler studied the task structure under four headings.

a- Path-Goal Multiplicity: Existence of various methods to carry out a task.

b- Decision Verifiability: Verifiability of decisions made in different ways.

c- Decision Specificity: Compliance of the decisions with the solution of the problem.

d-Goal Clarity: Clarification of the objectives that the organisation wants to achieve.

If the task is clear and understandable with the complementary factors listed above, achievement of this type of task becomes easier. Contingency theory expresses that full determination of the task structure helps the leader pay attention to other tasks.

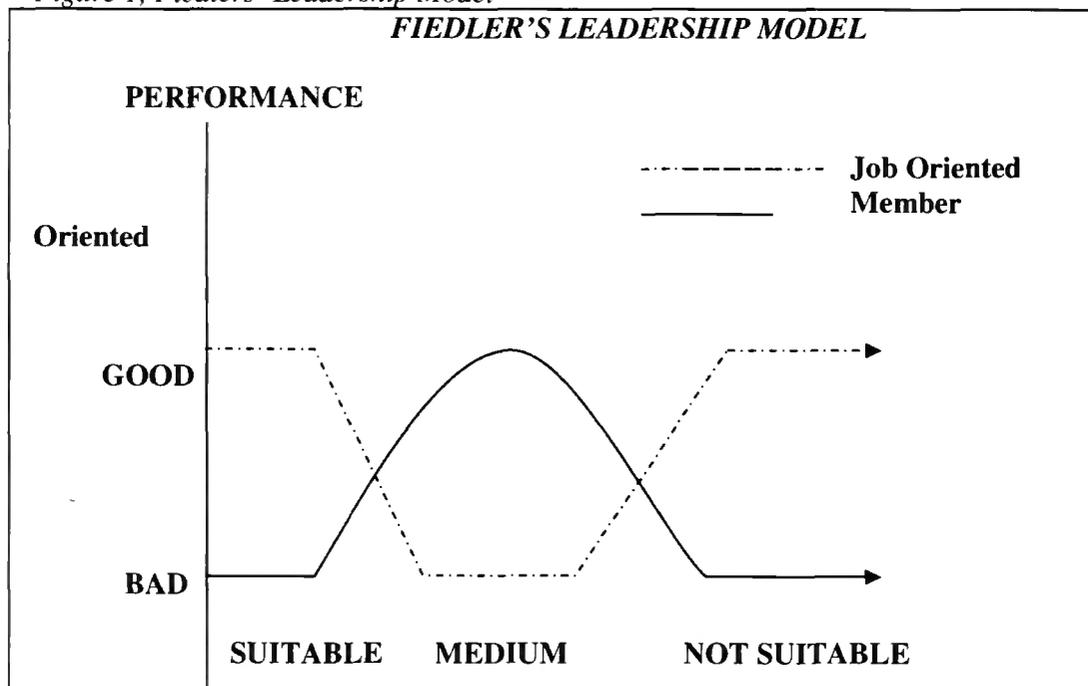
3- Leader's Positional Power:

This factor expresses the power deriving from the quality of leadership and acceptance by the personnel. Management of the personnel, and the rewarding or punishing the personnel when necessary by the leader shows that the power of the leader is high. In contrast, a decision being taken out of the will of the leader shows the weakness of the leader's power.

According to Fiedler, if the three features mentioned above are present, it will result in the most appropriate atmosphere for a leader. The correlation between

atmosphere compliance and the effectiveness of the leader was not explained in a linear way but in a curvilinear one (Fiedler, 1967; Fiedler & Mahar, 1979).

Figure 1, Fiedlers' Leadership Model



Category	I	II	III	IV	V	VI	VII	VIII
Leader Member Relations	Good	Good	Good	Good	Bad	Bad	Bad	Bad
Task Structure	High	High	Low	Low	High	High	Low	Low
Positional Power	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak	Strong	Weak

(Fiedler, Chemers & Mahar, 1977).

As shown in figure 1, task-motivated leaders working under the easiest and hardest conditions (leaders having a lower score in LPC) are more successful or efficient under medium-level conditions than those with higher LPC test scores who pay attention to relationships (Hunt, 1968, Certo, 1992). On the other hand, empirical studies conducted by Bons, Bass & Komorita (1970) defend the concept that Fiedlers' leadership measures are situational dependent and will not show the same effect under

different conditions. In addition, researchers reported that contingency theory has methodological problems and its variables are confusing, thus analyses conducted are open to questions (Yukl, 1998).

Hersey and Blanchard's Contingency Theory

As in other leadership approaches, the Hersey and Blanchard (1969) model deals with leadership on two dimensions: as task behaviour and relationship behaviour. These are:

1- Task Behaviour: The leader segregates the duties of the personnel. He tells them how, where, and when to carry out the task. The leader showing task behaviour undertakes the role of explaining and teaching so as to increase the efficiency of work of the personnel (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969).

2- Relationship Behaviour: The leader deals with the individuals one by one. He listens to their problems, encourages them in their work, and supports his personnel socially and emotionally.

Task-motivated and relation-motivated leader behaviours defined by Fiedler were studied under four headings by Hersey and Blanchard. These are (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969, 1996, Helleriegel & Slocum, 1986, Robbins 1998):

1- Telling: Carrying out the task is a priority for this type of leader; the task is of high priority and the relationships are of low priority. The leader inspires personnel in order to reach the objectives and directs them accordingly.

2- Selling: For this type of leader, both the task and the relationships are significant. While the leader instructs, he does not avoid giving the necessary support to the personnel. The relationships are of as high a priority as the task.

3- Participating: In case of this type of leadership, the relationship is of high priority, and the leader creates a structure in which he or she makes decisions with the personnel and supports the personnel. In this context, the task is of lower priority.

4- Delegating: For this type of leader, neither the task nor the relationships are of importance. The relationship between the leader and the personnel is weak and communication is lacking. Both the task and the relationships are of lower priority.

Different from other studies, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) defended that the maturity level of the personnel should be determined. The level of maturity in the personnel is the level of maturity in the resultant work. In other words, maturity in the work is the effort shown by the personnel in learning and carrying out the task. This psychological maturity is expressed in finding and implementing the truth so as to carry out the task and the action in the right way.

Maturity levels are investigated in four groups listed below:

M1- Maturity Level 1: Having neither the expertise nor the desire of the personnel who will carry out a task.

M2- Maturity Level 2: Having no expertise but the desire of the personnel who will carry out a task.

M3- Maturity Level 3: Having the expertise of the personnel who will carry out a task but not wanting to do so in line with the request of the leader.

M4- Maturity Level 4: Having both the expertise and the desire of the personnel who will carry out a task.

As the maturity level of the personnel increases, the leader's interference in both the task and the personnel decreases. The personnel in M1 needs directing, therefore they need a telling leader. The personnel in M2 need more attention and also need to learn the tasks; therefore they need a selling leader. The personnel in M3 lacks

motivation, the participation of the personnel is necessary for the decision taken; therefore the personnel needs the implementations of a participatory type of leader. The personnel in M4 does not need anything, he will carry out the task that he should (Hersey & Blanchard 1969, 1996, Bartol & Martin 1994, Robbins 1998, Gitlow, 1991).

Vroom and Yetton's Contingency Theory

In the contingency approach, the third type to be described is the Vroom Yetton and Jago model. This model was created by Victor Vroom and Philip Yetton, and became more widespread in recent years by Vroom and Arthur (Jago & Vroom, 1980, Northouse 2004). The important point in this model is the fact that the decision made by only one person is not going to be a healthy one. Therefore, it emphasizes the necessity of the participation of the personnel for the decisions made. It was defended that the greater the contribution of the personnel in a decision, the more efficient that decision will be.

In the Vroom Yetton model, leader behaviour was investigated in five different categories alternative to one another. Seven contingency questions were asked so as to determine in which category a leader would fall:

1- Autocratic I- AI: The leader type who solves a problem, making decisions by himself.

2- Autocratic II- AII: The leader type who makes decisions by himself after taking the necessary information from the personnel.

3- Consultative I- CI: The leader who asks the opinions of the related personnel and shares the problems; however, the managers at inferior levels make decision themselves.

4- Consultative II- CII: The leader asks the opinions of the personnel; however, he decides whether or not to reflect these opinions in the decisions. Managers, again, make the decisions.

5- Group II (GII): The personnel and the manager jointly make decisions and these decisions are implemented.

In order to classify a leader according to the above-mentioned categories, it was found necessary to ask the following seven contingency questions:

A- Is there a need for quality in the task to be carried out or in the decision to be made? If yes go to B, if no go to D1,

B- Do I have sufficient information as a leader for this decision to be of high quality? If yes go to D2, if no go to C,

C- Is the problem expressed fully? If yes go to D3, if no go to D4,

D- Will the implementation of my decisions be approved by the personnel? For D1, if yes go to E1, if no go to A1, for D2, if yes go to E2, if no go to A1, for D3, if yes go to E3, if no go to AII, for D4, If yes go to E4, if no go to CII,

E- Will my reasons for making my decisions be approved by the personnel? For E1, if yes then A1, if no go to GII, for E2, if yes then GII, if no go to F1, for E3, if yes then AII, if no go to F1, for E4, if yes go to CII, if no go to F2,

F- Will the necessary organisational goals to solve the problem be approved by the personnel? For F1, if yes go to GII, if no go to G, for F2 if yes go to GII, if no go to CII,

G- Is there disagreement among the personnel in the implementation of the decisions? For G, if yes go to CII, if no go to CI.

All leaders make efforts so as to increase production and quality in their companies. As in the Vroom Yetton's model, it was not found that the participation of

the personnel in all the decisions increases the production and quality empirically. In addition it does not contribute to job satisfaction. It was mentioned that morale, training and financial satisfaction play a more important role in the satisfaction of the personnel. Although not used widely, the Vroom Yetton model is a method used in determining to what extent the personnel will play a role in the decision-making mechanism (Robbins 1998, Northouse 2004). Although Vroom & Yetton is reported as a complex model, it is used particularly in a decision-making process (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

McGregors' X and Y Theory

According to the theory developed by Douglas McGregor, people are categorized into two groups. The ones who are examined in group X are considered to have a lack of motivation. The managers who adopt the theory X believe that people must be forced to work, as nobody likes to work. This theory has been effective for many centuries and today it is still possible to see its applications (Northouse, 2004).

According to Theory Y, people are considered the ones who make an effort for the work to be done, who wish to improve themselves as well as the organisation and who want to be useful to the organisation. (Helleriegel & Slocum, 1986).

Table-3, Theory X & Y

Theory X	Theory Y
People who don't like to work, work because of obligation, and run away if possible.	People who are working to produce a good task and want to be rewarded at the end.
People who have less responsibility and professional ambition.	People who consider work as normal as rest and entertainment and desire a fair management. It is necessary to accept that everybody has a limited capacity.
It is necessary to force, even threaten, to make people work.	People guide themselves through their task.

Table adapted from Thompson (1998).

As seen in table 3, the theory of X and Y is the approach of a conventional management style. Even though this theory has both correct and missing parts, the most important missing item is that the term motivation is disregarded. Today, in scientific management, the term motivation (and finding solutions according to it), is becoming successful (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994).

Theory Z

Theory Z was suggested by Ouchi after Theory X and Theory Y were suggested.

1- It promises an employment guarantee in the long-term, a working environment in a family-like atmosphere, colleagues and a leader, specific targets to be achieved and pride of achievement.

2- It presents decisions that can affect personnel's work; they can understand and support to the utmost and with enthusiasm.

3- It expects individuals to take decisions that will affect their own success and meet expectations as a part of a team.

4- It evaluates individuals in the long term rather than supervising them on a frequent basis because this will allow them to be able to adapt themselves to the system without any undue pressure.

5- It maintains individual importance that a person bears in group successes by ensuring confidence and closeness in communications with those who are managers and not managers.

6- It focuses on working groups achieving things by having only a few centres of authority in the organisation because this will allow the feeling of belonging to the team and organisation to be at the top level; and confidence will enhance success.

7- It is ensured that an individual internalizes her/his own responsibilities in order to achieve the goals of the team and organisation by using informal rules with formal success measurement techniques.

Theory Z emphasizes not their individuality but the status of individuals in the team, organisation or community where they live. This approach gives the feeling that he/she has achieved a value based on the success of the overall organisation, relieving the individual from the psychological pressure that would arise from the obligation to succeed on his/her own. While the philosophy of Theory Z was developed in Japan within the framework of the Japanese lifestyle and understanding, it was claimed that it cannot be applied to Western Countries due to divergent understandings in these two cultures.

Summary and Conclusion

In the first group of studies, some of the traits of world-wide famous leaders are examined (Katz, 1955, Stogdill, 1974, Yukl, 1989). Researchers thought that someone who carries the traits found in famous leaders can likewise be a good leader. Therefore, the distinguishing features of those famous leaders were determined, and measurement techniques were also developed for this aim. Unfortunately, these studies could not be statistically validated because their relative reliability and correlations among the variables were weak and inconsistent (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992).

After the traits approach, researchers focused on leader behaviours and tried to compare effective leader behaviours with those of a less effective one and to determine the differences between them. The conclusion reached by the researchers was that an effective leader's behaviour would be the same under any condition (Fiedler, 1996, Bartol & Martin, 1994). Unfortunately, these studies had also failed

because it is reported that leader behaviour is important but it cannot by itself explain the leadership process (Bass, 1985).

The third group of studies focused on the effects of contingency in the process of leadership (Bartol & Martin, 1994). While Fiedler examines the characteristics of leadership in terms of relationship motivated and task motivated styles (Fiedler, 1967), the Hersey and Blanchard model focuses on the task behaviour and relationship behaviour of leaders (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969). Empirical studies conducted defend that Fiedlers' leadership measures are situational dependent and will not show the same effect under different conditions (Bass, Bass & Komorita, 1970). In addition, it is reported that the contingency theory has methodological problems: its variables are confusing and the analyses conducted are open to debate (Yukl, 1998).

After the 1970s', the theories proposed gained the benefit of the previous studies. Two of the other theories which are also important to note are the following: The first is the LMX theory, which promotes the exchange between leader and member and which is similar to the exchange between a transactional leader and the subordinates (Bass, 1985). The second is the path-goal theory of House (1971); with this leadership theory, leadership studies go a step further. Path-goal theory is a combination of the traits and behaviours approach.

After the 1970's:

Leader-Member Exchange Theory (LMX)

This theory establishes that the leader does not treat his workers equally. In principle, if the personnel are divided into two groups (as the inner and the outer), the first group is the inner group which is close to the leader. The members of this group

spend more time with the leader. The leader cannot spare time for those outside this group because he spends most of his/her time with individuals in the inner group, and gives more concessions to the people in the inner group. Job satisfaction and performance levels in the workers from this group are at higher levels. The people in the inner group are rewarded more often. It was also found that they change jobs less frequently. The complements of all the attributes mentioned for the inner group are valid for the outer group. Lack of job satisfaction, more frequent job changes, and lower job performance were problems encountered in the outer group (Dansereau, Grean & Haga, 1975; Vroom & Yetton, 1973; Robbins, 1998; Northouse, 2004).

In sum, the LMX theory promotes the exchange between the leader and the follower. This theory is not criticized as much as others and does not have the reliability problems evident in others (Yukl & Van Fleet, 1992, Burns & Otte, 1999).

House's Path-Goal Theory

The Path-Goal Theory developed by Martin Evans and Robert House in the 1970's focused on leader behaviours and the atmosphere in which the leader is central rather than on the personal traits of the leader. This theory tried to determine the adaptation of the leader to the conditions in which the organisation is founded (House, 1971).

According to the Path-Goal Theory, there are four types of leader behaviours. These are: 1-Directive, 2-Supportive, 3-Participating, 4-Achievement Oriented

a-) Directive Leader:

The leader explains to his personnel what he expects from them, tells them how to be successful in the tasks they will carry out, programmes the tasks and informs them of the point to be reached so as to be considered successful.

b-) Supportive Leader:

The leader interacts with the personnel in a friendly manner and creates a sincere atmosphere with them. The leader pays attention to the tasks they carry out and motivates the personnel in terms of morale.

c-) Participating Leader:

Before making a decision about the organisation, this type of the leader asks the opinions of the personnel and pays attention to their opinions.

d-) Achievement Oriented Leader:

This is the leader who attaches importance to the success of the organisation, expecting high performance from the personnel, and to this end provides the necessary support for them.

Path-Goal theory also researched the effects of leader behaviours on job satisfaction of the personnel and it was found that two factors are necessary for job satisfaction. The first is personal traits and the second is environmental factors.

The personal traits of the personnel were searched in two stages. The first is locus of control; the second is perceived ability. The phrase “personnel with locus of control” defines the person who has a positive self-image and a high degree of self-respect without taking into consideration the opinions of others; there is a firmly held belief that all efforts will be successful. It was found that this type of person preferred to work with participating leaders. People having a weak locus of control, on the other hand, preferred to work with directing leaders. Perceived ability is the ability of the personnel to carry out the task that should be performed. For persons having a high level of ability, a directing leader is less frequently preferred.

Environmental features relate especially to the structure of the task, as do official authorities and other workers. According to Path-Goal theory, if an

uncertainty arises in these features, the leader guides the personnel (House, 1971, Robbins, 1998).

Theory R

Alderson (1985) introduced the area of leadership philosophy to new assumptions and named his assumptions as Theory R. The assumptions that fall under this theory are listed as follows:

1- Human beings need appreciation, amity and respect in not only their private life but also in their working environment.

2- The self-confidence of an individual and the boosting of her/his morale will improve her/his working output and efficiency.

3- Eliminating unwanted cases that might come up in the working environment and avoiding a repeat of same, as well as mutual tolerance and respect among colleagues will foster the development of relationships.

4- Positive relationships between employer and employees are key elements that affect efficiency, morale factors and quality.

5- Persons are interested in areas that they enjoy and show success in, which thus allows them to be proud of what they do.

6- People can become more successful if they cooperate with colleagues in an environment in which they are paid respect.

7- Individuals must be assigned tasks according to their characteristics, and relative outcomes must be expected from them (Alderson & McDonnel, 1994).

Conclusion for Leadership Theories

Since there have been many studies conducted about leadership before the 1970's and most of these are reported to have problems, these studies had created a baseline for further leadership studies as researchers continued to seek for more comprehensive theories (Jukl, 1989). After the 1970's, the theories suggested gained the benefit of the previous studies. House (1971) suggested that the path-goal theory of leadership goes a step further and is a combination of the traits and behaviours approach. In 1976, House suggested the charismatic leadership theory. In 1978, McGregor Burns suggested the transformational and transactional leadership theory. In 1985 Bernard Bass suggested his transformational and transactional leadership theory by combining and improving the studies of Burns (1978) and House (1976). Therefore, the transformational and transactional leadership theory of Bass (1985) is the latest and one of the most reliable leadership studies of today (See transformational leadership for details).

3. Transformational Leadership

Introduction

Though it can be suggested that all the above mentioned factors are said to be sufficient for effective leadership, these, as stated before, are not sufficient for the organisations keeping up with competitive facts and their own survival. Today, many organisations are managed on the basis of the exchange principle. In this case; employees work in return for compensations such as security, fee and status; and they feel obliged to work and adjust themselves to their conditions as a consequence. However, the goal that employees enjoy what they are doing, thus displaying a performance over the expectations, must be the main goal besides the satisfaction they get from their job. Within this context, a leader must display relevant behaviours and ensure a suitable working environment so that the employees can perform over the expectations. Therefore, the leadership model mentioned in this research is a transformational leadership model.

Prior to the 1980's, research on leadership studies, theories and advances had been focused on the reciprocal exchange between the leader and his followers. From the mid-1980's, Bernard Bass broached the transformational leadership theory. Bass's transformational leadership theory has divided leadership into two categories namely, transformational and transactional leadership. This new paradigm in leadership has aroused much interest in a short time. From the 1980s' to the early 2000s', one-third of the studies about leadership are conducted on transformational leadership. (Bass, 1999, Lowe & Gardner, 2001).

Transformational leadership is a phase that changes and transforms individuals and is interested in feelings and merits. Its characteristic practices strengthen the ethical ties of the leader and the personnel, increases the desire to work, motivates and

satisfies the needs of the followers, reinforces human relations and promotes having long-term goals. Transformational leadership guides people in a peaceful atmosphere and treats them humanly with their free will intact, in an atmosphere where they have equal rights; fear and pressure are not matters of discussion in transformational leadership (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, Northouse, 2004).

During the 1980's, it wasn't accepted that transformational leadership can be learned. However, from the beginning of the 1990's, whatever the rank of the manager in the hierarchical structure, it has been supported through empirical studies that transformational leadership can be learned by managers at all levels. The only point that should be taken into consideration is that it is better to teach it in the early stages of the career for one to benefit from the education and for the creation of an effective leader (Bass, 1998). On the other hand, in an empirical study, findings support that the leadership seminars given to the employees working in an organisation had a positive effect on the participants (Saleh et al., 2004). Another empirical study recommends that improving the leadership style is not only important for the students but also for the teachers. It is supported with the findings that the improved leadership behaviour of the teachers helped them to increase their success at work and improved the quality of service that they were providing to the students (Flores, 2004)

Transformational leadership can be successfully applied wherever wanted, in both organisations and societies. In particular, transformational leadership application is more effective in comparison with transactional leadership within business enterprises, industrial enterprises, hospitals, educational institutions and organisations in a para-military hierarchical structure, such as a police force or army (Bass, 1998, Kleinman, 2004). Yammarino (cited in Bass & Avolio, 1994) suggests that

transformational leadership can be actively applied and be effective not only in top-down hierarchical organisations in which the leader directs the followers but transformational leadership can be useful also from bottom to top. No matter what the level of the supervisor in the organisation, he/she can use the four components of transformational leadership to influence others from his/her current level.

In contrast to the literature supporting the benefits of Transformational Leadership, there are also opposite views about transformational leadership. Yukl has claimed that Transformational and Transactional leadership theories are beneficial for constituting an active leader but its contribution to the academic literature is too much exaggerated (Yukl,1999).

Need for Transformational Leadership

With constantly changing conditions in work life, radical changes in the understanding of management have started to be observed. In order to adapt to the current conditions and to be prepared for the future, it is necessary to evaluate developments, to help project the future and to make necessary changes in organisational strategy. It is mandatory that organisations be changed and renovated as only changed and renovated organisations can continue to exist. If organisations resist change or cannot change, they are exposed to the threat of the powers that constitute the change (Yukl et al., 2003; Gelder, 2005, Hersey & Blanchard, 1972)

“Change means growth”. In the event that the change results in a negative way, the reason for that might be “lack of technical knowledge” or lack of motivation. According to Machiavelli “There is nothing more difficult to take in hand, more perilous to conduct or more uncertain in its success than to take the lead in the introduction of a new order of things” (Maxwell, 1993, p. 66 - 69). In a positive

meaning, change is an advance shown in any matter, or it is replacing existing information with new data, and, in other words, increasing and advancing it (Barutcugil, 1981).

Development and change are the two most significant features which will sustain both the leader and the organisation (Gelder, 2005). Change of leadership means changing the company and the organisation. On the other hand, changing leaders is not an easy task. “Leaders resist against change as much as their followers do.” Not changing the leaders causes the company or the organisation not to make progress (Maxwell, 1993, p. 65). The leaders who can best implement the individual and organisational change are the transformational leaders (Klein & Diket, 1999).

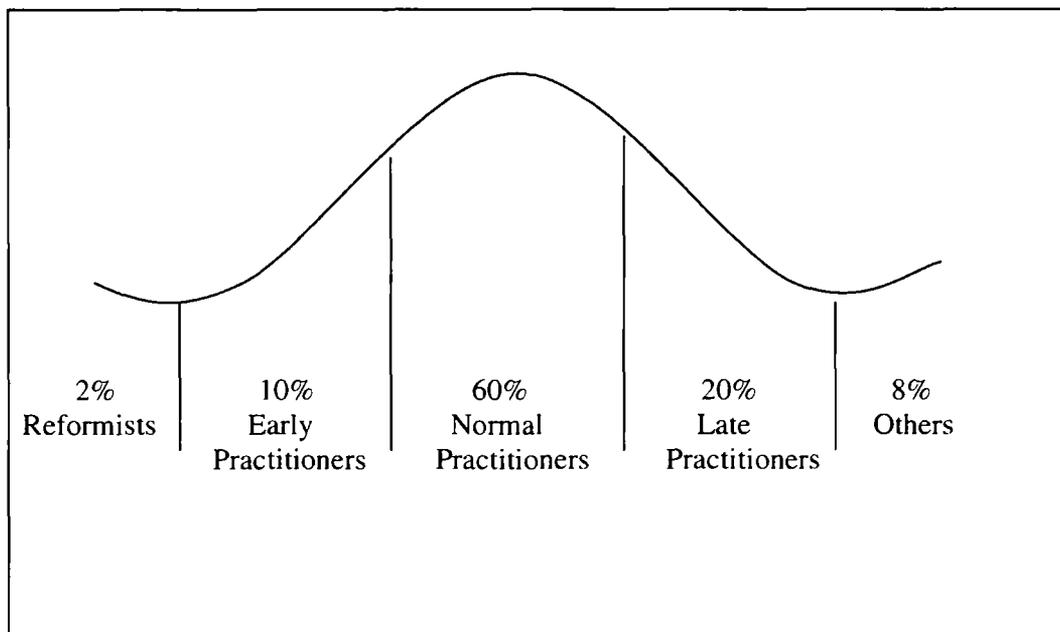
Nowadays, many innovations (necessary or unnecessary) are introduced in the market. When the leader distinguishes the necessary from the unnecessary, and implements the necessary one to his/her organisation, then he/she takes the role of “the official in charge of change”. The leader must therefore pioneer the change and growth in his/her organisation (Maxwell, 1993, p. 69). On the other hand, introducing innovation to the organisation has some pros and cons. A leader’s lack of information about innovation and/or their not giving adequate attention to detail along the way of transformation will cause problems. If the leader uses his/her knowledge and experience to learn and adapt the innovation to the organisation and if he/she eliminates the problems standing in front of the transformation, this will be to the organisation’s benefit (Yukl et al., 2003, Bossink, 2004, Norrie & Walker, 2004).

Organisational improvement and innovation is only possible by leaders taking the decisions fearlessly. A “fear” environment prevents innovations and developments. A fearless leadership environment promotes the expression of feelings

and thoughts without hesitation. This environment will also cause opinion diversity. However, a leader can listen as much as he/she talks (Kibort, 2004).

Transformational leaders are the extraordinary ones who can change the organisation in the process of progress (Avolio & Bass, 1987). The process of change is divided into two: “innovative” and “developing”. In the innovative change process, a brand new system or product is put forth. In the developing change, something that was done in the past is launched in the market after it is developed. When the change occurs in the institutions or organisations, people are divided into five groups (Maxwell, 1993).

Figure 2, Response levels to innovations,



(Maxwell, 1993, p.84)

As seen in figure 2, “Reformists” are the ones who create new ideas. Reformist people typically make up 2 out of every 100 employees. These people are viewed as dreamers or idealists by the others. The “Early Practitioners” are those who perceive the value of a good idea at the moment they see it. They make an effort to get others to accept these ideas even if those ideas are not theirs, believing that it

will be for the benefit of the others. The “Normal Practitioners” are influenced by positive or negative ideas. They generally intend to maintain the status quo. The “Late Practitioners” are against change and most of them speak negatively about it.

However, they may agree to change when the majority pressures them into accepting it. The last group, “the Others” are the people who only work for themselves and try to create separatism in the association (Maxwell, 1993).

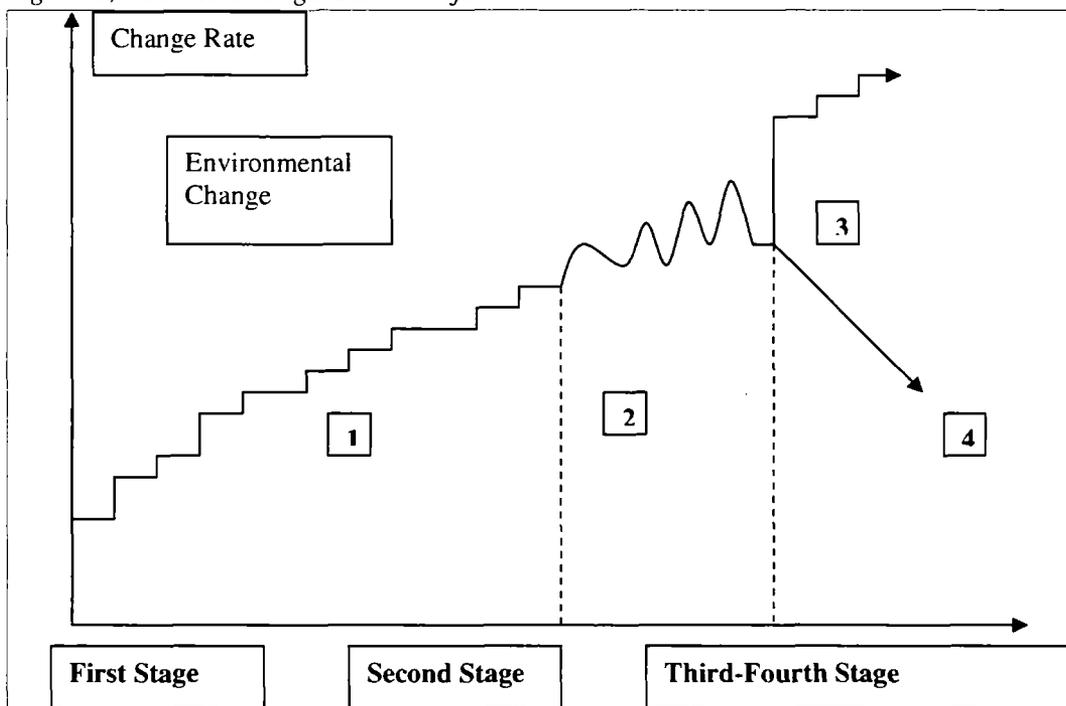
In transformational leadership, changing the organization according to the latest development and improvements is one of the prior aims. A transformational leader pays attention to the latest changes then defines organizational aims by adding his/her own vision to these innovations (Bass, 1997). In organisational change, the key of success is a requirement for becoming a united whole with environmental factors, which require the changing of the organisation. Environmental change must be observed well and the needs that this change brings out must be attained (Gelder, 2005, Brandi, 2005). In addition, there are two key points to be taken into consideration in terms of change. The first is to know the technical necessities of change; the second is “to understand the behavioural and motivational requirements related to it”. The leader should better understand the psychological and social factors which affect his personnel and will initiate their solution in behavioural and motivational terms. “If the psychological needs of them are not met, no change can be achieved” (Maxwell, 1993, p.69-70).

On the other hand, the need for transformation is increasing together with the speed of accessing information. This increase has also heightened enterprise demands for employees characterised as reformists. An enterprise’s aim about working with reformist people is not only to increase the quality of a job, but to decrease production periods and cost while increasing the customer’s pleasure by using new techniques.

By applying changes early, enterprises benefit from the advantages mentioned and they can beat their rivals (Lines & Matin, 1994).

Organisations being open to innovations, having the organisational culture open to change, providing attendance of the opposites, and constituting organisational vision in innovative and change oriented perspectives are the support points that speed up and ease organisational transformation (Fottler et al, 1988, Gelder, 2005). In contrast, being close to innovations and change is a result of the dinosaur syndrome (Fisher, 2000). The path diagram of Routine Change and transformation is described in figure 3 (Johnson & Scholes, 1993).

Figure 3, Routine Change and Transformation



(Johnson & Scholes, 1993, p.65)

As shown in figure 3, at the first stage, organisations change in accordance with environmental change. At the second stage, organisations have adaptation problems because of internal and external reasons. At the third stage, transformation

is required more than change. Organisations realize that transformation will continue to advance. Lastly, at the fourth stage, there is an organisation which couldn't realize transformation so it has started to worsen (Johnson & Scholes, 1993). In short, many organisations try to change; however, change is necessary but not sufficient by itself. After a certain stage, a transformation need arises. Organisations which couldn't realize the necessity for transformation are eliminated with natural selection (Simhon, 2004).

In enterprises, the deteriorating of stability, the suffering due to this instability and experiencing a "hitch", and the stopping of activities all define an environment in crisis. Factors constituting crisis are investigated under two groups. These are inner factors and outer factors.

1) Inner Factors:

a- Reasons resulting from employees. Crises caused by factors such as strikes, lockouts, project suspension, etc.

b- Reasons resulting from enterprise management. Such as, not treating employees equally, not implementing the policy of wages proportionate to the job, making employees work under heavy working conditions, not attaching importance to job satisfaction, lack of leadership behaviour in the managers, etc.

c- Reasons resulting from structure of enterprise. Examples are the vertical hierarchy in which the enterprise exists, slow manager performance or refraining from completing a project, coordination defect between units, discord between unit employees, etc.

d- Problems arising due to deficiency or excess of the technology used in enterprise. For example, an apparatus cannot be used productively due to deficiency of an employee or vice versa.

2) Outer Factors:

a- Effects of the economy. A crisis environment caused by worsening of the country's or the world economy.

b- Effects of technology: Crisis environment resulting from not being able to adapt to technology that is changing and developing constantly.

c- Effects of social environment: Crisis environment resulting from being unable to adapt to or address the social environment.

d- Effects of the politics: Crisis environment resulting from political change or fluctuation.

The crisis environment causes stress on employees. In struggling with stress, both a transformational and transactional leader has an important role. A transactional leader's system, which is based on rewarding and punishing, is not very useful but it is better than having no leader. However, a transformational leader gives followers inspiration and hope, revises jobs that were done in a crisis environment, determines common targets and makes decisions (Bass, 1998).

Crisis arises as related to either inner or outer factors. Thanks to a leader's foresight and vision, crisis is eliminated with minimum damage. A transformational leader is a person who prepares B and C plans before a crisis arises, and applies them after such crisis arises. This saying summarizes how the leader behaves in a crisis environment: "Pessimist complains about storm, optimist hopes it stops, leader sets sail" (Maxwell,1993, p.1).

Development of Transformational Leadership Theory

Bernard Bass's Transformational Leadership theory (1985) is the expanded and improved form of the studies of *The Charismatic Leadership* theory by Robert House (1976) and the Transformational Leadership Theory of McGregor Burns (1978) (Northouse, 2004). Therefore, this section will explore the topic at hand through the Charismatic Leadership Theory.

Before the 19th century, charisma was considered a special gift and privilege given to some people by God. It was believed that people who have charisma could do extraordinary jobs. These people were seen as super human. In fact, it is known that their followers keep these people alive (House, 1976, Bryman, 1992, Northouse, 2004). In the past, many charismatic leaders existed and led the societies they lived in. Some charismatic leaders have played the saviour role; however, some have caused societies to sustain defeat. Charisma is, in essence, not a characteristic of only world-wide famous leaders or some generals. In many organisations, there are leaders who show charismatic leadership behaviour (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994, Takala, 2005).

According to charismatic leadership theory, charisma is among the personal traits of the leader. The leader who has charisma has more power to influence his personnel when compared to other leaders. Charisma is one of the elements that distinguishes a real leader from an ordinary manager. While relationships with an ordinary manager are soft and stable, relationships with a charismatic leader are descending and ascending. Organisations which have charismatic leaders attach importance to these leaders. In these kind of organisations, there is an organisational hierarchy. Followers are devoted to their leaders and they identify with their leaders. They believe that their leader has extraordinary power and they keep following such

leader until they cannot feel this power (Yukl, 1989, Mainiero & Tromley, 1994, Robbins, 1998, Takala, 2005).

Charismatic leaders' behaviours affect followers. According to House (1976), charismatic leaders are dominant leaders and they are the ones who are willing to influence the followers, have self-confidence and attach importance to the followers' morale attitude. Charismatic leaders also show some behaviour styles excepting their personal characteristics (House, 1976, Hunt & Larson 1977, Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004):

1) Charismatic leaders promote beliefs and merits. They are model people who followers can take as an example. Therefore, followers share similar beliefs with their leaders and things in which the leader believes are true and reliable.

2) Charismatic leaders are qualified as competent and influential by followers. Therefore, followers accept and obey their leaders without doubt and hesitation.

3) Charismatic leaders point to ideological targets, which is important for society. Therefore, followers are emotionally committed to the principles of the leader and the tasks they perform.

4) Charismatic leaders want followers to accomplish difficult tasks and to believe they will succeed. The aim of this behaviour is to motivate followers into action and increase their productivity; therefore, the aim is to increase performance.

5) Charismatic leaders use task-based slogans. Followers believe that they play a role in the success of the group. The objective of followers is to become successful within the organisation and get promoted. For example, John F. Kennedy, in one of his speech says: "Ask not what your country can do, ask what you can do for your country" (House, 1976, Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004, p.78).

The following studies on charismatic leadership have insisted on this leadership form's transformative effect on people.

The Features of Bass's Transformational Leadership Theory

Bernard Bass' (1985) study is an expanded and improved form of Burn's (1978) and House's (1976) studies. According to Bass's approach, it is essential that a leader pay attention to followers more. According to Burn's approach, a leader should satisfy an employee's needs in proportion to his own needs. Bass's approach (1985) to charismatic leadership is that charisma is necessary but not sufficient by itself. His approach differs from House's (1976) at this point. Transformational leadership is inspired by the studies mentioned above and it insists on two points: motivation and vision. A transformational leader motivates his followers by using these factors so that they can do more than expected (Bass, 1985, Kerber & Buono, 2004):

a) Individuals are made conscious by being told the importance of organisational aims.

b) Individuals are told the necessity of exceeding their own capacities and doing their best for the organisation's sake.

c) A leader enlarges his targets by developing the followers' vision.

James McGregor Burns has investigated leadership theory under two groups. The first is transactional leadership and the second is transformational leadership. Transactional leadership states that there is a relationship based on dealings between transactional leadership and followers. For instance, a politician who wants to be elected promises to construct a high school in a particular area.

In transactional leadership, there is something in a leader that followers want. If followers carry out a leader's requests, the leader gives them what they want; in

other words, there is mutualism. Colerasi (2004) supports this idea of Burns and states that a leader should not offer more than is necessary to the followers.

On the contrary, in transformational leadership, individual coordinates with the other people, attempts to increase motivation and morale. Transformational leadership attaches importance to followers' needs, determines what motivates them to do their best (Bass, 1998, Northhouse, 2004).

According to Burns (1978) a transformational leader creates high morale and motivation in followers, as well as increases their performance. Today, renovating of organisations and their adaptation to the changing times can be realized only by transformational leaders because these are experts in change. A transformational leader applies his intended vision, which he constituted for the organisation, by getting employees to accept it.

The transformational leadership theory of Bass (1985) differs from that of and Burns (1978) on some points. According to Bass (1985), who was inspired by House's (1976) charismatic leadership theory, charisma is one of the most important components of transformational leadership. A transformational leader influences followers through charisma. Burns (1978) does not refer to charisma at all. According to Bass (1985), a transformational leader is one who should teach the followers to perform tasks much like a teacher or a coach when necessary. While Bass states that leader undertakes various roles (teacher, coach) according to the situation, Burns does not mention this aspect of leadership.

According to Bass (1985), while a transformational leader increases employees' motivations, he tries to alienate the problems which obstruct employees' motivation. According to Bass's individualised consideration principle, each employee must be considered individually and the elements which will motivate them

best must be determined and applied. Burns does not explore this point. Both Burns (1978) and Bass (1985) consider ethical rules as an irremovable part of transformational leadership. It is required that a leader's behaviours be ethical, and he should also urge followers to apply these ethical rules.

Other Transformational Leadership Studies

Some of the research on transformational leadership emerged as a consequence of combining new theories with previous ones regarding leadership. Other research on this topic arose as a consequence of suggesting new theories by scrutinizing behavioural characteristics of leaders, as well as the effects of these characteristics on followers and the overall business in terms of transformational leadership (Bass, 1985; Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger and Kanungo, 1988; Conger and Kanungo, 1994; Podsakoff et al, 1996, Tichy and Devanna, 1990). It is estimated that employees working for leaders who apply a leadership style proposed by transformational leadership would perform over the expectations.

Conger and Kanungo (1987; 1994) and Podsakoff et al (1996), in their research, reported other characteristics that a transformational leader must have in addition to the transformational leadership components of Bass and Avolio (1985). Similarities and differences between the researches are as follows:

Table 4, Other Transformational Leadership Studies

Bass and Avolio (1985)	Conger and Kanungo (1988)	Podsakoff et al (1996)
Charisma / Idealised Influence	Taking Personal Risk, Showing unconventional Behaviour, implanting a vision	Being an appropriate model for the followers, Articulating a vision
Inspirational Motivation		Motivating the followers to accept the group goals
Intellectual Stimulation	Refusing the status-quo	Intellectual Stimulation
Individualised Consideration	Being Sensitive to Member Needs	Individualised Support
	Environmental Sensitivity	
		Expecting high performance from the followers

Though not the exact equivalent of the component that Bass and Avolio named as Charisma/ Idealised Influence, Conger and Kanungo's indicating Taking Personal Risk and Showing Unconventional Behaviour and pointing out that a leader should implant a vision are complementary features of a charismatic leader. A charismatic leader's taking personal risk and showing unconventional behaviour is also mentioned in charismatic leadership theory and these characteristics that a leader has boost the charisma of the leader. Similarly, the components of being an appropriate model for the followers and articulating a vision that Podsadoff et al. mentioned are included in the charismatic leadership component of House and the idealised influence component of Bass and Avolio.

On one hand, the "inspirational motivation" that Bass and Avolio suggested and "motivating the followers to accept the group goals" suggested by Podsadoff et al. are similar to a certain extent, but on the other hand, the former gives a more comprehensive meaning and indicates a broader goal.

While the intellectual stimulation component proposed by Bass and Avolio covers regenerating oneself, changing the status-quo and displaying innovative

approaches, Conger and Kanungo suggested only the component of refusing the status-quo. This is similar to the intellectual stimulation component proposed by Bass and Avolio, although not exactly equivalent. The component of intellectual stimulation proposed by Podsakoff et al. is more similar to the one proposed by Bass and Avolio.

All researchers have a consensus on the component of individualised consideration. Differently from others, the component of environmental sensitivity is suggested by Conger and Kanungo. The one suggested by Bass and Avolio resulted in their transformational leadership theory being more comprehensive and updated with complementary items such as consistency of a transformational leader's behaviours with ethical practices and a transformational leader's attaching importance to ethical issues in years following 1985, after the theory was suggested (Bass, 1998, Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003).

The component of expecting high performance from the followers by Podsakoff et al. overlaps with Bass and Avolio's suggestion that transformational leadership draws employee performance beyond expected levels.

Since transformational leaders are aware of the fact that promoting only their own goals will not be enough for them to reach their objectives and they are not as egoist as transactional leaders, they attach importance to meeting the needs of the employees, and seeing to the development and improvement of employees during the course of the organisation's progress and development (Gardner and Avolio, 1998). Holding a different point of view for the topic, Bennis and Nanus (1985) indicated that the vision must be shaped in a way that both the organisation and its employees can benefit, in such a way that the organisation can be successful. As leaders walk in the shoes of both the employees and the organisation, they have an innovative and

creative approach and question the current system, as well as identify objectives for both the organisation and the employees. Thus, the employees' loyalty to their job and their leader will be increased and this will help them perform beyond the expectations.

Components of Transformational Leadership and Transactional Leadership

Bass examines leadership under three different qualitative forms: laissez-faire, transactional and transformational. Bass and Avolio's (1994) transformational leadership has four components. These are: Idealised Influence (Charismatic Leadership), Inspirational Motivation, Individualised Consideration, and Intellectual Stimulation. Meanwhile, Transactional Leaderships' three components are Contingent Reward, Management by Exception, Active and Passive. Laissez Faire Leadership is examined by itself (Bass,1985; Bass & Avolio, 1999).

A- Transformational Leadership

1- Idealised Influence (Charismatic Leadership)

The first component of transformational leadership is called charisma or idealised influence. Leaders who have charismatic effect are accepted as model by followers. Followers respect, admire and trust leaders with charisma, as the latter evoke admiration and respect in their environment and their applications are accepted as trustworthy. Followers identify themselves with their leader and want to emulate him/her. In addition, the leader takes responsibility and shares the risks that can occur. They are reformists (Bass,1998); leaders who have this effect have high moral and ethical values, as well as self-confidence. They give followers vision and mission consciousness (Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004). The most important thing that makes a

charismatic leader earn credit from the followers is his/her considering the followers' needs over his/her own needs (Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003).

A transformational leader is a person who encourages employees, promotes loyalty to the organisation, gains esteem from the followers and teaches important tasks. Followers are devoted to charismatic leaders emanating real confidence. They feel proud of being his/her follower and believe that they will overcome all difficulties because of their leader. Charismatic leaders have become the symbol of success for their followers. On the other hand, charismatic leader behaviour has an important role in employees' performance and job satisfaction (Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004). In an empirical study conducted by Waldman, Ramirez & House (2001) a positive relationship was found between charismatic leadership behaviour and job performance under the circumstances of uncertainty.

2- Inspirational Motivation

Transformational leaders inspire the followers and support the creation of new ideas (Bass, 1997). Thus, the work and motivation of a follower gain meaning (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991). Transformational leaders represent organisations that have team-spirit and an optimistic point of view to actions. Additionally, they tell personnel their targets and joint visions (Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004).

3- Intellectual Stimulation

Educating people in a new thinking style and offering different points of view to actions are the results of intellectual stimulation (Avolio, Waldman & Yammarino, 1991). Transformational leaders approach actions and problems with a reformist and creative point of view and encourage followers to be creative. Followers are not

criticized even if their ideas contradict those of the leader in the problem analysis and solution.

The fact that the leader gives different points of views to followers and finds various solutions to the problems makes the followers happier and more successful. While searching for a solution to a problem, thinking with pure logic without emotions will help produce new ideas. On the other hand, in complex structured organisations it would ease matters if the personnel have problem solving skills (Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004).

4- Individualised Consideration

Transformational leaders work too much in order to be successful. A transformational leader communicates with each of the personnel and this helps them in their development and progress (Bass, 1997). People have different needs from each other – such as, the need to be appreciated more or the need for education or training. A transformational leader defines each of these needs and tries to prepare for a comfortable environment. The task is presented to the employee as an opportunity for self-development. Therefore, the important thing is not whether the task is done or not, but it is the needs of the employees while they are developing themselves (Bass, 1998).

The transformational leader communicates with the employee on a one-on-one basis and this allows for the employee to provide a higher work quality. It also allows employees to aspire to more important responsibilities in future (Tincy & Devana, 1990). According to management science, the manager benefits from the employees who have different responsibilities. In transformational leadership, the leader who gives importance to the individuals makes a difference. Individuality and interest in the needs of individual employees are the important factors which foster

the establishment and development of the organisational culture, i.e., raising leaders among the employees (Mainiero & Tromley 1994).

Individualised consideration gains more importance in the organisations which have paramilitary hierarchical structure. It is important for a leader to know the names of the personnel. It is necessary to behave differently with each individual employee. Leaders should know every employee, as well as be able to discover the best way to motivate each one and to apply this motivation in a way that demonstrates that he holds the interests of such employee at heart. This way a leader can have the employees raise their work performance beyond the expectations (Bass, 1998, Brandi, 2005). An empirical study conducted by Lim & Ployhart (2004) supports that transformational leadership application is necessary to take performance beyond expectations.

In other research, findings support that leadership behaviour helps to increase the individual performance (Day et al., 2004). According to individualised consideration, principle seniors should talk face to face with the lower degree employees, and if this is not possible they should at least maintain telephone contact. In a research conducted in the Intel Company, it is discovered that young engineers keep track of the latest technologies; however, the senior and experienced engineers had no such knowledge. Thus, the company decided to construct an information bridge from lower levels to upper levels to facilitate access to the latest developments (Bass, 1998).

In a study conducted by Bernard Bass and his colleagues, it is noticed in a company that the project managers had prepared their report by using the information collected from individuals and informal channels. When it is noticed that the employees spent most of their time speaking and evaluating the events, a leader who

applies the individualised consideration technique would be able to define the problems and their sources. The fact of leaders informing employees about tasks is a result of individualised consideration. Employees would know what they are supposed to do and would not be surprised if things changed. Sharing ideas with the employees will help in the brainstorming process so that tasks are performed more efficiently (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994, Bass, 1998). On the other hand, Manfred (2005) states that individualised consideration is important and beneficial, but it is better to pay attention to groups in order to reach more people.

B- Transactional Leadership

If the relations between leader and followers are dependant on the reciprocal benefits of leader and followers, this type of leadership is called the transactional leadership. There are three different forms of transactional leadership. These are:

1- Contingent Reward (CR)

The first one is contingent reward. The leader defines the necessary tasks to be performed and informs the employees about the reward available if they complete that task. A contingent reward clarifies the goals and objectives that should be achieved. The effectiveness of this technique is proven. However, it cannot be compared with the components of transformational leadership (Bass, 1998; Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003).

2- Management by Exception Active (MbE Active)

The second one is active management by exception. The leader actively foresees and observes deviations and corrects them. Active management by exception takes place in the centre of a full-range model. Due to its neutral nature, a leader neither acts inactively and ineffectively nor actively and effectively.

3- Management by Exception Passive (MbE Passive)

The third one is passive management by exception. The leader waits till deviations occur, then takes action. Among the full-range leadership scale, laissez-faire and passive management by exception are the inactive and ineffective ones.

C- Laissez Faire Leadership (LF)

In this management type there is no leadership behaviour shown. It is a management type in which leadership behaviour is not applied, no decision takes place, and no action appears. In this type of management even authority is not used. Many researchers have evaluated this management system in which the leadership is not used as the most passive and unsuccessful one (Bass, 1998).

Both active and passive management by exception are the reactive type leadership styles of transactional leadership. On the other hand, the third type of transactional leadership, which is the contingent reward, is more proactive than the other two. The leader offers to reward the personnel in case the contingent standards are met. Among the transactional leadership styles, contingent reward is the most active and effective. However, among the full-range of leadership scales, transformational leadership is the most active and effective.

Characteristics of a Transformational Leader

Transformational leadership has different applications in which it can be directive, participative, democratic or authoritarian when necessary. This behaviour variation is used to apply the most effective leadership behaviour in changing conditions (Bass, 1998). Transformational leaders direct their followers by convincing them to provide their commitment to the vision and organisation. Therefore, the

commitment of a convinced individual becomes a process (Bass, 1998, Downton, 1973)

Transformational leaders behave as a leader; they are the ones who are supported and emulated by all their followers. These leaders inform the followers, improve the quality of working conditions, and assist with the self-development and enhancement of self-confidence of followers (Mainirero & Tromley, 1994).

The traits of an effective leader are defined in the previous section. Even though a transactional leader has some of these traits, nowadays, both organisations and people are in a continuous transformation process. Traditional transactional leaders cannot adopt these changing conditions. Educated and brave employees cause other employees to refuse the old management styles and become reformists (Bass, 1999, Grint, 1999). For example, while Americans taught their children to be respectful toward authority, church and government in the 1940's, now they teach their children to be responsible for their own behaviour, challenge existing conditions and judge authority when necessary (Bass, 1999). In other words, people have started to question and disobey authority if the proposed rules or conditions are illogical. Therefore, the need for a transformational leader gains importance again since the transactional leader cannot adapt to the latest conditions.

What the leader should do so as to implement the above-mentioned issues and achieve transformations is as follows (Bass, 1998, Northouse, 2004):

1- Increasing the level of awareness of the followers:

The element of increasing the level of awareness of the people is related to the fact that they know themselves. To this end, close dialog should be established with the people.

2- Broadening the visions of the followers:

The attention of the people should be drawn to long-term outputs rather than short term interests, their horizons should be broadened, their hopes for living and working must be strengthened, and to this end they should be encouraged to work as a team by establishing groups.

3- Giving initiatives to followers:

Delegation can be helpful when it comes to performing tasks faster. It also helps reduce the workload of the manager. Delegation helps employees become involved in the decision phase; it empowers the employees, decentralizes management and creates self-managed groups. To let the subordinates carry out some of the tasks by themselves helps them in the learning process and improves their self-confidence. This will help them to feel a sense of ownership for the organisation. In addition, increasing the responsibility of the employee helps their overall self-development. General Bradley has stated that the best way of training leaders is to give responsibilities to persons and to wait until they complete it (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994). However, delegation should not be given to inexperienced personnel so as not to cause problems (Yukl & Fu, 1999).

4- Preparing the followers for the requirements of organisational transformation:

In this case, the leader is not in favour of maintaining the current situation; in other words, he is not in favour of the status quo. He/she wants the organisation to develop all the time. Change is inevitable in the process of development. Change and development are related to the ability of teaching as well as the personal flexibility of the leader. The leader should have the necessary background to overcome the

concerns that may arise both for him/her and among the personnel in the environment of change.

5- Opening the organisational culture to transformation:

While transformation is being achieved, an organisational culture that continuously renews itself and is open to learning should be established. The inner integrity of the leader is the consistency between what he says and what he does. The leader must set an example for his/her subordinates with his/her behaviours. He/she should first change himself/herself, and then transform the others and the organisation. The leaders who have no consistency between what he/she says and what he/she does cannot be successful (Bass, 1998, Covey, 1993). Effective management and advancement requires self-confident, energetic, initiative, emotionally mature, and stress tolerant leaders. (Bass, 1981; Yukl, 1989).

Transformational Leadership vs. Transactional Leadership

According to Bass (1985), managers are transactional and leaders are transformational. Transformational leaders show a higher performance and working efficiency than the traditional leaders and managers. In transformational leadership, the struggle in regards to the roles of leadership is much diminished and can even be ignored (Bass, 1997).

Transactional leadership that conflicts with transformational leadership was proposed by Burns (1978). Transactional leadership suggests a type of leadership that is dependent on the past and the traditions. According to Burns, organisational change can be achieved at any level by anyone. While a transactional leader proposes rewarding the personnel more to encourage them to work, such as giving more money

and status, a transformational leader aims at gaining the requirements for delivering the task to the personnel via vision.

As transformational leadership theory borrows ideas from prior research, it emphasizes different points on two issues. These are motivation and vision issues (Bass, 1985). A traditional leader describes the tasks that should be completed. However, transformational leaders also explain the significance of the aims which give vision to the followers. Therefore, employees should be aware of the reason for reaching objectives. “We should reach this target, but why?” “What follows then?” If they ask questions like these, their work becomes more meaningful. It means that they like their work and want to progress further with their achievements. In this case, the objectives are not individual and do not belong to one person; they belong to the group. This fact causes the person to interpret himself as a part of the group. The word “I” is not used now and the word “we” replaces it (Bass, 1998).

A transactional leader’s goals are work centred. In order to have the followers reach objectives, he defines the work, motivates them to progress, and supports their other needs. He teaches the employees who do not know the work and helps develop their skills. The vision and the target of the transformational leader are bigger. He causes the employees to concentrate on bigger targets. Therefore, the employees complete the tasks that should be completed and these tasks become routine, and interpreted as easy tasks. In this context, employees show a higher performance rate than normal and task output becomes a more prolific process than expected (Bartol & Martin, 1994).

In transactional leadership, the completion of the work and continuity on the job are essential. Therefore, changing the organisation does not have a priority for them. While there is a relationship based on benefit between the leader and the

employees in transactional leadership for the tasks to be completed, there is also a relationship based on respect between the transformational leaders and their employees (Bjerke, 1999, Colerasi, 2004).

There is no best way of doing management. The management type changes according to the conditions. Transformational leadership and transactional leadership are complements but do not substitute each other (Bass, 1999, Joyce, 2004). Thus, effective leadership requires applying both the transformational and the transactional leadership models together. While a transformational leader motivates the employees to work beyond expectations, a transactional leader maintains stability in performance (Cooke & Rousseau, 1988). In addition, according to the meta-analysis conducted by Judge and Piccolo (2004), strong evidence was found supporting the relative validity of both leadership styles.

In one empirical study, an examination of the CEOs (Chief Executive Officers) working in various organisations caused companies to lose money because of their ineffective leadership styles. This research investigates leadership behaviour and recommends the use of both transformational and transactional leadership styles together (Conger, 2004). Another study supports that using both transformational and transactional leadership styles together empowers the leadership behaviour (Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang & Chen, 2005).

On the other hand, it is recommended for the organisations in which there is a hierarchic pattern and employees from various cultures participating in the use of both types of leadership will aid in the achievement of an effective leadership performance (Cascio, 1995). In contrast, there are also opposing views such as Keeley's (1995), who defends that there exist many different ethnic, cultural and religious groups

among people in general and transformational leadership is not applicable in these circumstances.

Transformational Leadership and Commitment

The preceding studies on leadership styles do not discuss the term “commitment” (Gal, 1987). However, commitment is the corner stone for many organisations, such as police and military organisations. A consequence of commitment is obeying the rules and orders which are vital to those organisations. This organisational commitment can be constructed by using transformational leadership (Bass, 1998, Kerber & Buono, 2004). There are three types of commitment and these are: First, commitment to organisation, which means the commitment to the organisation’s objectives, aims and principles. Second, commitment to career, which means commitment to the employees’ own success. And third, commitment to the moral values, which means commitment to the basic ethical values which in turn results in being committed to one’s job and colleagues. It is necessary for a transformational leader to display all three of these commitments to a certain extent, as well as to change these qualities and develop them. Organisational commitment can be increased by the principles of intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Bass, 1998, Thamhain, 2004, Engelbrecht, Aswegen & Theron, 2005, Spangenberg & Theron, 2005, Downton, 1973)

In one study, in which 888 bank employee and 76 bank chairmen participated, it was found that transformational leadership increased the commitment to the leader and the transformational leader empowered employees (Kart, Shamir & Chen, 2003). In their research, Lok and Crawford (1999) observed a strong correlation between the organisational subculture and commitment.

Communication and Vision in Transformational Leadership

When leaders create vision and set organisational targets, this makes for a trustworthy environment for the followers (Petersen, 2004). It is only possible through the organisation's strong vision to initiate the reformations and to take further steps towards the transformation progress. The leader should be prepared to struggle all the time; create his vision with the experts in the field; be prepared to manage the change that will start to occur as a result of this vision; establish a friendly atmosphere based on mutual love and respect and in which the personnel will work in cooperation in the organisation; and produce people who continuously learn and try to improve themselves (Bass, 1998, Daniels & Daniels, 1994, Mackoff & Wenet 2000). Meanwhile, the transformational leader gets the respect of his/her followers through honesty, which causes them to be more committed to the organisation and its mission (Bass, 1997).

The organisation that cannot make plans for the future has to make daily decisions which will cause it be defeated by unpredictable conditions. The organisations that have future plans do not face these difficulties (Miles & Snow, 1978). Transformational leadership is a model that focuses toward the future, believes the necessity of the transformation, and promotes organisational culture. According to Bass (1985), a transformational leader transforms his/her subordinates by having them trained as a captain of a team. While transformational leaders define the vision of the organisation and its future objectives, the other managers should agree with the vision and objectives (Dess & Miller, 1993).

Organisational Culture

The organisational culture in management is a composite of regulations and behaviours which aims to keep the organisation as a whole, to regulate the relations among the employees, as well as customer-employee relations and to teach the working principle of the organisation to newcomers within a wide perspective, including ethical rules. This high importance of the organisational culture has influenced the need for further research within the past decade (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994, Engelbrecht, Aswegen & Theron, 2005, Spangenberg & Theron, 2005). While establishing the organisational culture it has become a convention to talk about symbols, stories and myths that took place in the history of the organisation (Fottler, Hernandez & Joiner, 1988).

In the classical management system, the organisational structure is interpreted as the different parts of a machine and it is advised to change the broken parts with the new ones. In contrast, the modern management system examines all components of the organisational structure as one whole, the parts of which interact with each other; and the organisational culture is considered as an irremovable component of the existing system (Kilman, 1988). Transformational leaders add their own vision to the organisational culture; thus, they help to renew and also maintain the existing organisational culture (Bass, 1985).

Organisational culture promotes commitment and cooperation within the organisation. The cooperating groups will be more successful than the uncooperative ones. Working with people with leadership traits rather than those who are unqualified is a privilege. Within the groups which do not promote cooperation, the individuals are the ones who fail or become successful. On the other hand, working in a group will result in sharing the success or failure of the group as a whole. Reaching

goals through cooperation will prove more effective in the future. The groups consisting of individuals who are not tied with personal bonds to each other cannot be motivated and achieve success while conducting common tasks (Ellemers, Gilder & Halsam 2004, Thamhain, 2004). Organisational culture promotes the cooperation among the individuals in the group, the different groups and within the organisation. The differences between winning via competition and cooperation are shown in Table 5.

Table 5, Differences between winning via competition and cooperation

<i>To win via Competition</i>	<i>To win via cooperation</i>
See others as enemies	See others as friends
Concentrate on yourself	Concentrate on others
Doubt others	Support others
You only win if you are good	You only win if you and the others are good
Your skills determine winning	Skills of many people determine winning
Minor victory	Major victory
A little pleasure	A lot of pleasure
There are winners and losers	There are only winners

(Maxwell, 1995, p.7).

In summary, considering the organisational culture will be helpful if it is applied with the components of transformational leadership because the latter promotes commitment to friends, the organisation and to the leader which will also promote the organisational culture. Just like nations having a unified culture through cultural norms, having an organisational culture will also foster unity among the subordinates, as well as between them and their organisations and leaders. Therefore, organisational culture and transformational leadership integrate into each other. Since one of the problems, as stated by Zabun (2000), is the lack of commitment among the police officers in the TNP, the transformational leadership style as well as an organisational culture will solve this problem.

Current Transformational Leadership Research

Some of the empirical studies conducted on leadership and transformational leadership are shown in Table 6. These studies are not only significant for the literature of leadership and the theory of transformational leadership but they are also important in predicting what the results would be gained if the transformational leadership is applied to the TNP.

Table-6, Results of Leadership and Transformational Leadership Studies

Name of Researcher(s)	Year	Findings
Yukl & Kanuk	1979	Strong correlation was found between leadership behaviours of the managers subject to research and the profits of their enterprise, as well as the increase in their sales rates and personnel satisfaction
Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam (Meta -analysis)	1996	Meta-analyses conducted found a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and job performance
DeGroot, Kiker & Cross	2000	Meta-analyses conducted found a positive relationship between transformational leadership behaviour and job performance
Waldman, Ramirez & House	2001	Charismatic leadership behaviour and job performance are positively correlated under the circumstances of uncertainty
Kart, Shamir & Chen	2003	Transformational leader empowers the employees and increases their commitment to the organisation
Flores	2004	Improved transformational leadership behaviour of the teachers increased their success at school and improved the quality of service that they provided to the students
Saleh, Williams & Balougan	2004	The transformational leadership seminars given to the employees working in an organisation had a positive effect on the participants
Judge & Piccolo (meta- analysis)	2004	Using both transformational and transactional leadership together is important for effective leadership behaviour.
Lim & Ployhart	2004	Transformational leadership is necessary to take performance beyond expectations
Day, Sin & Chen	2004	Transformational leadership behaviour helps to increase leadership performance
Conger	2004	CEO's using both transformational and transactional leadership together tend to be more successful
Friedman	2004	Leadership classes promote cooperation and democracy within the organisation. Leadership classes increased the job performance of the participants
Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang&Chen	2005	Using both transformational and transactional leadership together empowers leadership behaviour

Research Conducted in Turkey

Research conducted by Ergun (1997) examined leadership behaviour within the Turkish Public Administration. For this research the participation of managers from various governmental departments was provided. The questionnaire used was developed by Ohio State University and the findings are as follows: The leaders subject to research showed the leadership behaviour of an autocratic leader of the first degree who makes decisions by him/herself, according to Vroom Yettons' contingency theory. However, they are also not involved in the implementation of subordinates' tasks. In other words, they are not participative type leaders and they don't demonstrate individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation components of the transformational leadership theory of Bass (1985). Additionally, it was found that the leaders believe that it is not important to research what subordinates think or feel, and how they behave. It is possible to interpret this finding as a conclusion that they are transactional leaders, in accordance to the transformational theory of Bass (1985). The third finding is that they cannot balance the necessary relationships between the organisational targets and the needs of subordinates to reach set goals. This means that they don't possess the element of intellectual stimulation behaviour as described in the transformational leadership theory of Bass (1985) and they don't give vision to their subordinates.

Further research conducted by Erdogan (1998) examines the Organisational Environment of the TNP, as well as the elements that make police chiefs and police officers with perceived leadership skills. The findings show that there is a significant difference between the chiefs' and officers' perceived leadership behaviours. It is demonstrated that police officers' perceived leadership behaviour is negative when compared with the chiefs' perceptions.

Research conducted by Ozdemir (2000) examines the expectations from and of leadership behaviour and perceived skills in the Malatya Police Department. Chiefs were asked to score their expectations from a leader as well as expectations from their own leadership behaviours. The Chiefs' expectations are scored higher than the leadership behaviours they believe they are applying in practice. Findings showed significant differences between chiefs' perceptions and expectations from and of leadership behaviour. On the other hand, the police officers showed significant differences between their expectations and perceptions. The study also found significant differences between the officers' leadership perceptions and chiefs' leadership perceptions. In summary, police chiefs did not show the leadership behaviour which they believe should be applied and their leadership behaviours scored low when compared to police officers expectations and perceptions.

Research conducted by Fert (2003) examines the effects of working hours of police on service effectiveness. It is stated in the research findings that regular working hours for public officers are 40 hours per week but the police force in Izmir is working more than 40 hours a week. On some days they work until the "second order", that is, until their chiefs say they can leave. Some other days, they work for double the daily shift of 8 hours per day. In other words, a police officer is working 16 hours per day, which results in lack of rest and a high incidence of stress. It is also stated that the psychology of police officers is not considered by the chiefs, as well as the fact that if any person, including police officer, works such long hours will have adverse affect on their performance. One other finding of this research is the lack of training opportunities available to police officers and chiefs for self-improvement. It is also stated in this study that the police officers should be encouraged to improve their skills. In summary, it is possible to assess from this research that police chiefs

are not displaying the individualised consideration and intellectual stimulation behaviours as described in Bass' (1985) transformational leadership theory. This is also related with the problem statement of the herein document with respect to the effects of overly long working hours.

Basically, since none of the studies above are conducted using the MLQ questionnaire of Bass & Avolio (2004), it is possible to interpret the findings of these studies as a statement that in public sector organisations, transactional leader behaviour is more salient. Therefore, these studies also point to the need of establishing transformational leadership.

Chapter 3: Job Satisfaction

Introduction

Employees' thoughts on their respective jobs define job satisfaction in a simple way. It is possible to assess those who like their job experience as job satisfaction and in contrast, those who do not like their job can be considered as feeling dissatisfaction. Therefore, the degree of employee satisfaction in a job or task can be defined as job satisfaction. While some individuals enjoy their jobs and consider such job as a part of their life, others feel the opposite and only work on a job because they have to. In other words, a person's attitude towards his/her job is to be construed as job satisfaction. If his/her attitude is positive, job satisfaction is high; if his/her attitude is negative, then job satisfaction is low (Spector, 1997).

According to another definition of job satisfaction, the latter has two components. The first consists of emotional reactions that a person displays in regards to his/her job. This can be understood by looking at an individual's behaviour. In addition, if an individual recognizes his/her job as positive and enjoys it, it can be assessed that job satisfaction exists. The second component consists of the decisions which are made regarding the individual's productivity. According to the latter, in determining whether an individual's productivity is positive or negative, it can be estimated whether there is job satisfaction or not (Carrol et al., 1977, Gruneberg, 1981, Hopkins, 1983, Cranny, Smith, & Stone, 1992).

In personnel management, job satisfaction is important because of its relation with both the employer and the employees. First of all, everybody deserves to be treated fairly and respect towards the employees is a component of fair management. Job satisfaction assesses whether employees are treated well or not. Thus, job satisfaction is a scale which reflects the psychological health of the employees.

Secondly, the job satisfaction of the employee is one factor which can affect the functions of organisations. Examining job satisfaction is helpful in determining and correcting the problems within such organisations (Spector, 1997, Gruneberg, 1981, Hopkins, 1983, Cranny et al., 1992). Therefore, this study examines the management-caused problems that are stated in the problem statement from the standpoint of the transformational leadership behaviour of police chiefs and the job satisfaction of the police officers subject to research.

The organisations which care for the well being of the employees are considering such employees' job satisfaction. Such consideration may stem from both humanitarian and pragmatic objectives; but whatever the reason, job satisfaction is an important objective (Spector, 1997). In other words, job satisfaction is to be considered as both the means and the end. Job satisfaction is a goal for many employees, and it includes such factors as a better working environment and conditions, salary increases, etc. On the other hand, job satisfaction is means to an end for enterprises because it helps increase the productivity level of employees within the organisation (Hunt, 1968, Hopkins, 1983, Spector, 1997, Brandi, 2005). Therefore, employees' well being, both psychical and psychological, as well as their job satisfaction have become a common objective within organisations. Employees will be satisfied only if they can meet their own needs either in their professional (job) or personal (family, school, etc.) life. Consequently, if these needs cannot be met, employees may experience psychological problems and depression (Spector, 1997).

Personnel behaviour has changed considerably within the last twenty years. In the past, while the personnel manifested their reactions by slowing task output and striking against their job collectively and organisationally, today, employees act on a more personal level (Bowen, 1999, Sahdev, 2004). It is stated that job satisfaction will

be one of the most frequently faced problems in the near future (Ganzach, 2003). For example, according to a research conducted in the U.S., there was more than a 100 % increase in murders committed in offices because of anger issues in 1998 as compared with the previous year (Bowen, 1999). The problem statement of this study revolves around a similar misbehaviour issue of employees, which is reflected in the increase of suicide rates among personnel (Zabun, 2000).

To foster better understanding of this issue, many studies are conducted to assess the impact of job satisfaction in organisations (Carrol et al., 1977, Spector, 1997). Thus, job satisfaction is one of the most intensely studied variables among organisational behaviour studies. It is the central variable of many studies ranging from job design to management. It is in fact possible to find thousands of studies conducted on the subject of job satisfaction in related literature (Spector, 1997).

Components of Job Satisfaction

In general terms, job satisfaction is a variable which assesses the behaviours of employees. In the past, job satisfaction was considered in terms of whether the employees' physical and psychological needs are met or not. Today, job satisfaction has become a phase which tries to understand the behaviours of the employees. The factors that affect job satisfaction are: appreciation, communication, co-workers, fringe benefits, job conditions, the nature of the work itself, the organisation, organisational policies and procedures, pay, personal growth, promotion opportunities, recognition, security and supervision. These factors are being used to examine the problems which cause job satisfaction or dissatisfaction. Therefore, these factors are important for the organisations which want to analyze job satisfaction and prevent dissatisfaction. By using all of the components mentioned above, it will be

helpful to examine job satisfaction from a wide perspective. For example, findings can show that while employees like each other, they might not like the way that their supervisor manages them (Spector, 1997).

Components of job satisfaction are as follows (Spector, 1997):

1- Pay (Fee):

The component of pay examines the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employee with his/her salary. The correlation between job satisfaction and pay is reported to be low. Spector (1985) found a correlation of .17 between job satisfaction and pay. In assessing this small correlation, Spector (1997) reports that pay itself has a low effect on job satisfaction. In contrast to the effect of pay on job satisfaction, it is also reported that employees respect others who earn more than themselves but compare themselves with others who they believe are doing the same job as them. One other issue relating to pay is that it should be fair. It is important for employees that the procedures regulating pay are fair. It is reported that administering pay fairly will have a more significant effect on job satisfaction than the level of pay itself.

Today, in some offices, salary is paid according to performance. In these kinds of offices, employees perceive that the thoughts of management regarding them are relative to the amount of salary they earn. Additional bonuses also have a positive role on job satisfaction at least as much as salaries (Kerber & Buono, 2004).

For example, in a research conducted in the U.S. between the years of 1986 and 1996, although there was an increase of 1,5 % in production, there was only an increase of 0,5 % in salaries of employees. It is stated that this unbalanced situation would have resulted in low job satisfaction (Roach, 1997).

2- Promotion:

The component of promotion examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the promotion opportunities provided within the organisation (Spector, 1997). It would motivate the personnel if there is positive knowledge that there is a possibility for promotion and increase in salary, especially if quick and frequent promotions are part of the organisational culture of a company. This would thus affect job satisfaction positively. However, it is necessary that the personnel are capable and deserve such promotion (Manfred, 2005).

While the personnel who get promoted undeservedly affect other employees' motivation negatively, it is also true that in some cases undeserved promotions are not the norm. In these cases, employees with leadership skills may be suppressed by their managers because the latter believe that leadership brings disobedience and disobedience brings incapacity. The answer for those managers who show the above mentioned misbehaviour is, "Good followers cannot be good leaders." Subduing personnel through oppression may cause problems in the organisation (Peter & Hull, 1976, p.32). This misbehaviour belongs to a transactional leader or manager who does not care for the development and improvement of both the employees and the organisation. In contrast, a transformational leader does not oppress employees but values their new ideas, motivates them and raises new leaders among the subordinates.

3- Supervision:

The component of supervision examines employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction according to the management styles of their supervisors (Spector, 1997). The managers who have the leader behaviours as it is stated in the transformational leadership chapter will solve most of the supervision problems. On

the other hand, acting as a transactional leader or showing the behaviour of laissez-faire more dominantly will cause many problems. Managing employees by using the components of transformational leadership is examined in detail in the transformational leadership chapter. This section contains an overview of some management problems that may arise:

1- Leaders not motivating the employees and acting like a transactional leader all the time.

2- Leaders who do not assign the appropriate work to the right employee.

3- Employees who perform work other than the tasks in which he/she has achieved competence or has already learned.

4- Leaders not keeping the promises that are given to the personnel.

5- Leaders being closed to the innovative and developmental suggestions made by skillful and productive personnel – all of these will result in dissatisfaction.

The above mentioned factors are among the mostly frequently faced supervision problems. On the other hand, it will also cause dissatisfaction and complaint if an employee changes the nature of his/her job after getting used to a particular job. Having a stable job is one of the psychological factors that connect personnel to the job. If an employee performs the same job with the same co-workers, he/she will develop him/herself more and produce better results (Spector, 1997, Bass, 1998).

Another management problem related with job satisfaction is appreciation or criticism. Appreciation or criticism given by supervisors to employees before or after a task is performed is a main factor that affects an individual's motivation. When an individual uses initiative while doing his/her works, this is a distinct characteristic that affects his/her job satisfaction positively. There are two types of appreciation and



criticism for officers working in a governmental organisation. First, there is oral appreciation or criticism; second, there is written appreciation or criticism. While both oral and written appreciation help to motivate the personnel, written criticism causes a decrease in job satisfaction (Ozbek, 1980).

It is important that employers appreciate employees' jobs and express their satisfaction. Appreciating the performance of employees in the direction of the aims and targets of the association will be an attitude that would increase job satisfaction (McAfee et al., 1995). The opposite not only affects the motivation of an employee who devotes him/herself to that job but also causes dissatisfaction.

On the other hand, there are two types of criticism: constructive criticism and destructive criticism. Constructive criticism is a positive type of criticism which complies with the characteristics of a transformational leader. In constructive criticism, a transformational leader values the efforts displayed by the employees and highlights any omissions or less satisfactory performance. Destructive criticism is types of transactional leader behaviour, coming from someone who does not care how employees feel, what they deserve and who they are as individuals. Transactional leaders do their best to display a lack of appreciation because they believe that subordinates are only doing the tasks they are supposed to do; therefore, there is no need for the appreciation. In addition, transactional leaders worry about the role conflict that they can face with the subordinates. They believe that if they behave in a sincere manner towards the employees and provide appreciation for employees' efforts to perform a task, the latter might lose respect for the manager and the manager might lose his/her power or authority over the employees. (The role conflict problem is also listed among the management caused problems in this study's problem statement). In contrast, a transformational leader never worries about role

conflict and expresses his/her feelings sincerely to appreciate and motivate the employees and to encourage better productivity in the future.

4- Fringe Benefits and Contingent Rewards:

The component of fringe benefits examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the extra benefits and bonuses offered by the organisation (Spector, 1997). Fringe benefits are a factor that positively affect job satisfaction. Therefore, organisations offering extra benefits and bonuses will have an effect on employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Spector, 1997, Kerber & Buono, 2004). The component of contingent reward examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the rewards given when they perform well (Spector, 1997). Contingent reward is the reward which is dependant upon conditions being met. A leader promotes the employees by contingent reward when pre-set standards are reached. The impact of contingent reward is verified by empirical studies in that it increases personnel performance and contributes to job satisfaction (Bass, 1998, Spector, 1997). The only concern with respect to contingent reward is reflects the management style of a transactional leader and the performance of the employees lasts only for as long as the reward exists (Bass, 1998). Contingent reward is examined in detail in the transactional leadership section.

5- Co-Workers and Employees Educational Level:

The component of co-workers examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his/her friends at work (Spector, 1997). When employees are offensive to each other this can cause big problems. If an individual's co-workers are kind and helpful to each other, this kind of environment is a factor that can affect job satisfaction at a moderate level. Even if the individual doesn't like his/her work, he/she will enjoy his/her work life because of the fact that he/she likes the colleagues.

If an employee does not work in such an environment, job satisfaction will be affected negatively. Sometimes problems are caused because of the diversity of the ideas and thoughts of the personnel; in this case it is better for a leader to examine the problem from the standpoint of ethical rules and point the grey area to the employees rather than focus on black and white resolutions (Carrillo, 2005). Transformational leadership promotes moral and ethical values, as well as the commitment of the employees to each other. Employees work as groups and teams, even if they lose or win, their failure or success belongs to the group as a whole.

On the other hand, giving an effective education to employees develops their attitude and behaviours, as well as increases their knowledge and skills with respect to the job. The benefit that employees obtain in terms of application of education received is considered in two groups and examined as functional or symbolic education. In functional education, an individual works on a job parallel to and reflective of the type of schooling he/she had. In this regard, the education performs its function. In symbolic education, an individual works on a job that required application of a different area of knowledge from the one he/she learned (Erkal, 1996). Job satisfaction is related to whether employees work on a job that reflects the knowledge they have mastered. The status of the personnel is also important. Personnel in higher positions will more likely experience more job satisfaction (Davis, 1988). On the other hand, today, expectations from the job environment are increasing in proportion to the increase in the education level of personnel. In the case that these expectations are not met, it is expected that job satisfaction will be one of the most frequently faced problems (Ganzach, 2003). Transformational leadership attaches importance to the improvement of education levels of employees with its intellectual stimulation component. Therefore, having educated personnel will not

effect their job satisfaction in an environment which is led by a transformational leader. Transformational leadership requires continued development and improvement. A transformational leader will increase the education level of those who are said to be well educated and provide the necessary environment in which they can work better.

6- Operating Conditions and Nature of Work:

The component of operating conditions examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the rules and procedures of the organisation. Working conditions component of job satisfaction deal with how these conditions affect the employees' psychological environment and whether they respond to employees' expectations. Job satisfaction will be high as long as it meets the employee's expectations (Spector, 1997).

Some of the complaints mentioned under this heading of operating conditions are issues faced due to excessive tiredness. These problems are among those that are stated in the problem statement of this study.

These issues are described in the following paragraphs (Goff et al., 1990; Bruce & Blackburn, 1992; Lounsbury et al., 2004).

One of the main problems is not being able to rest due to shortness of breaks between working hours and weariness resulting from this situation. Working hours must be flexible so that employees can rest enough not only during working hours but also after the work. In addition, it is important that women with children not be made to work till late hours and that transportation support be assigned to the personnel after the workday. Police officers are working overtime, that is, more than 40 hours per week, and on certain days they must keep working till the chief gives them permission to leave (which they refer to as "till the second order arrives"). Working

overtime causes excessive tiredness in the police officers and it tests their physical limits. Therefore, they cannot spare enough time for their family, friends and even for themselves to refresh and be ready for the next working day.

Another problem is the deterioration of employees' biological balance due to the set up a system that bans employees from leaving the place in which he/ she works (Lounsbury et al., 2004). This problem is also valid in the case of the police. Some police officers, teams or patrols cannot leave the location at which they are working. If their chief does not consider their needs by sending another supplemental team to help the first team, they will be dissatisfied. The leader type who cares for the needs of the employees is the transformational leader type, as the transactional leader will not attach importance to whether they have needs or not.

The following are the problems that are faced with respect to the nature of work (Goff et al., 1990, Bruce & Blackburn, 1992, Spector, 1997, Bass, 1998, Lounsbury et al., 2004): First, a problem occurs when an employee can't use his/her intelligence because of the simplicity of his/ her tasks; therefore, such employee is bored on the job. In this case, making the job interesting and challenging will encourage the employee and improve job satisfaction. Second, dissatisfaction arises if a very simple job is assigned to qualified personnel or when a specific task is assigned to the wrong personnel (i.e. incompatibility of job with personnel). Third, interfering with an employee's method of doing his/her job will cause psychological demoralisation. An individual must be allowed the opportunity to perform a task in the best way he/she deems appropriate. Therefore, it will be very hard to change a behaviour that has become a habit. Performing a task in the traditional way is not a must for the transformational leader, because from this standpoint, doing the right things is more important than doing things right (Bennis & Naus, 1985). A

transformational leader motivates the employees to use his/ her intelligence for the task that will be conducted and is open to innovations. If the solution offered by the employee will make things go faster and smoother, the transformational leader will accept it.

Fourth, contrary to the point mentioned above, an overly complicated task will impede success on the job and also cause an employee to be bored, especially if it exceeds and forces the employee's intelligence capacity. This will cause employee to be seized with the fear of not being able to succeed on the job and will make him/ her angry and depressed. A transformational leader will consider each employee with the individualised consideration component of transformational leadership. Anybody cannot accomplish every task. One can be successful while conducting a task, and the same person can fail while doing another one. The leadership skill of the chief plays an important role while deciding on the suitable personnel to put on a task. If the task given exceeds the employee's capacity, a transformational leader will put that employee on a different task which meets with the capacity level of the employee.

Fifth, asking an employee to complete a task in a period shorter than the standards would allow will cause complaints about the job. In this case, an individual will feel under pressure and uncomfortable. Thus, this troublesome situation will reflect on the individual's productivity on the job. Unfortunately, this is the nature of police work. Police officers have to do most of the work in a short period of time. Therefore, a chief who acts as a leader has the power to make things easier.

Sixth, classifying and grouping everything systematically will contribute to remove the employee's personality from the picture. In some organisations, the employee is educated as a robot and made to do a job without providing any personal contribution; even his/her thinking and dressing style are regulated. This is the way in

which police officers and chiefs are also educated; therefore, a police chief's transformational leader behaviour will make the tasks meaningful for the officers and encourage employee contribution with respect the task at hand.

Insufficiencies related to environmental and working conditions are factors that affect job satisfaction on a moderate level. If the office environment is unhealthy, noisy, dangerous, dirty, not illuminated, warmed or cooled sufficiently, etc., job satisfaction will be affected negatively. If working conditions are good, job satisfaction will be high. This factor is included in the problem statement of this study. Insufficiencies related to police patrol cars and office environment are problems that concern the police chief of the department. A transformational leader creates an environment in which subordinates can feel better and work better. Therefore, transformational leaders will find solutions to those kinds of problems that affect the satisfaction and motivation of the police officers.

7- Communication and Consultation:

The component of communication examines employee satisfaction or dissatisfaction with communication within the organisation (Spector, 1997). It has been mentioned that complaint and dissatisfaction cause demoralisation and consequently, they cause psychological depression. In some cases, complaints result from unfairness in the office. Some of these are due to lack of respect for personal rights and believing that undeserved promotions have been given. It has been observed that constituting a forum where an employee can go to find solutions to personal requests and complaints about work related issues is found to be beneficial (Hallowall, 1999, Carrillo, 2005).

On the other hand, it has been examined that discussing the problems with consultants helps personnel gain moderate level job satisfaction. Consultation is

discussed under two headings. The first is a consultation system directed towards the employee where the consultant pays attention to the employee's job or familial problems and tries to offer solutions. In the second kind of consultation, managers want employees to participate in decision making. The act of creating a participative system and getting employee's opinions will have a positive effect on employee's job satisfaction.

Due to business trips and high work density, managers experience communication problems with other managers and personnel, which cause unresolved issues. These problems can be solved if the different parties integrate and share the same physical environment (Hallowall, 1999).

A transformational leader exhibits moral and ethical values at the highest level. Therefore, unfairness is not discussed in an environment where a transformational leader exists. Transformational leadership has its individualised consideration component which means that a leader considers each employee individually. Therefore, there will not be psychological depression or employees with psychological problems will be treated before they harm themselves. One other characteristic of the transformational leader is accessibility. Therefore, the employees will not have communication problems (Bass, 1998).

Solving the problems mentioned above and applying the contribution of the employee to the work produced will bind employees to each other through commitment, as well as inspire and motivate them (Carrillo, 2005).

Other Factors Related With Job Satisfaction

Employee's Gender:

Many studies are conducted to test the relationship between gender and job satisfaction. However, a statistically consistent relationship couldn't be found between gender and job satisfaction (Spector, 1997). Spector (1997) criticizes that the empirical studies conducted to test the relationship between job satisfaction and gender compared male and female samples from different job categories. In other words, the male participants subject to research were working in field A, while the female participants subject to research were working in field B.

When considered from the standpoint of leadership behaviours, various research findings indicate that there is no difference between male and female in terms of leadership behaviours towards the subordinates (Day & Stogdill, 1972, Aldoory & Toth, 2004).

Employee's Age and Working Period:

Research conducted to examine the relationship between age and job satisfaction found correlations between the two. According to these studies, job satisfaction increases as age increases (Brush, Mach & Pooyan, 1987, White & Spector, 1987). Personnel will have more job satisfaction as their working period in the office increases. On the other hand, an individual whose age advances and who becomes mature will expect different things from life and unrealistic expectations from life will decrease partially. Consequently, a senior employee's job satisfaction will be higher than that of a young employee (Davis, 1988). Empirical studies conducted to examine the relationship between age and job satisfaction found that job satisfaction increases as the age increases (Brush, Mach and Pooyan, 1987, White & Spector, 1987).

Theories Related To Job Satisfaction

1- Needs Theory

In 1943, Abraham Maslow suggested a theory called “needs hierarchy” in which needs are arranged according to their priorities. According to this theory needs are gathered under five main titles. These are: psychological needs, security needs, social needs, being respected and self-fulfilment (persons reaching a synthesis by uniting their own needs and potential) needs.

Maslow’s theory sets forth the following assumptions:

- a. Needs that a person can’t provide give direction to his behaviours and these behaviours motivate a person to reach these needs.
- b. A person’s consciousness is impressed because of unsatisfied needs and this impression guides behaviours with almost unlimited power.
- c. The effect level of satisfied needs on behaviours is parallel with the importance level of these needs. The need at the second stage has directive power only after reaching a particular satisfaction at the first stage.

David Mc Clelland approaches needs theory with a different point of view. According to this theory, a person’s individual needs and environmental needs come together and affect a person’s three basic motives. These are the need of success, need of power and need of being accepted (Thompson, 1998). Each of these motives give an individual a different type of satisfaction; however, the level of importance given to these motives differs from person to person.

Individuals’ personal needs are as follows (Mainiero & Tromley, 1994):

a- Physiological Needs:

Human needs never end from his birth to death. Of all these needs, physiological needs are the most important. The most essential need in this case is the

fight for finding bread (survival). After finding the bread, other physiological needs, such as shelter and defence take their places of graduated importance within the range.

A behaviour that has been satisfied doesn't have any effect on motivation. For example, in spite of man's need for air, this satisfied need doesn't have a motivational characteristic on behaviours.

b- Safety Needs:

After physiological needs are satisfied, next comes the safety needs. Steps must be taken to protect man against threats and risks and these motivate person's behaviour. An individual tries to create a just and peaceful place where he or she is not faced with threats.

c- Social Needs:

After physiological needs are satisfied and a person feels safe, the matter that will motivate his behaviour next is social needs. A person wants to belong to somewhere, to be approved by others, to love and be loved.

d- Ego needs:

One step above social needs is ego needs. These needs are divided into two groups. In the first group one finds self-respect and trust, as well as a feeling of freedom. In the second group, one finds needs such as being approved and respected by others.

In fact, it is not very possible to satisfy needs at this stage. Even if there is some satisfaction, an individual will want more. Ego needs arise after physiological, safety and social needs are met.

e- Self-Fulfilment Need:

At the top of the needs chain there is a self-fulfilment need. These needs reveal a person's own potential, the need for constant self-development and being creative. Unfortunately, hectic modern life does not give people the opportunity to give attention to these needs, because so many other needs have priority. Therefore, these needs cannot be satisfied sufficiently very often.

Needs that motivate people and the priority of these needs have been emphasized. In some offices, managers complain about not being able to garner the performance they want from the employees even though they provide all kind of opportunities. The reasoning behind this is that the needs at the lower level are satisfied and presently the employees have jumped to the upper level needs. The employees who have social and ego needs won't be satisfied while the management still cares about physiological needs (Lok & Crawford, 1999). In a research conducted by Lok and Crawford (1999), it has been determined that job satisfaction is about answering needs that have high priorities.

2- Oldham's Job Characteristics Theory

According to this theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976), employees can be satisfied depending on the characteristics of their job. If the employees' approach to their job is joyful and meaningful, then they will be motivated and do their job better. Hackman and Oldham (1976) examine job characteristics under five components. These are skills variety, task identity, task significance, and autonomy and job feedback. Skill variety, task identity and the task significance are the components which result in the meaningfulness of the task. Autonomy promotes the feeling of responsibility. Feedback helps to gain knowledge about task output. These five

components of the job characteristics theory help determine the motivational level of the job.

Skill Variety: Refers to the number of skills that are necessary to conduct a job.

Task Identity: Refers to the amount of work that a worker does. It can be an entire task or just a part of a task.

Task Significance: Refers to the impact of the job over others.

Autonomy: Refers to the authority of the employees on their job.

Job Feedback: Refers to the thoughts of the employees on their job.

Job Scope: Refers to the overall score which will be gained by combining the five components that are mentioned above. This overall score is examined in terms of the complexity of the job conducted.

Job characteristics theory assesses the motivating effect of the job with its five components. The overall score is calculated with a formula called Motivation Potential Score (MPS). $MPS = (S.V. + T.I. + T.S.) / 3 * Auton * Feed$. S.V. refers to the skills variety, T.I. refers to the Task Identity, T.S. refers to the Task Significance, Auton refers to the Autonomy, Feed refers to the Feedback. After establishing their theory, Hackman & Oldham (1975) developed a Job Diagnostic Survey (JDS) to examine job satisfaction according to their theory. Unfortunately, because of reliability problems, the instrument faced criticism (Spector, 1997).

3- Motivation-Hygiene Theory

According to the motivation and hygiene theory suggested by Fredrick Herzberg, a person's job satisfaction results from factors directly connected with the job. Some of these factors are a feeling or lack thereof of being able to succeed on the

job, not/ appreciating the job, not/ giving responsibility and weight of the job imposed on an employee, whether or not there is possibility for career advancement, as well as possibilities for personal improvement.

According to Herzberg, job satisfaction and dissatisfaction are not two opposite poles. A person's job satisfaction is affected by the factors which motivate a person. However, job dissatisfaction is affected by hygiene conditions; in other words, the factors surrounding the job. Providing hygiene by abolishing negative factors clears the way for some motivating factors and contributes to job satisfaction (Kerr & Stogdill, 1974, Thompson, 1998).

4- Expectations Theory

Expectations theory states that a person's behaviour changes according to his or her personal expectations. In needs theory, these differences in individuals have not been considered.

Expectations theory is composed of three components.

Expectation: The output of the tasks that person will produce on the job, the target which will be reached is the expectation.

Means: A person's hope to be rewarded at the end of a task is the means.

Worth: The value that person gives to things obtained by the end of a task is the worth.

According to expectations theory, these points are necessary for high motivation.

5- Approach Related to Conditions

Approach related to condition theory defends that there is no appropriate management process that can be applied in every single condition. This is because the behaviour of employees changes as conditions change from one organisation to another. Thus, displaying a simple approach in every condition will not be suitable.

In approach related to conditions, trying various management processes according to the conditions by benefiting from the main theories, paying attention to personnel's needs while managing, creating an environment that will motivate personnel, and informing personnel that their needs will be satisfied in case of reaching organisational aims is suggested (Thompson, 1998).

Results of Job Satisfaction:

Job satisfaction is expected to achieve in both social and personal dimensions. How job satisfaction or dissatisfaction affects performance, productivity and activity in the organisation is one of the questions that are asked and investigated constantly. Job satisfaction is a dynamic fact. After job satisfaction is provided, it must be monitored regularly whether such job satisfaction subsists or not (Davis, 2001).

Considering the job satisfaction of the employees and administering it with transformational leadership behaviour will bring about these positive effects mentioned below:

- a- Personnel with high morale find interest in a job and do it more willingly.
- b- Personnel show perfect performance when necessary,
- c- Personnel conform to the directions willingly,
- d- Personnel cooperate with the aims of the organisation,

e- Personnel commit themselves to their organisations and supervisors (Spector, 1997, Bass, 1998).

Job Satisfaction and Production:

It has not been confirmed that personnel who have high job satisfaction produce more than the ones who have low job satisfaction. However, it has been determined that rewarding personnel for their work makes a positive impression on their job satisfaction and performance. On the other hand, even though the effect of job satisfaction on productivity couldn't be determined, it increases success in the organisational dimension (Brandi, 2005). However, having low job satisfaction can cause unproductiveness in the job environment, such as slow performance in protest for an unattractive job environment, sudden strike decisions and deterioration of discipline (Davis, 1988).

Job Satisfaction and Quitting a Job:

The relationship between job satisfaction and quitting a job couldn't be determined with the empirical studies, but it is believed in principle that a person who has high job satisfaction would less likely quit his/her job and a person who has low job satisfaction would more likely quit the job he/she has. In an empirical study that was conducted on women between the ages of 18-25, it is expressed that job satisfaction is an important factor with respect to continuing or quitting the job. On the other hand, an increase in the length of employment decreases the likelihood of quitting a job.

The other point that affects job quitting is related to the well-being or economic level of the country and a low level of unemployment. In this case, it has

been determined that people change their jobs more frequently. An employee who wants to find a better job disregards job satisfaction and changes his/her job frequently. Contrary to the foregoing, it is expressed that in places where people need bread and cannot find it, notwithstanding their job satisfaction level, people will continue to work (Ozkalp & Kirel, 2001).

Job Satisfaction and Absenteeism:

Employees missing work and being absent from the job is defined as absenteeism. Absenteeism causes loss of labour which is also a loss of time and money. Moreover, it puts a negative effect on the other employees who are present. The theory of absence defends that absenteeism is related to job satisfaction (Steers & Rhodes, 1978). According to the theory, the ones who like their job will more likely be present and those who do not like their job will more likely be absent. On the other hand, empirical studies conducted could not find a strong correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism. While Locke (1976) reports a low correlation between job satisfaction and absenteeism, Spector (1997) reports that correlations between these two variables are inconsistent. Another study conducted by Goff et al., (1990) concludes that employees have some other responsibilities that are more important than their jobs, such as their family and children. In case of a family or a health problem, an employee shows absenteeism, which would not necessarily mean that he/she is dissatisfied with his/her job.

Behaviours Shown in Job Dissatisfaction:

One of the factors used to measure job satisfaction is to try to understand the behaviours of employees. These behaviours have been classified as constructive, destructive active or passive.

Escape: It arises in the form of looking for another job or quitting a job.

Raising one's voice: It is an active and constructive behaviour, where one tries to reach a solution through argument with employees and superiors to rectify conditions.

Loyalty: A person who behaves passively but constructively, hopes that the negative ness will be corrected, thinks and behaves positively, supports the organisation against criticism.

Apathy (neglect): A personal behaviour which causes job output to deteriorate more through passivity, absenteeism or late arrival to work, decrease in performance and increase mistakes on the job (Ozkalp & Kirel, 2001).

Behavioural Disorders Resulting From Psychological Dissatisfaction

Disorder in the behaviours of a person who is not satisfied psychologically affects everyone in that person's surroundings. Following are the outcomes that occur because of this dissatisfaction (Davis, 1988, Spector, 1997, Brandi, 2005):

a) Aggressive Behaviours:

A person thinks that he/she will overcome the problems he/she is faced with by using force and assuming an aggressive attitude. Violence can be directed either towards the source of problem or sometimes towards people who have no relation with the problem. For example, a person who has problems in the office carries these problems at home with family or others.

b) Recurring Behaviours:

Behaviours such as autism or suicidal thoughts can be seen in people who have psychological problems and cannot overcome these problems or struggle with life.

Criticizing actions such as gossiping, women crying due to the difficulties they are facing, men frowning and not talking are considered as recurring behaviours.

c) Repeating Old Behaviours:

Due to psychological dissatisfaction, an employee repeats the unapproved and criticized behaviours that he had displayed in the past.

d) Letting Things Take Their Own Course:

Personnel who have experienced psychological dissatisfaction lose their struggling power and let things take their own course. Such a person does not only lose their motivations but also make a negative impression on the other personnel members.

Empirical Studies about Job Satisfaction and Transformational Leadership

In a research conducted by Fuller & Marrison (1999), it is established that supplying psychological empowerment to the employee strengthens the relationship between transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

In another research conducted in Norway with 100 managers from five different companies, it is examined that there is a strong correlation between transformational leadership behaviour and job satisfaction, work efficiency and work motivation (Hetland & Sandal, 2003).

In a cross-cultural research which includes the states of China, India and Kenya, 577 employees working in banking and financial departments were examined to evaluate their transformational leadership behaviours and work related results. As result, correlation had been found between transformational leadership and job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Walumbwa & Lawler, 2003) Another study conducted by Lok & Crawford (2004) has found an effect of organisational culture and leadership style on job satisfaction and organisational commitment.

Bryman (1992) has found a positive correlation between transformational leadership behaviour and job satisfaction (Bass, 1998).

In an empirical study, the effects of having leader and employee from different cultures over job efficiency are examined. As a result, Chinese employees working with Japanese leaders were examined and it was found that they are accumulated around the organisational aims and constructed a relationship which considers both the benefits of employee and leader, therefore effective leadership behaviour is examined (Liu et al., 2004).

Chapter 4: Turkish National Police Context

This chapter is composed of two main sections. The first section discusses general conduct of security services in Turkey; specific domestic and international structuring of Turkish police forces; internal structuring of the police organisation and task distributions; and laws that provide the police with duties and powers to be used while performing their work. Moreover, within the scope of this section, a legislative analysis has been made on the penal sanctions police forces can face, in case they make mistakes while performing their duties and enjoying their powers and on the rewards to be given to the police forces in case they show great success. At the end of the said analysis, related law articles are examined in terms of transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

In the second section, the transformation of the police training system is examined from a general point of view and the place of transformational leadership in the system is examined.

Duty of Ensuring General Public Order and Security

The Minister of the Interior is responsible for the general order and security in the State. While executing such duty, the Minister of the Interior provides assistance from the Turkish National Police, the General Command of Gendarmerie and other municipal forces and--if necessary--from army forces (E.T.K. [Security Department Law], Article 1, (See Appendix F for ETK, The legislations used in this study are translated from Turkish language to English by the researcher himself, please also see Appendix K for the important notice about the legislations). Police forces are responsible for ensuring public peace and security and personal security; to protect the immunity of domicile; to help any person in need of help, dependent children, the old

and the helpless; and to perform other duties as stipulated by laws and regulations (P.V.S.K. [Law on Duties and Powers of Police] (See Appendix G for P.V.S.K.), Article 1; P.V.S.N. [Code of Rules on Duties and Powers of Police], Article 1, 2) (See Appendix I for P.V.S.N.).

The Security Forces in Turkey are divided into two categories, general and special. General security forces are composed of armed police forces and gendarmerie forces. Special security forces are the security forces which are excluded from general municipal police and established as per their specific laws to undertake given tasks (E.T.K., Article 3) For example, private security companies and their personnel would fall under the latter category.

The duties of the Police Forces are generally listed under two headings. The first heading is “Trying to prevent any conduct or action contrary to the laws, statutes and legislations” and the second heading is “Performing related procedures according to law in case of an offence” (P.V.S.K., Article 2; P.V.S.N., Article 1). Police forces perform their duties as per the orders given. The types of orders given to police, the conditions of complete failure to execute an order, the requirement of demanding a written order and the situations when a written order cannot be demanded are listed in Article 2 under P.V.S.K.

Police Forces Structure and Departments

When we consider the general structure of the Turkish National Police Organisation in Turkey, we encounter three groups of structures namely, central organisation, rural organisation and international organisation. This study is conducted in the Eskisehir province which forms part of the rural organisation (See E.T.K., Article 16 for more info.).

The police is an armed execution and disciplinary force which is divided into two categories in terms of the uniform worn: uniformed police forces and civil police forces (E.T.K., Article 4). Uniformed police forces are classified as “police forces provided with a vehicle” and “the police forces without a vehicle”. “Police forces provided with a vehicle” are equipped with horses, bicycles, motorcycles or other modes of transportation (E.T.K., Article 5). Civil police forces render every kind of security service without a uniform (E.T.K., Article 6). This study is composed of the randomly selected members of above-listed groups who are located in the Eskisehir Police Department.

In terms of duties fulfilled, police forces are divided into three categories: executive, political and judicial police forces (E.T.K., Article 8). Executive police forces are liable to ensure general and special order. Political police forces are responsible for all the duties related to the security of the state. Judicial police forces are assigned by the Turkish National Police Organisation and are obliged to work on the judicial aspects of events occurring in places provided with a police centre (E.T.K., Article 8). This study is conducted with the participation of police officers from each of these three groups mentioned above. In terms of the departments the police officers work in: chief police officers whose leadership behaviours are examined are--in a hierarchical structure--composed of mid-level administrators whose title varies from “Sergeant” to “Deputy Department Manager” with the degree of “Fourth Level Assistant Police Chief” (See E.T.K., Article 13 & 55 for more info.). Police Chiefs who are studied in terms of transformational leadership within the scope of this study are licensed graduates or graduates of accredited education institutions and, they are eligible to be assigned to the highest “police chief” positions (See E.T.K., Article 26 for more info.).

Penalisation and Rewards in the Security Department

While fulfilling their duties, police officers may conduct some acts which are classified as “legal” according to general laws but which are stipulated to be “illegal” as per other specific laws which provide the security department with its duties and powers. These are the measures taken via laws and legislations written with the intention of preventing problems, such as failure of police officers (who are dependent on each other according to the order-and-command chain within the framework of the hierarchical structure) to fulfil their duties in a timely manner; their misconduct in the office; possible cooperation with criminals; and acts geared towards the fulfilment of their personal interests.

In this context, it is stated that a discipline board will be established in provincial organisations, education and training institutions and in the centre, and that a High Discipline Board will be established within the Turkish National Police to conduct discipline and investigation procedures in Security GD. Authorised persons to be assigned to these boards are also listed (E.T.K. Annex, Article 4). The following terms are clearly defined in the said Law: Types of penalties to be given to members of the security organisation (See E.T.K., Article 82; E.O.D.T. [Discipline Statute for the Turkish National Police Organisation], Article 2 for more information) (See Appendix H for EODT); which commission is entitled to give which penalty to which personnel (See E.T.K., Article 68-78; E.T.K. Annex, Article 5 for more information.); which penalties can be given to personnel other than security services corps working under the security organisation (E.T.K. Annex, Article 6); which authorities can adjudicate the decisions made by the boards concerned (E.T.K. Annex, Article 7); the ways to notify to parties concerned of the decisions (See E.T.K., Article 79 for more information); authorities responsible for direct penalisation (See E.T.K., Article 84;

E.T.K. Annex, Article 9 for more information); a stipulation that the legislation sets forth the authority to decide as to the level of penalties to be given (See E.T.K., Article 83 for more information); conditions for a police officer to return to work after suspension (See E.T.K., Article 80 for more information); and that if the offence committed by the police officer requires not only administrative but also judicial investigation, the decision is to be made on the basis of the conclusion of the judicial investigation (See E.T.K., Article 81 for more information).

Discipline penalties to be given to members of the Security Department are as follows: “written warning” to the police officer to caution him to be more careful in his duty; written “censure penalty” to the police officer to inform him of faulty actions in his duties and behaviours; “salary cut” penalty which includes an up to 15 day cut in the salary of the police officer concerned; “long-term suspension” penalty to suspend promotion of the police officer concerned in the 12th, 16th, 20th or 24th month; “prohibition from the profession” penalty to prohibit the police officer from working in the Security Department for the rest of his life; “prohibition from public service” penalty to prohibit the police officer from working in the public sector for the rest of his life (E.O.D.T., Article 2-8).

Rewards

Rewards in the security organisation are given on the basis of the following principle stated in the Law: “Police officers who have shown high performance to ensure protection of the well-being and security of the state, the interests of the state and the lives, chastity and commodities of citizens can be given a reward in the amount of two to five times their salaries; and the police officers who have exerted great effort by laying down their lives in an extraordinary situation can be given a

reward in the amount of six to twenty-four times their actual salaries.” (E.T.K., Article 86). When the rewards mentioned in this Article are evaluated within the scope of “contingent reward” as stated by Spector (1997), it will have positive effects in terms of job satisfaction of the personnel. Meanwhile, Bass (1985) also mentioned the “contingent reward” component and evaluated it together with the characteristics of transactional leadership.

On the other hand, personnel employed in some specific units are given different remunerations. It is stated in A.T.K. Annex, Article 21 that: “Overtime premiums shall be paid in different amounts to personnel working in units such as SWAT, Special Service, the Counter-Terror Department and the Public Police.”. This article can be evaluated within the context of “fringe benefits” underlined by Spector (1997) and will be beneficial in terms of job satisfaction of the personnel working at these units.

Police and Ethics

It is decided with the Law No. 5176 passed in May, 2004 that a Public Officials Ethics Board be established to establish ethics rules such as transparency, impartiality and honesty, which the public officials must comply with, monitor and implement (See Appendix J for 5176). This is a Higher Board according to law and is responsible for and authorised to set compliance standards for ethical behaviours in all public agencies, except where otherwise provided by law. Applications can be made to the Board with respect to general directors and equivalent high-level administrators employed by public agencies who have violated ethics rules. The teaching of ethics rules and monitoring of their implementation via the said law, as well as investigating chief police officers who violate ethics rules will together support the concept--in

legal terms--that leaders should demonstrate ethical behaviour at the highest possible level (Bass & Steidlmeier, 1999, Bass, Avolio, Jung & Berson, 2003) (See 5176 for more information).

Duties and Powers of the Police Forces

Members of the police forces are entitled to use their weapons to protect themselves; to protect the lives and chastity of others; to catch a criminal guilty of a capital offence trying to escape after arrest; and if the police or the State is under armed attack (See P.V.S.K., Article 16; P.V.S.N. , Article 17 for more information).

The eligible subjects and conditions for arrest are listed in Article 13 of the P.S.V.K. The situations where police forces can use force to make arrests and act in situations of public disruption or unrest, as well as the levels of force that can be used are stated in Article 6 under Annex of the P.V.S.K.

Police officers may fingerprint and take photos of suspects as stipulated in the Law (P.V.S.K, Article 5; P.V.S.N., Article 5-7).

Police officers are allowed to do what is necessary to keep the peace in vacation and entertainment places and to demand the imposition of administrative fines when violations of the law occur (P.V.S.K., Article 6). The conditions under which to classify a place as a “vacation” and “entertainment” location are listed in Article 7 under the P.V.S.K.

If rules are violated in the places and circumstances listed in Article 8 of the P.V.S.K., the Police is entitled to forbid the violating persons or entities from working for a maximum period of 30 days with approval from the highest civilian authority.

To prevent crime in areas open to the public and listed in Article 9 under The

P.V.S.K.: “The police shall search bodies, vehicles, private documents and goods belonging to individuals; confiscate offence components; and deliver all of the foregoing together with the proper documentation to The Office of Public Prosecution”.

The police subject to judicial proceedings any persons who are acting in contravention to general ethics and good manners; making illegal protests; directing and encouraging others to depravation and to acquire bad habits; and producing and offering for sale audio-visual products violating general ethics and good manners, without the need to issue a complaint against such persons (P.V.S.K., Article 11).

People who disturb the public peace shall be apprehended by police and such persons shall be sent to judicial court (P.V.S.K., Article 14; P.V.S.N., Article 15).

The opening of vacation and entertainment places to the public, such as hotels, casinos, bars, theatres, cinemas and beaches is subject to permit to be granted by the highest civilian authority of the region after due investigation is made by the Police. A failure to produce a permit shall cause the location to be shut down by the Police (P.V.S.N., Article 8).

The police shall shut down (upon order from the relevant highest civilian authority) any and all places where gambling; drug use; prostitution; and games and presentations violating ethics, security and the policy of the State are allowed as long as absolute evidence supporting such activities is provided (P.V.S.N., Article 9).

The qualifications of persons to be employed in places that are open to the public and where alcohol sales are legal; the rules these persons must comply with; investigation to be made by the Police to grant permission for persons to be employed

in such locations; and the duty of the Police to supervise such places are all listed in the Law (P.V.S.N., Article 10-13).

Persons violating public order by drinking too much alcohol are sent by the Police to judicial court after drunkenness is established through a report from a qualified doctor (P.V.S.N., Article 14).

Police is responsible for regulating traffic and drivers who do not comply with the statute rules, to suspend driving licenses where drivers violate traffic rules, such as drinking and driving (P.V.S.N., Article 21).

Laws which deal with the duties and powers of the Police and are examined above are: the Law on Duties and Powers of the Police (P.V.S.K.) and the Code of Rules on Duties and Powers of the Police (P.V.S.N.), the Security Organisation Law (E.T.K.) and the Discipline Statute for Turkish National Police Organisation (E.O.D.T.), which covers the disciplinary rules of the Security Department that members must comply with. Besides these laws, regulations and statutes, many other general and private laws in Turkey impose other duties on members of the police force. On the other hand, it is quite natural that the police organisation has standard rules and that compliance and procedures are established with these laws and legislations. However, the current system is based on penalisation and reward principles, which are examined by Bass (1985) within the scope of transactional leadership behaviour. Police chiefs' establishment of a system based on penalisation and rewards in the context of displaying transactional leadership behaviour more dominantly will result in failure to benefit from transformational leadership advantages as mentioned in the transformational leadership section and therefore will lead to dissatisfaction of police officers and erosion of organisational culture; non-commitment of officers to their chiefs, to the organisation and to the colleagues; and

would also result in a decrease in the efficiency and effectiveness of the organisation. This subject is also mentioned in the problem statement of this study which states that rather than rewarding, police chiefs manage by penalisation (Zabun, 2000).

As mentioned above, police forces work under heavy conditions and with a heavy schedule. While working, the police officer is responsible for protecting both him/ herself and the personal rights of people, as well as maintain public order. On the other hand, the police must also be able to distinguish good from evil; treat both the victim and the guilty with respect; to conduct legal procedures that will eliminate damnification of the victim; and to arrest and send the guilty to receive due justice. The morale and motivation of the police are quite important in this sense, and can be kept at desired levels only if the chief officers show transformational leadership behaviours.

The following part of the study gives a detailed examination of police training and education system. The standards according to which police chiefs and officials are accepted into the organisation; the schools where training is provided to these police officers; the strengths weaknesses, and objectives of the police training system; and the role of transformational leadership in the police training system are discussed.

Transformation of the Police Education System of Turkey

The process of societal change, composed of cultural and civic dynamism and environmental factors, directs a society toward a continuous search for a more qualified educational system and a high-quality workforce. Education is one of the most important factors for the sustainable existence and development of a society. Education ensures social order on one hand and creates common behaviours among individuals by making them adopt social and cultural values on the other. This in turn enables the preservation and continuity of social unity and integrity. It also directs the desire of individuals to develop, improve and discover. From this point of view, education is a continuous, lifelong process.

Today, education is regarded as an ongoing activity throughout life. Many definitions have been given for education to date. According to one of these definitions, education is the sum of all processes throughout which individuals adopt different behaviour styles within the scope of the society they live in. Education is a wide and complex process in terms of time and place (Gurkan & Gokce, 1999, p.4). According to another definition, education turns the hidden powers of individuals (obtained from experiences gained by interaction with the environment in which such individuals live in) into reality (development of skills, behaviours and personality) (Alkan et al, 1995, 4).

Erturk (1972) presents following education definition on the basis of various other definitions: "Education is the process in which individuals make deliberate changes in their behaviours via their own life experiences". From this perspective, education aims at revealing and improving the potential powers of human beings. The common aspects of these definitions can be listed as follows: (1) Education is the process of changing behaviours. (2) Education must be performed in a planned and

deliberate way. (3) Deliberate behaviours can only be developed via the individual's own life.

The objective of education is to reveal the hidden powers of human beings and to develop these powers. As a result, individuals and the society composed of them are shaped in an uninterrupted process which is always directed towards betterment. Emphasizing this fact, Cilenti (1994) defines the contribution of education in human development as follows: "A human being turns, with the help of education, into a bio-cultural and social being that continuously interacts with its environment, ensures sustainability of the society and tries to find better ways to meet its needs. Education has the biggest share in this transformation process".

Rapid changes, observed in contemporary science and technology, have also changed social and individualistic needs; in turn, these developments and improvements have brought new duties and responsibilities for education. Today, education services are much wider and complex, and they are quite important and valuable for individuals and society (Alkan & Hacioglu, 1995). In the light of these points, all countries exert great efforts to improve their education systems and to meet the educational needs of their citizens.

Ways to access information and methods for learning and realising information are different for modern societies when compared with the ways and methods individuals followed in traditional societies (Alkan et al., 1995). Teaching-learning processes of education are created in an environment and a structure where basic elements composing these processes are organically integrated. The validity, reliability, efficacy and efficiency of this process are of the utmost importance. Unless education processes are created as per scientific requirements, it is not possible to talk about an efficient and effective education. Additionally, elements which make up the

processes and relationships between these processes must be structured within the scope of system integrity (Alkan & Hacıoğlu, 1995).

Education is not a magic key for all ideals; however, it is regarded as one of the basic tools for a more coherent and comprehensible development of a society and is thought to have positive contributions in decreasing poverty, exclusion, negligence, cruelty and war (Onal, 1997). Education is the process of acquiring competence and self-improvement for each and every individual without discrimination; and is one of the basic tools in establishing relations between individuals, groups and nations. The world is on the path of becoming a learning society. A learning society is based on three basic factors: obtaining, renewal and use of information (UNESCO, 1995, 5-12). These ideas show that traditional approaches in education gradually change and that many problems can be solved via education.

Education can also be defined as giving training on a specific science or art discipline; and as a way to help children and youngsters acquire the information, skills and understanding they need to take their place in social life and to develop their personality (Turkish Dictionary, 1998, p.677). Education, according to another definition, is a process that helps individuals adapt to societies in ways that are healthy and effective. The goal of improving the qualities and behaviours of human beings is found in education.

Kozlu (2000, p.40) examines the reasons behind the easy recovery of World War II wounds on the part of defeated states under three main headings: “education”, “education of women” and “political leadership”. The importance to be attached to education for the development of a country can easily be understood if we look at the priorities and the current status of the defeated states and countries of World War II. Again, states recovered and gained strength with the help of education after the Great

Asia Crisis. The reason behind the important economic role played by East Asian countries known as “Asian Tigers” is their investments in education. For instance, the only abundant resource Taiwan has is the intelligence of its people. 7,000 students go abroad annually (mostly to the USA) for education purposes (Kozlu, 2000, p.170). They turn the fruits of their educational investments into the economic development of their country.

The need to restructure police organisations according to the changing and developing needs of our time; to review the duties and roles of the police; to increase service quality; and to provide a new vision for police forces is felt more and more every day. Any activity not based on research, information and science cannot meet the needs at hand and, in turn, cannot have its intended result. Although implementation seems to come first in policing, the implementation itself must be supported with theory.

A virtual storm resulting from the information era has a potential to lead both the bureaucratic state and classic bureaucracy towards fundamental changes. All information is transferred into electronic media and thus each result can be observed and finalised faster (Menzir, 1998, p.14). This momentum results from the structure of information society requires and it enables private companies and individuals to renew themselves and to have a vision not “limited with horizon but going beyond it” as expressed by Ataturk; therefore, all public agencies should equip themselves with the requirements of our time and should work to integrate with the information era.

It is an undeniable fact that efforts exerted by the state to become an information society should cover the police organisation as well, acting as the fingers of the state and providing the “sense of touch”. In other words, it is necessary to present each effort (implemented by the state in its information-era vision) to the

society in a successful way; to ensure democratisation and respect for human rights; to turn all internal security organisations—particularly police forces—into individuals of an information society; and to turn the policing profession into an information-based service profession. To meet this need, any education given to individuals who will perform this duty must be at a sufficient and appropriate level.

Any fundamental improvement or a remedial action in an education system results in a change in other social, political and economic institutions. Change, described as “Modernization” by McClelland and as “Development” by Schumpeter, is adopted by individuals via putting the motivation “to Achieve” and “to Compete” into their heads (Tezcan, 1994, p.14). This, in turn, will enable police officers and chief officers to be informed professionals who have their own visions.

In the scope of current situations, formal evaluations and wide-spread approaches, we face a tragicomic police definition: “Police officers form a sub-group who have income below a mid-income level; who are less disciplined than military personnel; who are less informed than lawyers; have a lower information collection and production capacity than their partner intelligence institutions; are the lowest organ of execution according to high-level civil servants; are the most passive political element according to politicians; and offer “nothing” for high-level intellectual and capital groups”. Even the most positive definitions are secondary definitions, not giving “objective meaning” but comparing the similarities of the policing profession with other professions or noting the qualifications the policing profession should not have. It is seen that those who are most affected by such definitions are to be found within the police organisation or are police officers. In addition, such unauthorised polyphony gives the right to any unrelated person to make comments and give definitions. Superficial comments limited to the field of

commentator and subjective praises result in narrow solutions and so-called answers. Absorption of such world by police forces increases conflicts and unsolved issues and leads to unhealthy attitudes and actions (Gleizal, 2000).

The police force “manages people in France” while it “serves the people” in England (Gleizal, 2000). In Turkey, on the other hand, law makers (while listing service classes in the Public Employees Law) define the policing profession as a “Security Service Class”. However, it can be said that the French model is taken as a basis in the structuring of Law Enforcement Forces.

The “Police” concept fulfils a fundamental and specific function. It defines the role of a modern state. This thesis is clearly analysed in “Omnes er singulatim: towards the criticism of the political mind” by Michel Foucault. The police point out the areas in which the political and administrative government can intervene. This understanding forces German theoreticians to make a differentiation between a police state and a law state (Gleizal, 2000).

In Germany, administrative science is referred to as police science. One of the most important works is undoubtedly “Elements de la policie” by Von Justi. A special subject of the policing profession is defined as the social life of individuals. In his work, Von Justi starts by examining the “Property of State”; i.e, the State’s territory. He imagines the state with its preliminary appearance: how it is populated and who its residents are. He analyzes properties, professions and finally the behaviour of individuals in his field. “Police” is defined with clear statements: it is the structure that ensures an increase in the power of the state and the implementation of this power. M. Foucault clearly defines the “modern art of management” (which means improving these elements that constitute the lives of individuals, by increasing the

power of the state) and the “state rationality”. What is defined as the subject of the policing profession is “the public” (Gleizal, 2000).

The subject of “movement freedom of police” is examined in James Q. Wilson’s work where policing attitudes in eight different societies are compared. The police, who encounter situations where they have to preserve order rather than to implement the law, regard law as a source which does not tell them what to do, but what not to do. Egon Bittner attributes the problem not to “opposition of police” but to “creation of social opposition by the police”, and in his writings, similar developments are presented as ethno-methodological inspiration. E. Bittner shows that the concern of suburban police is not the implementation of law but the preservation of a relative public order. Thus, the arrests they make do not result from the implementation of criminal law or specific guilt of a person but from the practical need to respond to a situation and, in this scope, the law functions as a justification. Peter Manning, who tries to correct the wrong image of police as “agents of the fight against crime”, expresses similar opinions. We can take as an example the original book of William Ker Muir Jr., the political scientist, who examines from Weber’s point of view the moral representation of police who are in charge of a violent monopoly over a specific territory. Finally, we can note the book by Lawrence W. Sherman about police fraud and the book written by Garry T. Marx about the secret working style of police organisations (Gleizal, 2000).

Briefly, police forces are regarded in Turkey as the force working to ensure an increase in the power of the state and the implementation of this power to the highest extent.

Social change means a change in social organisations and human relationships in the context of these organisations. The adoption of an education model that keeps

up with social changes and the developments that meet the needs of the society is a must. Therefore, it can be said that “security forces, who must adopt respect for human rights as a lifestyle, will turn into informed police officers who uphold a vision for, and embrace the “information-era” learning style, in line with the democratic structuring of the state”.

Police forces are armoured forces included in the security service class, who preserve public order and security, ensure equal and fair implementation of laws, and perform duties given by law and regulations (Yasar, 1997).

The first article of the Law on the Duties and Authority of the Police (which deals with the authority and power given to Turkish police) states that “the police force preserves the public order, as well as the security of public life, persons and their savings and dwellings in the community. The officer ensures protection of honour, life, and property of the people and the comfort of the public. The officer also helps any one who demands such help, be it children or the homeless and anyone else in need.”

Police officers also have a private life, with a family and children, and they must spare some time for them as well. Their professionalism must extend to their private matters and personal conduct. Police officers must be loyal to their state but never be dependent on it (Dokmen, 2002). They must take responsibility for their actions and do whatever is needed but not at the risk of personal and family detriment. For instance, when a person utters insulting words against the state in a social event, the police should not behave as if they have been personally insulted. If an officer behaves in this way, it shows not the loyalty to the state, but a dependence on it. A loyal police officer (rather than a dependent one) does only what his job requires.

Such real and professional attitudes and a sense of responsibility can only be imposed via education.

As U.S. president Franklin Roosevelt stated, "...people working with soil know well. If you plant a pine seedling it takes 25-30 years on average to grow; if you plant a pumpkin it takes a minimum of 3-4 months... it is a difficult and time-consuming activity to raise a human being. What is important here is what you expect from the person you raise and what he will be ..." (Aytac & Bilir, 1998, p.1260). Oguz addresses the same issue stating, "The marginal value of making an investment in people is three times larger than that of the investment made in machines. Therefore, enterprises must allocate sufficient budgets for training their personnel if they want to think about their future" (Oguz, 1998, p.10). Mikhail Gorbachov, stating that they were late to identify this situation in the Russian context, says: "...we are among the latest ones who have understood that the most valuable commodity is information..." (Karaman, 1998, p. 239).

The qualifications and quality of individuals constituting a society or an organisation will determine the quality of said organisation/institution. Effective realization of duties by the institutions depends mostly on continuous improvement of the qualified training given to its employees. The following points should be clearly and meticulously underlined in the fundamental education of a police force: Who should provide education to police? How should the trainers be educated? What is the timeline of the formal education process? How much of this education should be given at school as theoretical education? How much of it should be given as applied training? Who should the trainers, supervisors and evaluators be during the applied training to be given during professional life? What kind of location is best suited for the education? What kind of fundamental education should be provided? (Karaman,

2000, p.62). These questions should be clearly answered in terms of police education. Changes to be made in these areas should be realized as soon as possible.

The approach that says, “the one who wants and knows how to teach should teach” is more dominant in educational sciences today when compared to the approach that says, “the one who knows should teach”. Which information should be taught with which technique and method falls completely under the responsibility of the teacher. Therefore, we believe that teachers should be equipped with both field knowledge and pedagogic formation (Gokce and Semiz, 1998, p.7).

Education is comprehensive, continuous and multi-dimensional in terms of time and place. Expectations of teachers, parents and students are important in training, as well as time and place factors. Every experience, as well as information, is to be emphasized in education. Training is, in other words, controlled, planned, supported and programmed. The interactions of students and teachers and the environment they provide is of great importance. In training, each learning experience must be aimed towards educational purposes (Varis, 1998, p.18).

Education is used as a valid tool to ensure the happiness of a nation and individuals and it gains gradual importance (Kullu, 1990, p.38). A happy and hopeful nation with no doubt about its future depends on the persons constituting it.

A police force reflects a portrait quite different from other institutions in terms of its role in society. It is nearly identical with the state. Police are the law implementing organ, as well as the supervisor of lawful implementation. It is the administering power of the state at this point. Laws turn into reality in the hands of implementers. Even the best laws harm society in the hands of poor implementers. A good law implementer is an educated person who deeply understands the law. We encounter a two-sided structure here. One side is the authority implementing the

laws—namely police forces—and the other side is the society responsible for complying with the laws. Therefore, the police sometimes confront the members of society. What clashes here is not “the right” and “the wrong” but “the authority” and “the society”. It is police forces, the law implementers, who are mostly affected in this situation (Kullu, 1990, p.41). The education of any police force turns out to be very important, particularly at this point. It can be achieved only via an empathic approach and thereby be a balancing factor; to give positive messages about this issue to the society they serve; to understand the society; and to show that they really understand such society. This can be done only through successful education given to police forces. Quality is important for service as well. High-quality service can be rendered only via high-quality education.

In this rapidly globalising world, societies affect each other in a closer way; and national values and understandings are gradually replaced with universal concepts such as human rights, democracy and social justice.

Education, which has played an important role in the globalisation process, reflects itself in the transition from an industrial society to an information society; from manpower-based functionality to high-tech functionality; from national economies to a world economy; from a central management approach to a local management approach; from representative democracy to participatory democracy; and from a hierarchical structure to an organisational structure (Tutar, 2000). All of these developments result in a change in qualification expectations from the individuals.

All social systems must renew themselves and respond to changing circumstances and needs so as to continue their efficiency. Institutions that cannot adapt to changing circumstances or realize required restructuring often collapse.

Failing to continue one's function eliminates the reason for the existence of a system.

However, social systems have the required dynamism to renew themselves.

Institutions that can realize the challenges arising from changing circumstances and the new roles that arise ensure the necessary structuring and will sustain their continued existence. Moreover, institutions that can foresee the tendencies of the near future can even lead the change (Ozden, 1999). This situation leads societies to a continuous search for a way to ensure a more secure and comfortable future. This rapid change process results in an increase in the expectation level of societies.

Today, one of the most pressing problems of developed countries is to continuously render a high-quality methodology of required production and services. To render services that meet the needs of the modern age (by taking into consideration national and international developments), institutions and agencies must continuously educate their personnel and adapt education to changing conditions. The importance attached to education is decisive in the development of a society and its compatibility in the international arena. The education process turns out to be an indispensable part of overall quality and efficiency (Gokce, 2001).

The quality of services rendered and of the products produced by institutions and agencies is proportional to the quality of the workforce available. As long as institutions educate their personnel; improve and renew said education; and equip these people with new information, skills and behaviours, the individual personnel can be efficient and effective to that extent (Gokce, 2001). This is particularly important for individuals and institutions that are in close relationship with society. Existing educational systems in modern societies encounter many problems due to their traditional structure during this change process. When we observe from the standpoint of modern-day requirements, we see unmet education demands: over-

crowded classrooms; unequal distribution in terms of facility, tools, social justice and opportunities; unmet individual differences; non-utilisation of existing resources; the need to increase efficiency, effectiveness and quality in educational applications; high costs; and gap between theory and implementation are among the basic problems of current education systems (Semerci, 1999). Desired results have not been achieved from the attempts to find solutions for these problems on the basis of a traditional education approach.

Responsibilities within the police force are gradually increasing and becoming more difficult. This steady increase will gain some momentum in the future with the rapid increase observed within administrative and managerial segments of the police force. The requirements of our era stipulate that a perfect education be given to police personnel. Each member of the police force must be more informed and more brilliant than any of the criminals to be apprehended.

An increase in the quality of security services is dependent upon the level of education of each officer. Due to the fact that many police training programmes are based on traditional and conservative training methods and have not been redirected toward methods which are more scientific and outcome-based, targeted training objectives have not been achieved. Many graduates of police academies and schools experience difficulties while performing their duties. One reason is that some lessons are taught and learned solely via memorisation. After graduation, new officers find little or no benefit from most of these classes because they are either not applicable to daily police work or the classes offered are helpful only in unique situations that are not useful for every police officer (Yurdaer, 1999). It is necessary to fill the gaps between theory and application so as to prepare students for professional life and to build necessary skills.

Deficiencies in the Turkish training system can also be seen in the national police training institutions. It has been observed that some of the police officers working in rural units of a Security Department do not know how to disassemble and re-assemble their weapons, or even how to use them; how to communicate via radio and telephone as expected; keep up with the social requirements of daily life and organise their subordinates. On the contrary, they are engaged in conflicts with their associates (Kullu, 1990). This problem is related to the lack of intellectual stimulation and behaviour of the leaders who are faced with the problematic subordinates. It is among the transformational leaders' responsibilities that the subordinates take the necessary training and education.

The role and importance of qualified manpower in development is quite clear and absolute. Rapid changes and developments result in a considerable change in the qualifications of people to be trained. It becomes more and more difficult to find solutions for the problems of today and the future by using the attitudes of the past. Therefore, it becomes necessary to educate employees at a quality and quantity required to meet the needs of both the present and the future. This is particularly important for persons and organisations which are doing public service and who are in close relationship with society (Gokce & Semiz, 1999).

The qualifications of persons constituting a social institution or an organisational structure are the most effective factor in the determination of the success or failure of said institution or structure. In other words, institutions can render services in parallel with the quality of manpower they have. The effective performance of duties by the agencies and institutions concerned depends mostly on the quality and continuous improvement of the education given to its staff.

Similar conditions apply for the Turkish Police as well. Police forces that are in continuous contact and interaction with the members of a society have critical and vital duties, such as ensuring the security of life and property. Knowledge, capabilities and behaviours of police forces will determine the level of interaction to be created with society while performing these duties. High-quality behaviours exhibited by the police will not only increase the trust given them but also enable the strengthening and improvement of the institution they are affiliated with. This situation, in turn, makes it obligatory to provide continuous education to the police force before and during professional life and stipulates that police should adopt new behaviours according to emerging social developments. Only in this way can it be possible to create a sound and strong police force and to ensure that services required by society are rendered at the highest standards.

Education Objectives

The first objective of the TNP is to educate its personnel through pre-service and in-service training in line with the general objectives of the Turkish National Education programme and the principles and reforms of the founder of the modern nation of Turkey, Ataturk; to increase efficiency and to improve the quality of services by increasing police force knowledge and capabilities in terms of their duties, authorities and responsibilities; and to prepare personnel for higher positions (Turkish National Police Organisation/ Education, 2007). Police officers who are aware of their own abilities and potential; strive to read, search, and examine casework to improve themselves; have enough courage and the capability to remedy defects of the system; speak a foreign language; are good at computer operation; and are specialised in a

specific field must be educated so as to turn a Security Department into an world-class institution in the 21st century (Alkan, 2000).

The second objective of the National Turkish Police is to develop an education model based on an application of the basic principles of education science, with the aim of establishing an effective and efficient service approach for the new millennium, based on respect for human rights, modernity, tolerance, standard behaviour models, and standard application procedures.

A final objective of the police training system is to turn central education units and pre-service and in-service training institutions into organisations that detect, analyse and create solutions for the educational challenges of the Security Department and can develop and implement projects to this end (Training Department Briefing, 1999, 20-21). Therefore, the doors of a Security Department should be opened to academic research in order to turn “the policing profession” into a discipline (Training Department Briefing, 1999, 20). Personnel conducting scientific research toward meeting the needs of a Security Department should be encouraged and the required support should be given (Training Department Briefing, 1999, 21). Educational activities organised according to the above-mentioned objective are composed of two (2) main parts: pre-service training and in-service training.

Table-7, Organisational Structure of the Turkish Police Educational System,

Name of the Institution	Duties
Police Academy	The university composed of the Institute of Security Sciences provides post-graduate education; the Faculty of Security Sciences provides four-year university education; and Police Vocational High Schools (PMYO's) provide entry-level education. Meets the need for high- and mid-level chief police officers in a Security Department, Undertakes PMYO student selection procedures and create PMYO entrance examinations.
Faculty Of Security Sciences	Provides a four-year university education to meet high- and mid-level chief police officer requirements of a Security Department.
Institute of Security Sciences	Provides post graduate and doctorate programmes to meet professional expert personnel requirements of a Security Department.
Police College	Serves as a source for faculties and higher education institutions in the branches deemed necessary by the Police Academy and Security Department with the aim of meeting high- and mid-level chief police officer requirements in a Security Department.
PMYO Directorates	Provides basic vocational training, awareness and discipline to the graduates of high schools or their equivalent with the aim of meeting police officer requirements of the Turkish Police.
Police Vocational Training Centres (POMEM)	Provides basic vocational training, awareness and discipline to university graduates with the aim of meeting requirements for police officers in the Turkish Police.
Training Department	(In line with the education policy of the Turkish National Police Organisation) Detects every kind and level of educational need of a Security Department; prepares compliance to annual training plans; ensures implementation of these plans; monitors, evaluates and improves these plans; cooperates with other institutions in terms of training; and sends personnel abroad for training purposes.
Directorates of Police Training Centres	Performs each action required for organising every kind of in-service training activity aimed at all police personnel (chief police officers, police officers) employed in the Central and Rural Departments of a Security Department.

(Turkish National Police / Education, 2007).

Pre-service Trainings

This section will examine the pre-service training given in Police Colleges, the Police Academy and the Faculties of Security Sciences and Police Vocational High Schools affiliated with the Police Academy.

Police College

The Police College is an educational/training institution (where official uniforms are a must), affiliated with the Turkish National Police Organisation and was founded to serve as a source for Police Academies (which educate high- and mid-level chief police officers for their Security Departments), and for the Faculties and Vocational High Schools in the branches established by the Security Department (Police College, 2007). The Police College trains and educates student residents in compliance with science, social sciences and foreign language curricula of high schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education.

The Ankara Police College was founded on 15.06.1938 at the Police Institute in Anittepe with a directive from Ataturk to provide education and training at the high school level. The educational period was increased to four years by adding a preparation class in 1979, taking into consideration the increasing need for foreign languages. With the advent of preparation classes in Secondary Education Institutions (mandated by the Ministry of National Education in 2005), the Directorate of Police College also created a preparation class and made a transition to four-year education. The curriculum was enhanced and an education programme was instituted at Anatolian High Schools in the science field. A Police College was founded in the Bursa Province by Cabinet Decision No 2004/7935 in 19.09.2004 and education began in 2005 with 74 students.

Aim of the Foundation: To turn Police College students into individuals who are devoted primarily to Ataturk's principles and reforms and Turkish nationality; as well as individuals who respect human rights, love their country, are aware of their duties and responsibilities for the good of their state, and work for the indivisible integrity of their state (Police College, 2007).

In addition, provision is made for students to grow as individuals who will contribute to the well-being of society by ensuring that they become accustomed to professional discipline in their early ages; that they grow as individuals who are healthy and sound in terms of body, mind and emotions; and that they obtain knowledge, skills and abilities within the framework of cooperative working (Police College, 2007).

Sources of Students and Graduates: Candidates graduated from primary schools affiliated with the Ministry of National Education who are eligible for application and who pass the selection examination held annually constitute the student source for Police Colleges. Police College graduates start working under the Turkish National Police Organisation with the title of "sergeant" at chief officer level after they complete their education in Police Academies or in the required branches of the faculties concerned.

Type and Duration of Education: Police Colleges train recruits for four years in total. Programmes in mathematics and science in Anatolian High Schools form the prerequisites for classes in Police Colleges. No vocational lessons are given except for basic police training (Police College, 2007).

Police Academy

The Police Academy is a higher education and training institution having scientific autonomy and is comprised of faculties, institutes and vocational high schools; is established to meet officer, chief officer and supervisor needs within a Security Department; provides education at the level of associate's degree and university and post-graduation degrees; and renders scientific research, publication and consultant services (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

The Police Academy was established with the name of "Police Institute" in 1937 as a one-year in-service high school in order to educate mid- and high-level supervisors for a Security Department. It was included in the scope of two-year high schools in 1940-1941 and in the scope of three-year general high schools in 1962-1963 with education and training standards determined by the Board of Education under the Ministry of National Education (Balci, 2003). The duration of education in the Police Institute was increased from three years to four years in 1980 and its name was changed to "Police Academy" in 1984 when it became a higher education institution offering university-level education and training (Balci, 2003).

As per Police Higher Education Law No 4652 published in the Official Gazette dated May 9th 2001, the Directorate of Police Academy for four-year university education has been formed into a university by enlarging its education staff, is comprised of the Institute of Security Sciences (for post-graduate education), Faculty of Security Sciences (for four year university education), and Police Vocational High Schools (Police High Education Law, 2001).

Aim of Foundation: As a higher education institution comprising Faculties, Institutes and Vocational High Schools, its aim is to meet officer, chief officer and supervisor level requirements of a Security Department; to give education at the

associate's degree, university and post-graduate degree level; and to render scientific research, publication and consultancy services (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

While achieving these objectives, it ensures that students adopt the theory and practice of nationalism in line with Ataturk's principles and reforms; a service attitude based on respect for democratic, secular, and social state where supremacy of law is accepted; professional values; and the spirit and will to strengthen national solidarity and integrity.

Organisational Structure: The Directorate of the Police Academy is composed of the Faculty of Security Sciences, Institute of Security Sciences, and Police Vocational High Schools (Turkish National Police Academy/ prime ministry, 2007).

Faculty of Security Sciences

The Faculty of Security Sciences provides high-level chief officer and supervisor candidates of a Security Department with a university education in the light of professional, legal, social and cultural lessons with applied training. Faculty graduates start working in a Security Department with the title of “sergeant”.

Aim of the foundation: To educate high-level chief officer and supervisor candidates of a Security Department with a university education in the light of professional, legal, social and cultural lessons with applied training (Turkish National Police Academy/ prime ministry, 2007).

Source of Students and Graduation: the following students are accepted for the university education given in the faculty:

- a) Graduates of the Police College,

b) Graduates of a general high school, a men's technical training school, a women's technical training school, and schools of trade and tourism, if required.

c) Foreign nationality graduates of high school or an equivalent school, on the basis of bilateral agreements to be reached with the states concerned (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

Moreover, students from various faculties of universities are accepted to be educated on behalf of the Security Department with the aim of employing expert personnel in various departments of the Security Department. Approval from the Ministry of Internal Affairs is sought to accept students of foreign nationalities to the Faculty of Security Sciences according to the bilateral agreements to be signed with the concerned states (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007). Faculty graduates start working in the Security Department with the title of "sergeant".

Type and Duration of Education: University education is provided for graduates of the Police College, general high schools, men's technical training schools, women's technical training schools, schools on trade and tourism; and preparation and university education is provided for the students with foreign nationality. Duration of university education is four years and an additional one year is given to students failing to complete their education in a four-year period.

At-work Training (Internship Training) and Applied Training (CAMP):

At-Work Training (Internship Training): Students of the Faculty of Security Sciences who have successfully completed semester education and applied training and have passed to fourth class--as well as the students of Police Vocational High Schools who have passed from the first class to second class--will be subject to

applied professional training, at their own discretion, during the summer vacation in provinces and districts found appropriate.

During the internship training it is ensured that students learn the procedures about all services and adopt the qualifications of chief officers.

Applied Training (Camp): The curriculum must be completed in five years. Each student is subject to orientation training before his/her first year in the faculty. The students passing from the first class to the second and from the second class to the third, as well as students who repeat these classes, are subject to an Applied Camp Training in Aydin-Didim Applied Training Centre Facilities to improve their professional knowledge and capabilities.

In applied training and in detection and implementation of programmes, the aim is to ensure that students are equipped with a will to remain calm under difficult conditions and to maintain both physical and mental capabilities at the highest level. They must preserve this capability as well as their health. Deficiencies in applied training noticed during the education year are remedied here. A training atmosphere is created to impose professional discipline, a high regard for friendship and professionalism, and the seriousness and honour the uniform invokes.

Social, Sportive and Cultural Activities: Many social, recreational and cultural activities are organised in the Faculty of Security Sciences to keep spirits high and maintain the motivation of students. To this end, student clubs are opened for the students to enjoy their free time within the campus and clubhouses are provided for weekends and on official holidays. In addition, theatre, cinema, conference, symposium and similar events held on out-of-lesson hours contribute to the right use of free time by the students.

Faculty and students actively play sports and participate in various sports leagues. Athlete-students are allowed to participate in special inter-university, inter-regional and inter-club competitions organised during the year. In addition, some competitions covered by these inter-university sports activities are organised by the Police Academy.

University education is focused on theory more than implementation and on cognitive behaviour more than psychomotor behaviour. Application-oriented education begins in the fifth and sixth years of medical school. Likewise, attorney and magistracy internships following graduation from law school can be evaluated in this scope. Graduates of a military academy are also given one-year training in branch schools before they begin professional duties.

Chief police officers and supervisors must know about policing applications as they are actively involved in the process. When studying the Education-Training Regulations of the Faculty of Security Sciences, it is observed that application-oriented training is only given to those students passing from the third to the fourth class in the current-year summer vacation for a period to be defined by the Turkish National Police Organisation.

Faculties and High Schools (FYO)

FYO, which was organised as a Bureau affiliated to the Training Department, (as per “Regulation on Student Education in Higher Education Institutions of Turkish National Police” - issued on the basis of Article 27 under Law No 3518 covered by Security Directorate Law No 3201), re-organised as per Article 2 of the same law and entered into force following its publication in Official Gazette No 29208, dated 27.06.1989. It has since been affiliated with the Directorate of the Police Academy

and has turned into the FYO Branch Directorate under law No 4652 of 25.04.2001 on the restructuring of the Directorate of the Police Academy. The "FYO student" statement covers the students educated in the required branches of the state universities in Ankara on behalf of the Turkish National Police Organisation. All education-training expenses such as the costs regarding examinations, laboratory equipment, application requirements, fees and books (the costs of summer school and make-up examinations excluded); accommodation costs; and bed and board expenditures are met by the Academy Directorate. Students are subject to a minimum of one applied training camp as academy students. Students who successfully complete applied training camp and graduate from the faculty are appointed to the title of "Sergeant" and assigned to various departments by the Turkish National Police Organisation.

Police Vocational High Schools (PMYO)

Police Vocational High Schools (PMYO) are free room-and-board educational/training institutions (where an official uniform is a must) and were affiliated with the Police Academy under the Police Higher Education Law of April 25th, 2001 and which gives a two-year education towards an association's degree.

Aim of Foundation: With the legal, social and cultural lessons and activities it provides, PMYO aims to turn students into police officers who respect human rights; are devoted to the principles and reforms of Ataturk and to Ataturk's theory of nationality; adopt national, ethical, moral and cultural values of the Turkish Nation; are aware of the pride, honour and conscience upheld by policing profession; guard the respect due the police uniform; have a healthy and balanced body, mind and spirit;

and adopt ethical and emotional behaviours (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

Source of Students: Police Vocational High Schools accept students who pass the Student Selection Examination (OSS) made by the Student Selection and Placement Centre (OSYM); as well as students who pass a special ability examination administered by the Ministry of Internal Affairs for the graduates of general high schools, male technical training schools, female technical training schools, and schools of trade and tourism (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

Type and Duration of Education: Education in Police Vocational High Schools requires two years on the basis of a pass-fail grading system. First class students are given orientation training for at least 15 days before the first education year starts. Applied training is given in the period between the two education years as per the schedule to be organised by the Police Academy (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007). Students who successfully complete their education in Police Vocational High Schools are assigned to various units of a Security Department with the title of "candidate police officer". There are 23 Police Vocational High Schools throughout the country. These high schools are listed in Table 8.

Table-8, Police Vocational High Schools,

NO	NAME OF HIGH SCHOOL
1	A. Gaffar OKKAN Police Vocational High School (Diyarbakir)
2	Afyon Police Vocational High School
3	Aksaray Police Vocational High School
4	Balikesir Police Vocational High School
5	Bayburt Police Vocational High School
6	Elazig Zulfu AGAR Police Vocational High School
7	Erzurum Police Vocational High School
8	Erzincan Police Vocational High School
9	Gaziantep Police Vocational High School
10	Hatay Police Vocational High School
11	Kastamonu Police Vocational High School
12	Kayseri Police Vocational High School
13	Kemal SERHADLI Police Vocational High School (Adana)
14	Konya Eregli Police Vocational High School
15	Malatya Police Vocational High School
16	Nazilli Police Vocational High School
17	Nigde Police Vocational High School
18	Rustu UNSAL Police Vocational High School (Izmir)
19	Samsun 19 Mayıs Police Vocational High School
20	Siirt Police Vocational High School
21	Sukru BALCI Police Vocational High School (Istanbul)
22	Trabzon Police Vocational High School
23	Yozgat Police Vocational High School

(Turkish National Police / Education, 2007)

In addition to these schools, Istanbul Adile Sadullah Mermerci, Istanbul Etiler, Izmir Bornova and Aydin Police Vocational High School, which are affiliated with the Directorate of the Police Academy, serve as Police Vocational Education Centres (POMEM) as per Article 96 of Security Department Law.

Institute of Security Sciences

An institute was established as per Police Higher Education Law of April 25th, 2001. Post-graduation programmes have the same names as Post Graduate Disciplines under the Institute. However, a post-graduate programme with a name different than that of the related Institute Discipline can be opened with a proposal from the Director of Police Academy and a Higher Education Council decision. To take a post-graduate

education/ training programme, it is not obligatory to complete university education in the discipline related to the programme concerned. Based on a decision from the Management Board, graduates of various related programmes can apply for post-graduate and doctorate programmes of the Institute (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

Aim of the Foundation: To provide post-graduate education/training in related disciplines; to educate lecturers for a Security Department; to conduct scientific studies, research and publish scientific work; to render academic consultancy services; to organise scientific meetings, symposiums, conferences and seminars; to give training/education to security personnel in order to provide them with expertise and management missions in the areas they need; and to organise courses and certificate programmes (Turkish National Police Academy, 2007).

Police Vocational Education Centres (POMEM)

Aim of Foundation: POMEM was founded to give professional education and training with the aim of providing police officers for a Security Department, by taking opinions from the Ministry of Finance, Under-Secretariat of State Planning Organisation and State Personnel Administration, with a proposal from the Ministry of Internal Affairs and Cabinet Decisions, working under the Education Department (Regulation on Entrance into Police Vocational Education Centres).

Police Vocational Education Centres educate students on the basis of the following principles:

- a) To be devoted to principles and reforms of Ataturk,
- b) To be sensitive to the indivisible integrity of the State with its Counties and Nation,

- c) To be aware of and perform the duties and responsibilities of the Republic of Turkey,
- d) To adopt national, ethical, moral and cultural values of the Turkish Nation, be proud of the Turkish nationality and bear the resultant responsibility,
- e) To give priority to social benefit rather than personal benefit and have a deep love for his/her family, country and nation,
- f) To have scientific, professional and technical knowledge and the capability to contribute to improvements of a Security Department,
- g) To be aware of the pride, honour and conscience required by the policing profession and to be able to preserve the respect due the police uniform,
- h) To be able to analyse and solve problems to be encountered during professional services as per the principles of the Republic specified in the Constitution,
- i) To adopt common material and spiritual values of a professional culture,
- j) To have a healthy and balanced body, mind, spirit and ethic and to adopt balanced emotional behaviours,
- k) To exhibit required professional manners and behaviours in a determined and conscious way in order to render services in accordance to the law and thus achieve the desired outcome,
- l) To conscientiously undertake responsibilities and be able to complete duties successfully,
- m) To have an positive attitude toward the Republic of Turkey such as to comply with its Country and Nation,
- n) To respect human rights,
- o) To be sensitive in police-public relations,

p) To be devoted to the ethical rules of the policing profession (Regulation on Entrance into Police Vocational Education Centres).

Student Source: A student must be a graduate of at least a four-year higher education institution or a graduate of higher education institutions abroad whose equivalence is accepted by the Council of Higher Education (Regulation on Entrance into Police Vocational Education Centres). There are a total of nine Police Vocational Education Centres nationwide in Turkey. These centres are shown in Table 9.

Table-9, Police Vocational Education Centres

NO	NAME	PROVINCE
1	Arnavutkoy POMEM	Istanbul
2	Etiler POMEM	Istanbul
3	Adile Sadullah Mermerci POMEM	Istanbul
4	Bornova POMEM	Izmir
5	Eskisehir POMEM	Eskisehir
6	Cankiri POMEM	Cankiri
7	Merzifon POMEM	Amasya
8	Aydin POMEM	Aydin
9	Bilecik POMEM	Bilecik

(Turkish National Police / Education, 2007)

Etiler, Adile Sadullah, Bornova and Aydin Police Vocational Education Centres were Police Vocational High Schools before being turned into Police Vocational Education Centres with the approval of the Minister.

In-service Training

Police forces that are in continuous contact and interaction with society have extremely critical and vital duties such as ensuring the security of life and property. The knowledge, capabilities and behaviours of the police forces will determine the level of interaction with society and the ensuing relationship that develops while performing these duties. Exemplary behaviours exhibited by police will not only increase the trust placed on them, but also enable the strengthening and improvement of the institution to which they are affiliated. This situation, in turn, makes it

obligatory to provide continuous education to the police before and during the professional life and stipulates that police should adopt new behaviours in accordance to emerging social developments (Gunay, 2002). Only in this way it can be possible to create a sound and strong police force and to ensure that services required by society are rendered at a high quality level.

Objectives of In-Service Training: In service training regulates the rules and procedures relating to objectives, principles, implementation, evaluation and management of the education to be given to Security Department personnel to enable them to acquire knowledge, skills and behaviours required by their profession; to increase service efficiency; and to prepare them for higher positions (TNP, In-Service Education Regulations, 2003).

In-service training is given with the aim of training personnel employed in each level of a Security Department (first taking into consideration service qualifications of the Security Department and the General Education Plan for Civil Servants and investment plans) The training must have the following objectives:

- a) To ensure adaptation of personnel to changes and developments occurring in service due to changing conditions;
- b) To ensure the acquisition of knowledge, skills, application abilities and behaviours by the personnel, required due to developments and changes observed in the field of service;
- c) To ensure uniformity in the application of basic principles and techniques of service;
- d) To improve professional competence and understanding of personnel;
- e) To ensure improved efficiency in management and implementation;

f) To meet specialised personnel needs of the Security Department and to be employed in various service branches;

g) To fill the gaps of pre-service training in terms of professional competence;

h) To ensure adaptation of personnel who have taken pre-service training in the area in which they are employed;

i) To facilitate adaptation of personnel whose service unit is changed to a new service unit;

j) To encourage personnel to make implementation-oriented scientific research;

k) To ensure promotion of skilled and ambitious personnel to higher offices;

l) To prepare personnel for high-level offices (TNP, In-Service Training Regulations, 2003).

Principles to be followed in in-service training:

The following principles are followed in order to achieve the above-mentioned objectives in order to give in-service training at the desired level and to obtain the desired results: a) In-service training activities shall be stated in the month of December of each year within the Annual Training Programme prepared by the Training Department in accordance with the service requirements of the Security Department; b) A chief officer at any level shall be responsible for the training and efficiency improvement of all the police officers in his unit; c) Chief officers, managers who are assigned duties in the scope of in-service training according to Regulation, and training officers shall take every measure and make every contribution to ensure the attendance of personnel who are subject to training and to ensure efficient implementation of training services; d) It shall have the aim of

establishing communication, cooperation and coordination in the Security Department and to minimise difficulties encountered in management; e) Venues of training activities shall comply with and be organised as per training requirements; f) In-service training plan, programme and activities shall be organised so as not to interrupt basic duties of Central and Rural Departments of the Turkish National Police; g) Equal opportunity shall be provided for all personnel, on the basis of priorities; h) In-service training programmes shall be continuously evaluated and improved; i) In-service training shall be continuously organised in line with the objectives set in Article 5 and according to the needs of the Security Department; j) Attendance shall be required for the personnel whose participation in the training is deemed appropriate; k) Each personnel shall be subject to training depending on skills and the service requirements; l) Questionnaires, observations, examinations, interviews and other evaluation methods shall be used during or at the end of in-service training to detect if results expected from said training are obtained or not; m) Personnel subject to in-service training shall be employed in offices appropriate for the skills they adopt during training and based on the purpose of training; n) Cooperation shall be arranged for educational purposes with all related agencies and organisations; documents, information and trainers be exchanged; o) Training shall be based on plans and programmes to be prepared on the basis of present and future objectives and the needs of the Security Department (TNP, In-Service Training Regulations, 2003).

Training Department

Duty: a) To establish the coordination required for in/out-of-institution education and the overseas education of Security Department Personnel; b) To define the training programme subject areas of in-service training; department personnel to be given training; selection criteria of trainers; venues and dates of training; tools and materials to be used in training; and techniques and methods of training; c) To develop in-service training policies; to turn these policies into plans and programmes; and, if required, to monitor their implementation according to the training needs of personnel employed in Central and Rural departments of the Turkish National Police in coordination with units; d) To evaluate training programmes of the Central Directorate units preparing in-service training; to establish the required coordination with the related units for implementation of the programmes found appropriate; and to fulfil other duties related to training, as per the provisions of the “Regulation on Establishment, Duties and Working Principles of Training Department” (TNP, In-Service Training Regulations, 2003).

Objective: The objective of our Department is to organise training programmes with the aim of training Security Department personnel as per the general objectives of the Turkish National Education system; raising interest of personnel to improve working methods and systems; and increasing the dynamism of personnel (Turkish National Police/education, 2007)

Vision: The vision of the Education Department is to develop a department which: a) gives training to Security Department personnel so as to increase the quality and efficiency of the security service rendered to citizens; b) prepares training plans and programmes in accordance with the needs, interests and expectations of the Security Department; c) ensures a minimum of 80 percent satisfaction from the

training programmes implemented; d) makes personnel acquire (at the highest level) the required knowledge, skills and behaviours given in training, e) gives policing education at the international level; f) ensures rapid adaptation of Security Department personnel to the changing conditions of the world, g) gives the opportunity of in- and out-of-institution training and overseas training for Security Department personnel; h) conducts research in the home country and abroad regarding the use of advanced techniques and methods in the field of in-service training, trains personnel who train others, and gives training via these educated trainers; and i) ensures that trainers provide equal an distribution of training for all Security Department personnel (Turkish National Police/education, 2007)

Mission: The mission of the Training Department is to: develop an understanding which ensures that the training needs of the Security Department are met at the highest level; prepare and implement training programmes on the basis of changing and developing issues; turn continuous improvement into a lifestyle; and regard each person as the most important factor. In this frame, our Department shall have a mission which: a) deems human rights and freedoms as indispensable; b) deems meeting the needs of individuals and society as basic duty; c) ensures a consensus against crime in order to create a secure social life; d) improves the qualifications of its personnel according to the changing and increasing needs of the modern age; e) cooperates with scientific organisations and NGO's; and f) is involved in continuous training activities (Turkish National Police/education, 2007).

According to Semiz and Gokce (1998), the Training Department should exert efforts to train police officers and chief police officers who say "... We were not exposed to such situations in education institutions. What will we do now? There

exists nothing in the law about this situation. How can I solve this problem with the technical knowledge I have? I have done everything I can, what else can I do?..."

Police Training Centres

Training centres were established per the Police Higher Education Law of April 25th, 2001. Initial activity, in conjunction with the Training Department, under the "Regulation on Establishment, Duties and Working of Directorates of Police Training Centres affiliated to Turkish National Police " became law with Ministry Approval on 18.03.2002 (TNP Police Educational Plan, 2003).

The objectives of in-service training to be given per this Regulation are listed (taking into consideration service qualifications of the Security Department, the General Education Plan for Civil Servants and investment plans) as follows: a) to maximize the interest of personnel in the service by increasing their knowledge, skills and efficiency and to prepare them for higher positions by improving the quality of service via education; b) to inform personnel about professional duties, authorities, responsibilities and rights; c) to improve the entrepreneurship and self-learning skills of personnel and to make them adopt behaviours appropriate for modern management principles; d) to make them acquire knowledge, skills and behaviours brought by innovations and developments in the field of education; e) to improve understanding of personnel in terms of professional development and change; f) to provide the opportunity for ambitious and competent personnel to get promoted; g) to increase self-reliance of personnel by increasing their motivation and morale and to ensure their personal satisfaction; and h) to ensure the personal and social development of the personnel (TNP Police Education Centres Establishment Regulations, 2002).

The following principles should be applied with respect to Police Training Centres to achieve the above-mentioned objectives: a) In-service training shall be given continuously and as per the plans and programmes to be prepared according to the fundamental objectives of the Security Department; b) Programmes directed at the training needs of the Security Department personnel shall be developed and implemented; c) Efficiency of in-service training shall be measured and improved; d) Training shall be supported with necessary tools and materials; e) Cooperation shall be initiated with public agencies and organisations to ensure that every kind of information and resource shall be exchanged, as necessary; f) Provision of an efficient and economical in-service training shall be ensured by utilising time and monetary resources; g) Personnel shall be trained to perform with a high-quality service understanding; and h) Training shall be improved and applied in line with in-service training policy (TNP Police Education Centres Establishment Regulations, 2002).

Various in-service training activities are organised to increase efficiency of Security Department personnel and to provide them with the knowledge, skills, behaviours and attitudes leading to improvements, by taking into account the specialty fields needed. These activities are realized in two police training centres.

The basic objective of in-service training activities organised in police training centres affiliated with the Training Department is to give in-service training to all personnel working under the Turkish National Police Organisation, according to desired results and without making any discrimination between chief police officers and police officers.

The above-mentioned police training centres and their locations are listed in Table 10 below.

Table-10, Police Training Centres

NO	NAME	PROVINCE
1	Kastamonu Catalzeytin	Kastamonu
2	Kemalettin EROGE Police Training Centre	Istanbul

General Evaluation of In-Service Training Activities

Social dynamism, scientific and technological developments, changes in crime and crime-related issues, and democratisation movements present many new facts to be considered. No matter how qualified the education given in police education institutions may be, after a period of time, the existing knowledge of police officers will either become “old information” or will be insufficient to solve the problems they encounter. Therefore, in-service training programmes are to be prepared and implemented, which will enable continuous improvement and development for police officers while working.

In the planning and implementation of in-service training activities, cooperation should be had with universities and other educational institutions, and “team work” techniques should be adopted. The aim should be to provide police officers with the knowledge and skills to be used in situations that can be encountered in the practice of working life rather than garnered from legislation-based theoretical information. Need-problem analysis should be conducted to prioritise knowledge, attitudes and behaviours required by police officers in professional life.

For successful completion of in-service training implementations, an effective plan should be created and put into action. The following points should be considered in this planning process: a) Detection of in-service training needs; b) Detection of desired objectives and behaviours; c) Detection of human and material resources; d) Decisions with respect to tools, materials and equipment to be used; e) Decisions with

respect to methods and techniques to be adopted; f) Decisions with respect to time, venue and duration of training; and g) Leaving some place for control and evaluation processes (Semiz & Gokce, 1998).

Planning is of the utmost importance for improving the qualifications of training activities. An effective plan both guides the trainers in what to do (where and when) and clearly defines those behaviours the trainees must acquire.

The Turkish Police Force has a comprehensible structure. Answering the question of “Where, how and what kind of in-service training should be given to whom?” is important for such a large structure. In-service training should be given firstly to departments and officers who have the highest need for it. Personnel who are at the highest level of interaction with society should be given priority (EGM 2003 Training Plan). When the results of such training activities are seen in a short time by the public, they will support such activities. Thus, the quality of services will improve on one hand and the trust and respect for the police force will strengthen on the other.

The timing of in-service training should be planned well so as not to interrupt the services rendered by police forces. Participation in in-service training should be encouraged and even rewarded. Moreover, behaviours during arrival and departure from the training venue shall be detected and implemented and programmes should be continuously evaluated and improved. Police officers, whose behaviours are continuously “monitored” should improve and renew themselves; in this way, the quality of services they render to society will also improve.

In-service training activities can make a significant contribution to multi-dimensional improvement of the personnel if they are planned by taking into consideration the needs of personnel and the Security Department. In a study made by Gokce (2000) on groups taking in-service training in the Security Department, 78% of

these groups stated that the in-service training they were given made a considerable contribution in regard to widening their ideas and opinions. This fact clearly shows that in-service training make important contributions to the personal development of individuals.

In-service training activities conducted by central units of the Turkish National Police Organisation during the last five years in the form of courses, seminars and conferences are presented statistically in Table 11 on a yearly basis (TNP Training Department Briefing, 2003).

Table-11, Statistical Breakdown of In-Service Training Activities conducted by central units of TNP between the 1998-2002 period

YEAR	CHIEF OFFICER	POLICE OFFICER	TOTAL
1998	2,592	8,776	11,368
1999	3,073	9,126	12,199
2000	4,989	13,271	18,260
2001	2,886	11,684	14,951
2002	5,557	22,458	28,015
TOTAL	19,097	65,696	84,793

(TNP In-Service Training Unit, 2003).

In total, 84,793 personnel (19,097 chief officers and 65,696 police officers) participated in the training activities conducted by central units for the Security Department personnel (5-year breakdown is given in Table 11).

When we look at the number of participants who were involved in in-service training, we can easily see that the Turkish National Police Organisation has gained great momentum in terms of in-service training in 2002. The number of in-service training participants was much lower before 2002 when compared with the year 2002.

Human rights and public relations courses have been obligatory in in-service training programmes since 2000, and policing ethic was included in the obligatory

courses in 2001. A systematic method was developed in the 2003 Training Plan for the inclusion of the selected courses in all in-service training to be conducted; and each compulsory course is to be given at least for 2 (two) hours in each training that lasts a week or longer.

Applied training is provided annually by provincial directorates of security for the police officers who are therein employed (and who belong to the “security services class”) and for the street guards, with the aim of eliminating deficiencies in implementation and informing them about new developments (TNP Educational Plan, 2003, p.89).

Applied training is application-based training conducted according to a programme prepared by the central unit with the aim of teaching the personnel new knowledge, techniques, methods and the legislative amendments that arise in their own professional field (TNP Educational Plan, 2003, p.89).

Applied training activities conducted by provincial directorates for the personnel therein employed are presented statistically in Table 12 on a yearly basis (TNP Educational Plan, 2003, p.89).

Table-12, Statistical Breakdown of In-Service Training Activities conducted by Provincial Directorates of Security under the TNP between 1998-2002 period

YEAR	Police Chiefs and Officers	Deputy Officers	TOTAL
1998	32,043	3,591	35,634
1999	89,557	8,921	98,478
2000	123,633	3,836	127,469
2001	150,113	7,857	157,970
2002	89,579	5,886	95,465
TOTAL	484,925	30,091	515,016

(Training Department, (2003). Booklet on Evaluation of In-Service Training Activities)

In addition, a total number of 97,684 personnel participated in the conferences on various subjects, which were held in 2002 by provincial directorates of security. This figure is not included in the 2002 applied training data listed in Table 12.

A total of 515,016 personnel (484,925 personnel from the security services class and 30,091 personnel from the street guards) participated in the applied training (5-year breakdown which is given in table 11) conducted by provincial directorates of security for the personnel employed in the same city.

It is stated in the problem statement of this study that in-service education opportunities are inadequate (Zabun, 2000). After conducting the above mentioned research in the police education system, it is examined that in-service education opportunities are increasing and the number of personnel taking courses, classes or attending to the conferences or seminars had tripled when the numbers from 1998 are compared with those of 2002.

Conclusion

As described above, the TNP education system has a huge responsibility to educate the police chiefs and police officers who are necessary for the organisation. Since one of the problems of the students is not benefiting the most from the classes taught at the police academy after their graduation in practice (Yurdaer, 1999), the police educational system and police training programmes have been redirected from their traditional and conservative atmosphere towards the scientific studies which will enable them to detect, analyse and create solutions for the education problems of the Security Department and implement projects to this end (TNP Training Department Briefing, 1999, 20-21). Parallel to this aim, this study endeavours to suggest the implementation of transformational leadership behaviour for police chiefs and police academy students. Transformational leadership behaviour will be useful and helpful for both the police chiefs and police academy students as soon as they learn and start applying it in their life. Therefore, not only will it be useful during their study, but also after their graduation. The benefits of being a transformational leader will be useful and evident wherever they need to apply such skills, whether in family, community or professional relationships.

Chapter 5: Research Methodology

Introduction

Organizational research focuses on whether satisfied workers work better than the less satisfied ones, therefore it seeks for the motivators (variables) of satisfaction (Bryman, 2004). What is the level of job satisfaction of police officers working at Eskisehir Police Department? Asking this kind of research question could have been rebuffed by the TNP as it has been experienced by some other researchers who have asked to conduct research at different private sector companies (Bryman, 2004). In contrast, it has been found beneficiary by the TNP to enlighten the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of police officers working at Eskisehir Police Department (See Appendix A for the Approval Letter of TNP). One of the other major research questions is; “Is there a relationship between the job satisfaction of police officers and their perceived leadership style?” which examines the correlations among the variables have been researched in this study as recommended by Bryman (2004). It is also intended to develop a baseline for leadership and job satisfaction studies in the TNP.

Research Questions and Hypothesis

In organizational research methods, a theory attempts to formulate the reasons of why. Why are workers satisfied or what makes them dissatisfied? And the hypothesis needs to stand on the theory which is used in the research (Bryman, 2004). The same methodology has been set up for this study as stated by Bryman (2004). The theory of Transformational Leadership attempts to formulate an explanation to the perceived leadership behaviors of police officers and the components of JSS attempts to explain the job satisfaction behaviors of police officers.

The hypothesis should also permit to test the theory (Bryman, 2004). As it is recommended, the hypothesis in this study enables testing the theory and the findings of this study are consistent with the theory (See Empirical Results Section).

The aim of this study is to examine the relationship between perceived leadership style and the job satisfaction. Therefore, eight research questions and hypotheses have been created to examine how job satisfaction is effected by the perceived leadership styles.

Research Question 1 : What is the level of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of the police chiefs as perceived by the police officers?

Hypothesis 1 : The perceived transformational leadership level of the police officers is at a low level.

Research Question 2 : As perceived by the police officers, what kind of leadership style do the police chiefs administer to the police officers more dominantly?

Hypothesis 2 : The leadership perceived by the police officers is not transformational leadership behaviour.

Research Question 3 : What is the overall job satisfaction score of the police officers?

Hypothesis 3 : The overall job satisfaction score of the police officers are at a low level.

Research Question 4 : What is the relationship between overall job satisfaction of the police officers and perceived effectiveness, MbE (passive), idealised influence (attributed) behaviours of police chiefs and the variable of marital status of police officers?

Hypothesis 4 : Perceived effectiveness, MbE (passive), idealised influence (attributed) behaviours of police chiefs have a statistically significant effect on overall job satisfaction of police officers, but marital status is not significantly correlated with anything.

Research Question 5 : What is the relationship between supervision satisfaction of police officers and their perceived extra effort, idealised influence (attributed), MbE (passive) and *laissez-faire* behaviours of police chiefs?

Hypothesis 5 : Perceived extra effort, idealised influence (Attributed), MbE (passive), and *laissez-faire* behaviours of police chiefs have a statistically significant effect on the supervision satisfaction of police officers.

Research Question 6 : What is the relationship between co-workers' satisfaction with other police officers and their perceived idealised influence (attributed), MbE (active) behaviours of police chiefs?

Hypothesis 6 : Perceived idealised influence (Attributed), and MbE (active) behaviours of police chiefs have a statistically significant effect on co-workers' satisfaction with other police officers.

Research Question 7 : What is the relationship between the satisfaction of police officers with nature of their work and their perceived intellectual stimulation, MbE (passive) behaviours of police chiefs, and the variables of marital status and gender?

Hypothesis 7 : Perceived intellectual stimulation and MbE (passive) behaviour of police chiefs and the variables of marital status and gender of police officers have a statistically significant effect on the nature of work satisfaction of police officers.

Research Question 8 : What is the relationship between communication satisfaction of police officers and their perceived effectiveness, MbE (passive) behaviours of police chiefs?

Hypothesis 8 : Perceived effectiveness and MbE (passive) behaviour of police chiefs have a statistically significant effect on the communication satisfaction of police officers.

Research Design

Case studies require examining an organization in details. It does not have to be the whole organization but can be some departments within the organization (Bryman, 2004). This study examines the leadership styles and the job satisfaction of police officers in details. Therefore, this research is a case study also.

The benefits of case studies can be gathered under two topics. First, it helps better understanding of the organizational functioning. Second, it helps building a theoretical approach to the concealed problems (Bryman, 2004). Parallel to these aims the management problems have been examined in this study for better understanding the organizational functioning and implementation of transformational leadership behavior has been recommended to build a theoretical approach. When the research design has been examined chapter by chapter the aim of each chapter are as follows;

In the first chapter the need for this research has been explained in the problem statement of this study. In the second chapter the need for leadership, the differences between a leader and a manager and the leadership theories have been examined. The components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviours that are explained in the second chapter are later on used to assess the perceived leadership behaviours of the police officers.

The third chapter has examined the job satisfaction. The components of job satisfaction that are explained in the third chapter are also used to assess the job satisfaction of the police officers.

The fourth chapter has examined the Turkish National Police Context which basically consists of two main parts. The first part of the fourth chapter includes the legislative analysis of TNP which demonstrates that the legislations of TNP has been set up on penalization and rewarding which also results in transactional leadership behaviours of the police chiefs as stated in the problem statement of this study. The second part of the fourth chapter examines the transformation of educational system of the TNP. The aim of this section is to demonstrate the volume of TNP and to examine the transformational leadership among the TNP. The literature review of this section indicates that there are no transformational leadership studies in TNP education departments but the education system is open to change and innovations. The educational levels of the police officers have not been used as a variable which effects their job satisfaction because the educational distributions of the police officers subject to research are close to each other and is not varying.

Research Methodology

After over viewing the research design above, this part presents the research methodology used in this study. Organizational research focuses on whether satisfied workers work better than the less satisfied ones, therefore it seeks for the motivators of satisfaction (Bryman, 2004). For examining the relationship between these motivators (variables) it is necessary to conduct a quantitative research. Another reason for quantitative research is the logical structure of the quantitative research process which is; Theory, Hypothesis, Observations/ Data Collection, Data Analysis/

Empirical Results and Findings (Bryman, 2004) that is also parallel to the structure of this study. Therefore, this is a quantitative research.

Research Method

“The survey designs which collect the data at a single juncture are frequently referred as “cross-sectional” survey designs” (Bryman, 2004, p.157). Therefore, this quantitative research uses cross-sectional research design. Three questionnaires were administered to participants. The first questionnaire is the Employee Demographic Survey (EDS) which questions the demographic characteristics of the police officers. The second survey is the Multiple Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ 5X) which questions the perceived leadership style of the police officers (See Appendix B for the sample questions from MLQ 5X). It is a statistically validated survey instrument (MLQ 5X) which is the latest and updated version of MLQ (Bass & Avolio, 2004) was used to measure the level of transformational and transactional leadership (The permission letter to use MLQ is located in Appendix C). The third questionnaire is the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS), which is prepared by Paul Spector and examines the job satisfaction of the police officers (See Appendix D for the permission letter to use JSS and appendix E for the JSS). This descriptive study examines the perceived leadership behaviour of the police officers as well as its relationship with their job satisfaction in the Eskisehir police department.

a- Data Collection Process

For administering the questionnaires to the police officers working at the Eskisehir Police Department, an approval letter from the TNP General Head Quarters was obtained and a copy of the approval letter that was submitted to the Eskisehir Police Department is located in Appendix A. It is learnt that as January 2007, there were 2187 police officers working at Eskisehir Police Department, when the total

number of police officers was considered during this research. 1615 of the 2187 police officers are working at various branches of the police department that are located in and around city centre. Among the 1615 police officers, 350 police officers (n=350) were randomly selected after visiting their offices. The Eskisehir Police Department has 34 different branches and 6 police centres that are located in the city centre. Therefore, 350 police officers are randomly selected among those 40 different branches. Each branch had been visited by the researcher and the aim of the study and the importance of their being objective is explained. Police centres are open seven days of the week, twenty-four hours a day. Therefore, there are three different shifts going at each police centre. Thus, some police centres were visited twice or three times in order to reach all their personnel. Completing the data collection took five days and each day the researcher started at 9:00AM and worked straight till 1:00AM. The subjects are also reminded to not to write their names, last names and ID numbers. The reasoning behind this was to protect their personal information and prevent the bias that could have occurred while completing the questionnaires. In addition, the aim of the study was explained to the police officers, as well as their right to withdraw from the research if they chose to do so. The questionnaires took approximately 30 minutes to complete on average.

b- Sample Participants

The population for the study consisted of all the police officers working at the Eskisehir Police Department. Their perceived leadership styles represent the leadership styles of mid-level police chiefs working at the same city. In order to obtain more representative samples of the population, all departments, police stations and centres were visited and because of the fact that some departments work in shifts, random sampling was used--which means that the police officers who were working

while the research was being conducted participated in this study. The questionnaires are delivered to 350 police officers and because of the fact that police officers were free to participate or not, 298 (n=298) of the questionnaires were completed and returned.

c- Independent Variables

Table-13, Summary Table of the Variables Used in This Study

<i>Transformational & Transactional Leadership Variables</i>	<i>Job Satisfaction Variables</i>	<i>Demographic Variables</i>	<i>Measurement Process</i>
Idealised Influence (Attributed)	Pay	Age	The questions in the MLQ-5X and JSS surveys are used in order to measure independent variables of interest. MLQ and JSS are set to measure each independent variable with a scale that ranges from 0 to 4.
Idealised Influence (Behaviour)	Promotion	Gender	
Inspirational Motivation	Supervision	Educational Level	
Intellectual Stimulation	Fringe Benefits	Branch	
Individualised Consideration	Contingent Reward	Marital Status	
Contingent Reward	Operationg Conditions	Number of Children	
Management by Exception (Active)	Co-Workers		
Management by Exception (Passive)	Nature of Work		
<i>Laissez-faire</i> Leadership	Communication		
Extra Effort			
Effectiveness			
Satisfaction			

As presented in table 13, there are three groups of independent variables. The first group reflects the theory of Bass (1985, 1999), the second group reflects the components of Spector’s (1997), and the third group consists of demographic variables. Each group is purposely described with relevant variables to reflect the concepts of transformational leadership and job satisfaction.

d- Dependent Variable

The dependent variable represents the overall job satisfaction of police officers working at the Eskisehir police department. The score of overall job satisfaction is obtained by collecting each score for the nine components of the JSS. Then this score is converted to a scale which ranges between 0 to 4. As it moves from 0 to 4, the level of overall job satisfaction increases.

e- Summary of the Components and Scoring the MLQ 5X Questionnaire

The transformational leadership group variables, which are idealised influence (both attribute and behaviour), inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration are measured with twenty questions that are placed in the MLQ survey. In addition, transactional leadership group variables that consist of contingent reward, management by exception (active), management by exception (passive) and laissez-faire are measured with the sixteen questions in the MLQ survey. The common concepts of leadership, extra effort, effectiveness and satisfaction are measured with nine questions that are placed in MLQ survey. Therefore, there are 45 questions in the MLQ 5X questionnaire (Bass & Avolio, 2004). It is assumed that these common concepts reflect the ability of a leader beyond transformational leadership because without these characteristics a leader can still be a transformational leader. For this reason, these three common concepts will be treated as additional aspects of leadership which contribute to the strength of the leadership level. The distribution of the MLQ 5X's 45 questions according to the variables and the summary of those variables are as follows (See Appendix B for the sample questions and Appendix C permission to use MLQ 5X):

1- Idealised Influence (Attributed) (four questions): Leaders' influence over the followers. This component aims to measure idealised influence as a characteristic trait of the leader.

2- Idealised Influence (Behaviour) (four questions): This component aims to measure idealised influence by questioning the applications and behaviours of the leader.

3- Inspirational Motivation (four questions): Leaders motivating the followers by inspiring them.

4- Intellectual Stimulation (four questions): Leaders changing and improving the skills of followers.

5- Individualised Consideration (four questions): Leaders caring and considering the needs of followers on an individual basis.

6- Contingent Reward (four questions): Leaders rewarding the followers when pre-set standards are met.

7- Management by Exception (Active) (four questions): Leader feels and predicts the problems that can occur and corrects them.

8- Management by Exception (Passive) (four questions): Leader intervenes after deviations occur. This type of leadership and the one in the following paragraph (No. 9) are the most passive and ineffective forms of leadership.

9- Laissez-faire Leadership (four questions): This reflects the non-existence of leadership. Employees work by exercising their own will and the supervisor does not intervene.

10- Extra Effort (three questions): This component aims to measure whether or not the leader shows extra effort to encourage his/her followers to be successful.

11- Effectiveness (four questions): This component aims to measure the effectiveness of the leader.

12- Satisfaction (two questions): This component aims to measure the satisfaction of the followers with the leaders' management style.

MLQ 5X measures leadership based on the above mentioned twelve factors, which are parallel to the components of transformational leadership theory (Bass, 1999).

f- Summary of Components and Scoring the Job Satisfaction Survey (JSS)

The JSS questionnaire is composed of 36 questions. Each variable is measured with 4 questions. For finding the overall job satisfaction score it is necessary to collect the scores of each variable. All 36, questions which refer to 9 components, are located in the questionnaire in a random order as in the MLQ 5X. For example, while the first question measures pay, the second question measures promotion. Participants score the questionnaire according to their agreement levels (See Appendix D for the JSS and Appendix E permission to use JSS).

JSS examines job satisfaction with its nine components; each component is measured with four questions. These are:

1- Pay: Pay examines the satisfaction or dissatisfaction of the employee with his/her salary.

2- Promotion: Promotion examines the employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the promotion opportunities provided within the organisation.

3- Supervision: Supervision examines the employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the management styles of their supervisors.

4- Fringe Benefits: Fringe Benefits examine the employees' satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the extra benefits and bonuses made by the organisation.

5- Contingent Reward: Contingent Reward examines the employees` satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the rewards provided when they perform well.

6- Operating Conditions: Operating Conditions examines the employees` satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the rules and procedures of the organisation.

7- Co-Workers: Co-Workers examines the employees` satisfaction or dissatisfaction with his/her friends at work.

8- Nature of Work: Nature of Work examines the employees` satisfaction or dissatisfaction with the work he/she is doing.

9- Communication: Communication examines the employees` satisfaction or dissatisfaction with communication within the organisation.

It is possible to obtain ten different scores from the JSS. Nine of these are the scores of nine components and the tenth is the combination of these nine scores which shows the overall job satisfaction score. Finding the score for each variable is the combination of the scores of the four questions related with that variable. The table below shows which variable is measured by which questions as well as the ones that are reverse coded as follows:

Table-14, Scoring JSS

Pay	1	10r	19r	28
Promotion	2r	11	20	33
Supervision	3	12r	21r	30
Fringe Benefits	4r	13	22	29r
Contingent Reward	5	14r	23r	32r
Operating Conditions	6r	15	24r	31r
Co-Workers	7	16r	25	34r
Nature of Work	8r	17	27	35
Communication	9	18r	26r	36r

Numbers with "r" are reverse coded (Spector, 1997).

Reliability and Validity Analysis

Bass (1985) developed the MLQ to measure and compare the preferred transformational leadership behaviours and the opposing transactional leadership behaviours of leaders. The MLQ was developed in multiple steps and has been tested repeatedly. First, Bass administered the MLQ to university students and asked them to evaluate some of their leaders. After taking the results from the students, Bass compared them with the leaders' behaviours in order to verify such results and the instrument used. Next, Bass administered MLQ to many private sector companies. Administering and verifying the findings many times made the MLQ one of the most tested instruments in the field. On the other hand, the MLQ instrument has been extensively supported by many researchers (Hater & Bass, 1988, Bass & Avolio 1990, Howell & Avolio, 1993; Bycio et al., 1995).

In prior research, various researchers have found strong positive relationships between the transformational leadership variables and the variables of extra effort, satisfaction and effectiveness using the MLQ as the primary measure. In addition, negative relationships were found between transformational leadership components and the management by exception component. The findings reported are consistent with Bass' findings (Bass, 1985; Hater & Bass, 1988; Bycio et al. 1995). In addition to these studies, the MLQ instrument has been used to assess transformational and transactional leadership styles in more than 200 field and laboratory studies (Bass, 1998). Meta-analyses have also been conducted and solid evidence of validity and reliability of the instrument has been found in several studies (Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; DeGroot, Kiker & Cross 2000, Carless, 1998).

Reliability of JSS: Internal consistency of reliability shows a relationship between the variables. Coefficient Alphas of JSS items are ranging from 0.60 to 0.91.

0.60 is for the co-worker subscale and 0.91 is for the total score. The validity of JSS had been tested and correlations ranged from 0.61 for the co-workers and 0.80 for the supervision (Spector, 1997).

In this study the reliability of MLQ-5X has been found .78 and JSS has been found .93 both of which are higher than the acceptable level of .70.

Data Analysis Method

For testing these hypotheses, a regression linear model was employed and aimed at finding each variable's effect on the overall job satisfaction of employees at the Eskisehir Police Department. A t-test also was applied in order to test the significance level of each independent variable on the dependent variable. In the section called "research questions", four hypotheses had been selected for the study. Each research question attempts to reflect different aspects of leadership styles that may affect overall job satisfaction. These questions were classified under four models and the effects of each variable in the model on the overall job satisfaction were analysed. In addition, the strength of each model was also evaluated based on the selected variables. For all models the variables were thrown into the models with stepwise technique. For the first model the variables are; "effectiveness", which is among the characteristics of transformational leadership behaviour; "Management by Exception (MbE, passive)", which is among the characteristics of transactional leadership behaviour; "idealised influence (attributed)", again among the characteristics of transformational leadership behaviour; and finally, "marital status of the employee", which is among the demographic variables of the participants.

The findings of the models presented above are interpreted according to the theories they stand. In addition, the legislations that the TNP personnel are bonded with have been interpreted according to the Transformational Leadership components

in the legislative analysis section (Chapter 4). The legislations that are interpreted in Chapter 4 are also translated from Turkish Language to English by the researcher to provide contextualization for the results of this study (Translated versions of the legislations are available in Appendices). Therefore, interpretivist method is also used as a data analysis method.

Chapter 6: Empirical Results

Results for Hypothesis 1-3

The following descriptive statistics were conducted to find answers to the first three research questions. What is the level of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour of police chiefs? What kind of leadership behaviour do the police chiefs administer to the police officers more dominantly? What is the level of overall job satisfaction of police officers?

Table-15, Descriptive Statistics Table for MLQ 5X and JSS scores (N=298)

	Mean	Std. Deviation
Overall Job Satisfaction	3,42	,60
Individualised Consideration	1,98	1,02
Idealised Influence (attributed)	2,20	1,12
Idealised Influence (behaviour)	2,51	,91
Inspirational Motivation	2,37	,91
Intellectual Stimulation	2,33	,97
Contingent Reward	2,37	,93
MBE (active)	1,98	,78
MBE (passive)	1,46	,76
Laises-fair	1,39	1,01
Extra Effort	2,23	1,13
Effectiveness	2,34	1,06
Satisfaction with Leadership	2,27	1,15
Age	2,05	,59
Gender	1,93	,25
Education	1,83	,65
Marital Status	1,12	,32
Number of Children	1,73	,91

Table 15 above shows the mean values and standard deviations of the variables that are involved in the model.

Scale range for this study is 0 to 4. Scores over 3 are considered high and desirable. The demographic variables are coded in numeric order, therefore, age 2,05 indicates that the mean age of the participants is over 30 years old. 1,93 gender indicates that most of them are male. 1,83 education indicates that mean education level of the participants is a college degree. 1,12 marital status indicates that more than half of them are married. 1,73 number of children indicates that the mean number of children that participants have is two.

As can be seen in table 15, the mean score of “Overall Job Satisfaction” of the police officers is 3,42 which suggests a highly desirable result for an organisation (Overall Job Satisfaction scale ranges from 0 to 4).

“Perceived Idealised Influence (Attributed)” behaviour by the police officers is 2,20 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Idealised Influence (Behaviour)” by the police officers is 2,51 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Individualised Consideration” behaviour by the police officers is 1,98 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Inspirational Motivation” behaviour by the police officers is 2,37 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Intellectual Stimulation” behaviour by the police officers is 2,33 over 4 which is at the moderate level.

All of the above scores reflecting the perceptions of the police officers working at the Eskisehir Police Department indicate that the transformational leadership behaviours of the police chiefs perceived by the police officers are at the moderate level. It is suggested by Bass (1985) in his theory that a leader should show the above mentioned behaviours to be a transformational leader. Even though the mean scores of the police chiefs are not at high level, it is possible to assess that police chiefs who are scored by their officers are “moderate level transformational leaders”. The transactional leadership scores are as follows:

“Perceived Contingent Reward” behaviour by the police officers is 2,37 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Management by Exception (Active)” behaviour by the police officers is 1,98 over 4 which is at the moderate level. “Perceived Management by Exception (Passive)” behaviour by the police officers is 1,46 over 4 which is at the low level. “Perceived Laissez-faire” behaviour by the police officers is 1,39 over 4 which is at the low level.

The above findings are parallel to the theory of Bass (1985). The theory suggests that transformational leadership requires showing the transformational leader behaviour more dominantly and for being an active and effective leader, a leader should show both transformational and transactional leadership behaviours together. The perceived leadership behaviours of the police chiefs are decreasing from top to bottom, again parallel to the theory. The theory suggests that while the “Idealised Influence” behaviour of the leader plays the most important role for displaying an active and effective leadership, the “*Laissez-faire*” behaviour of the leader is the most passive and ineffective form of the leadership. Therefore, having low results for “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*” are among the expected results according to Bass (1998), when transformational leadership behaviour is considered as a must. Additionally, this is a good indicator because these characteristics are not desirable ones for a leader.

“Extra Effort”, “Effectiveness” and “Satisfaction with Leadership” additional variables can be used to verify the findings. “Perceived Extra Effort” behaviour by the police officers is 2,23 over 4 which is at the moderate level. Parallel to the findings above, the transformational leader behaviour of the police chiefs is at a moderate level and their “Extra Effort” is also at the moderate level. “Perceived Effectiveness” by the police officers is 2,34 over 4 which is at the moderate level. This finding is parallel to the transformational leader behaviours of the police chiefs. Police officers’ “Satisfaction with Leadership” is 2,27 over 4 which is at the moderate level. This finding is parallel to the transformational leader behaviours of the police chiefs. “Perceived Extra Effort”, “Effectiveness” and “Satisfaction with Leadership” will increase or decrease parallel to the transformational leadership behaviour of the police chiefs.

Comparison of the findings with the previous study

The previous study of Yucel (2007) was about the transformational and transactional leadership behaviours of the 4th year Turkish National Police Academy students. Police Academy students are asked to score their own transformational and transactional leadership behaviours by using the leader form of MLQ 5X. The findings obtained in that study is compared with the findings of this study in table 16.

Table-16, Comparison of Data

	By using rater form of MLQ 5X		By using leader form of MLQ 5X	
	This Study (n=298)		Previous Study of Yucel (2007), (n=215)	
	Mean	Std. Deviation	Mean	Std. Deviation
Idealized Influence (Attributed)	2,20	1,12	2.87	.51
Idealized Influence (Behavior)	2,51	,91	2.96	.57
Inspirational Motivation	2,37	,91	2.81	.59
Intellectual Stimulation	2,33	,97	2.86	.57
Individualized Consideration	1,98	1,02	2.78	.54
Contingent Reward	2,37	,93	2.79	.58
MbE (Active)	1,98	,78	2.06	.68
MbE (Passive)	1,46	,76	1.21	.73
Laissez-fair	1,39	1,01	1.14	.71
Extra Effort	2,23	1,13	2.78	.72
Effectiveness	2,34	1,06	2.79	.63
Satisfaction with Leadership	2,27	1,15	2.75	.74

The data provided above is collected from two different groups, first group which is (n=215), are the TNP Police Academy students in Ankara who got graduated in spring 2007 and became police chiefs. This first group did score their own leadership behaviours by using the 'leader form' of MLQ 5X. The second group (n=298) are the Police Officers working at Eskisehir Police Department, they did score the leadership behaviours of their police chiefs. Therefore the second data represents the perceived leadership styles of the police officers. Even tough, the

research is conducted in two different cities and one of them conducted by using leader form and the second one is conducted by using the rater form, as it is all seen in table 16 the findings are close to each other. Therefore, both findings indicate that police chiefs exhibit moderate level transformational and transactional leadership and low level laissez-faire behaviour.

Results for Hypothesis 4-8

In all models, various numbers of variables ranging from 2 to 4 were thrown into the models with stepwise technique. In order to test each variable's explanatory strength on the dependent variable, partial correlation coefficient statistics were also employed. In other words, partial correlation is the correlation of two variables while controlling a third or more other variables. These statistics are beneficial in order to see each independent variable's effect on the dependent variable. In this way, statistical inference can be made for the most important variable in the model. This method also gives a feel for colinearity and multicollinearity among two or more independent variables. Therefore, it is a kind of statistical control that controls the extraneous effects of other independent variables after the data is collected, as opposed to experimental control.

Model One

The first model aims to find an answer to research question four. In this model, the variables of "Effectiveness", "MbE (Passive)", "Idealised Influence (Attributed)" and "Marital Status" are considered to have an effect on "Overall Job Satisfaction". The reason behind this is "Effectiveness" is among the outputs of transformational leadership, and if there exists a relationship between "Overall Job

Satisfaction and transformational leadership behaviour, “Effectiveness” should be significantly correlated with overall job satisfaction. “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is again among the transformational leadership behaviours, therefore, it is expected that it would be significantly correlated with “Overall Job Satisfaction”. “MbE (Passive)” behaviour falls under transactional leader behaviour, and it is expected that it would effect the model negatively. “Marital Status” is an additional variable used to test whether being married or not has any significant effect on “Overall Job Satisfaction”.

Table-17, Model Summary Table for Model One

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square	F	df1	df2	P (Sig.)
1	,447(a)	,200	,197	,54618	,200	73.797	1	296	,000
2	,486(b)	,237	,231	,53428	,037	14.335	1	295	,000
3	,512(c)	,262	,255	,52618	,025	10,159	1	294	,002
4	,523(d)	,273	,263	,52315	,011	4,406	1	293	,037

a Predictors: Effectiveness

b Predictors: Effectiveness, MbE (passive)

c Predictors: Effectiveness, MbE (passive), Idealised Influnece (attributed)

d Predictors: Effectiveness, MbE (passive), Idealised Influnece (attributed), Marital status

e Dependent Variable : Overall Job Satisfaction

Table-18, Coefficients Table for Model One

Model		Unstandardized Coefficients		Standardized Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	P (Sig.)
1	(Constant)	2,828	,076		37,071	,000
	Effectiveness	,255	,030	,447	8,591	,000
2	(Constant)	3,081	,100		30,751	,000
	Effectiveness	,242	,029	,425	8,314	,000
	MbE (passive)	-,154	,041	-,194	-3,786	,000
3	(Constant)	3,035	,100		30,434	,000
	Effectiveness	,135	,044	,237	3,050	,002
	MbE (passive)	-,152	,040	-,191	-3,798	,000
	Idea.inf.(attributed)	,134	,042	,247	3,187	,002
4	(Constant)	3,277	,152		21,567	,000
	Effectiveness	,130	,044	,229	2,957	,003
	MbE (passive)	-,143	,040	-,180	-3,563	,000
	Idea.inf.(attributed)	,126	,042	,233	3,009	,003
	Marital status	-,203	,097	-,108	-2,099	,037

a Dependent Variable: Overall Job Satisfaction

Table-19, Anova Table for Model One

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P (Sig.)
1	Regression	22,015	1	22,015	73,797	,000(a)
	Residual	88,301	296	,298		
	Total	110,316	297			
2	Regression	26,107	2	13,053	45,728	,000(b)
	Residual	84,209	295	,285		
	Total	110,316	297			
3	Regression	28,919	3	9,640	34,818	,000(c)
	Residual	81,397	294	,277		
	Total	110,316	297			
4	Regression	30,125	4	7,531	27,517	,000(d)
	Residual	80,191	293	,274		

In the first step, the slope ($b = .255$) of “Effectiveness” is positively correlated to “Overall Job Satisfaction”. In other words, as one increases on the scale of “Effectiveness”, “Overall Job Satisfaction” also increases. According to “t” value, this slope is statistically significant at the all significant level of alpha. Since there is only one variable in this model, no control variable applied; therefore, zero order correlation of “Effectiveness” is .447 for beta value. On the other hand, R Square of

the regression analysis for the first step suggests that 20 percent of the variance is explained by the “Effectiveness” alone in the model. In other words, according to respondents’ score for “Overall Job Satisfaction”, “Effectiveness” alone explains 20 percent variance as an explanatory variable.

In the second step, as described above, “Management by Exception (Passive)” was added to first model, and this is inversely related to “Overall Job Satisfaction”. In other words, as one increases on the scale of “Management by Exception (Passive),” the “Overall Job Satisfaction” decreases. This inverse relationship is also statistically significant at all levels ($B = -.154$ and $\alpha = .000$). On the other hand, when we control the effect of the “Management by Exception (Passive)” variable on the dependent variable, first order correlation of “Effectiveness” is .423, which is slightly changed from the above first model. In addition, the slope of “Effectiveness” dropped from .255 to .242 after the effect of the slope “Management by Exception (Passive)” was excluded. This is consistent with the previous table because the R square of the second step had only increased for .037. In other words, as a result of adding the “Management by Exception (Passive)” variable, the magnitude of the explanatory variables in explaining total variance only increased by 3.7 percent. This can be accepted as a slight improvement for the model.

In the third step, a new variable “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” was added to the second model, and second order partial correlation statistics were computed. After the second order correlation, the slope of “Effectiveness” lessened to .155; however, the slope of “Management by Exception (Passive)” remained nearly the same (-.152). This is an indication of a co linearity problem and “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”’s tolerance value for co linearity is .417, which suggests a co linearity problem. On the other hand, the new variable’s slope is positively related to overall

satisfaction ($B=.134$). It dramatically lessened the effect of “Effectiveness” from .423 to .153. In addition to this, the statistics suggest that the partial effect of “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is bigger than “Effectiveness” (.153 vs .160). For this reason, it can be said that “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is as important as “Effectiveness” on “Overall Job Satisfaction”. In addition to this, R square only increased by .025 which, it can be inferred, is a very slight change over the first and second step (the explanatory magnitude of the model was improved by 2.5 percent by adding third variable).

In the final step, the “Marital Status” of the police officers was added to the model after the above mentioned three variables. According to third order correlation coefficients, the net effect of both “Effectiveness” and “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” on the dependent variable slightly dropped (from .153 to .147 and from .160 to .150). On the other hand, the partial effect of “Marital Status” is -.105 (significance level is .037), which suggests an inverse relationship with the dependent variable (Overall Job Satisfaction). In this step, R square increased only .011 or the prediction power over the dependent variable was improved only 1.1 percent. This suggests that the issue whether officers are married or not does not have a statistically significant effect on his/ her “Overall Job Satisfaction”.

Model Two

The second model aims to find answers to research question five. In this model, the variables of “Extra Effort”, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”, “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*” are considered to have effect on “Supervision Satisfaction”. The reason behind this is that showing “Extra Effort” is among the outputs of transformational leadership and the more “Extra Effort” the police chiefs show, the higher the “Satisfaction with Supervision” should be observed. The second variable is “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”, which is again among the transformational leadership behaviours and is expected to be positively correlated with “Satisfaction with Supervision”. The third variable is “MbE (Passive)” behaviour, which is expected to have a significant effect on “Supervision Satisfaction”, as much as transformational leadership behaviours normally do. The final variable is the “*Laissez-faire*” variable which is expected to have a negative effect on “Supervision Satisfaction”.

Table-20, Model Summary Table for Model Two

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square	F	df1	df2	P (Sig.)
1	,631(a)	,398	,396	,82486	,398	195,323	1	296	,000
2	,673(b)	,453	,449	,78744	,055	29,796	1	295	,000
3	,699(c)	,488	,483	,76281	,035	20,357	1	294	,000
4	,707(d)	,500	,493	,75558	,011	6,657	1	293	,010

a Predictors: Extra Effort

b Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence (attributed)

c Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (passive)

d Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (passive), Laises-Fair

The model summary table is given above. In the first model, the “Extra Effort” behaviour of transformational leadership is found to explain the “Satisfaction with Supervision” by 39,8 percent. In the second model, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”

had been inserted in the model and the explanatory strength had increased to 45,3 percent. In the third model, “MbE (Passive)” behaviour had been inserted in the model and the explanatory power had increased to 48,8 percent. Finally, in the fourth model, “*Laissez-faire*” behaviour had been inserted in the model and a significant change could not be observed (Sig=,010).

The second model was designed in order to be able to measure what “Satisfaction with Supervision” is derived from and at which degree. For this purpose, 4 separate models have been developed.

In the first step, only the “Extra Effort” variable was employed by itself as a predictor of “Supervision Satisfaction”. According to ANOVA, the F value of “Extra Effort” is significant at any alpha level. Additionally, R square suggests that 39.6 percent of variance was explained by the “Extra Effort” variable. In other words, our prediction on supervision satisfaction is improved by 39.6 percent through knowing one’s “Extra Effort.” This is a very strong predictor. When considered from the standpoint of Bass’ (1985) theory, this finding is parallel to the theory because “Extra Effort” is behaviour of a transformational leader. The transformational leader behaviour of a leader and his/her “Extra Effort” score will be parallel to each other. This finding discovers its relationship with the “Satisfaction with Supervision” component examined by Spector (1997). Not surprisingly, “Extra Effort” is a strong predictor of “Satisfaction with Supervision”.

In the second step, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is added to the first model and our prediction has improved by 5.5 percent. The coefficients table indicates that the “t” value is important at any significance level. However, the partial effect of “Extra Effort” in the first model has dropped to .324 from .631 after adding the “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” variable (partial coefficient = .303). It may

suggest that these two variables are correlated each other in explaining “Supervision Satisfaction”. Not surprisingly, the tolerance value of the “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is .457, which suggests a collinearity problem because values at or below .5 indicate that a problem might exist. When considered from the stand point of Bass’ (1985) theory, this is again parallel to the theory because “Idealised Influence” is a component of transformational leader behaviour. The reason behind the drop of partial effect can be explained as the “Extra Effort” variable is among the outputs of transformational leader behaviour; therefore, the stronger the transformational leader behaviour shown, the higher the score of “Extra Effort” will be exhibited. On the other hand, “Idealised Influence” is just a component of transformational leader behaviour; it is positively related to “Satisfaction with Supervision” but cannot show the same effect as “Extra Effort”.

For the third step, “Management by Exception (Passive)” is added to the second model and the power of prediction has improved by 3.5 percent. The “t” value of “Management by Exception (Passive)” is important at any significance level. Additionally, the tolerance value of “Management by Exception (Passive)” (.988) indicates no multicollinearity problem with the other two variables in the model. Parallel to these findings, partial correlation of “Extra Effort” and “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” did not significantly change. In the case of the last statistical inference in the third model, as noted earlier, “Management by Exception (Passive)” is inversely related to “Supervision Satisfaction” ($b = -.261$). In other words, leaders who are exhibiting “MbE (Passive)” behaviour in their management style are less likely to satisfy their subordinates or followers even in terms of their “Payment Satisfaction”. When considered from the standpoint of Bass’ (1985) theory, this leader behaviour is

one of the inactive and ineffective leader behaviours. Therefore, having no significant effect on the model is a factor which runs parallel to that in Bass' (1985) theory.

In the last step, "*Laissez-faire*" was added to the third model. One thing that is important is that the t value of "*Laissez-faire*" is statistically significant at the .010 level. After adding this variable, the significance level of "Management by Exception (Passive)" also decreased to the .010 level. When considered from the standpoint of the theory of Bass (1985), this leader behaviour is the most passive and ineffective leader behaviour. Therefore, having a .010 significance level on the model is a factor that runs parallel to that in Bass' theory.

Table-21, Anova Table for Model Two

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P (Sig.)
1	Regression	132,896	1	132,896	195,323	,000(a)
	Residual	201,395	296	,680		
	Total	334,291	297			
2	Regression	151,371	2	75,686	122,061	,000(b)
	Residual	182,919	295	,620		
	Total	334,291	297			
3	Regression	163,217	3	54,406	93,499	,000(c)
	Residual	171,074	294	,582		
	Total	334,291	297			
4	Regression	167,018	4	41,754	73,138	,000(d)
	Residual	167,273	293	,571		
	Total	334,291	297			

a Predictors: Extra Effort,

b Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence,

c Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (passive),

d Predictors: Extra Effort, Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (passive), Laissez-Faire

e Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Supervision

Table-22, Coefficients Table for Model Two

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients	Standardised Coefficients			
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	P (Sig.)
1	(Constant)	2,033	,106		19,161	,000
	Extra Effort	,592	,042	,631	13,976	,000
2	(Constant)	1,849	,107		17,317	,000
	Extra Effort	,351	,060	,374	5,875	,000
	Idealised Influence (attributed)	,327	,060	,348	5,459	,000
3	(Constant)	2,272	,140		16,274	,000
	Extra Effort	,344	,058	,366	5,935	,000
	Idealised Influence (attributed)	,316	,058	,336	5,438	,000
	MbE (passive)	-,261	,058	-,189	-4,512	,000
4	(Constant)	2,463	,157		15,702	,000
	Extra Effort	,323	,058	,344	5,561	,000
	Idealised Influence (attributed)	,284	,059	,302	4,819	,000
	MbE (passive)	-,173	,067	-,125	-2,583	,010
	<i>Laissez-Faire</i>	-,145	,056	-,138	-2,580	,010

a Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Supervision

In summary, when the coefficients table is considered, it is possible to examine which variable explains the relationship between “Satisfaction with Supervision” and the transformational and transactional leadership components of “Extra Effort”, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”, “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*”. When the sig line is checked “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*” is not significant in explaining the model (Sig=,010). When the significance of the variables are examined individually, “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*” at the level of 0.05 are not significant. As seen in the table 22 above, “Satisfaction with Supervision” alone has a 2,033 value when other variables are not considered. “Extra Effort” has a ,592 effect on “Satisfaction with Supervision”. After adding the other 3 variables, this rate decreases (model 4) to ,323. “Extra Effort” is followed by “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” with a ,284 positive effect, while “MbE (Passive)” and “*Laissez-faire*” are negatively effecting the model. This means that one unit increase in “MbE (Passive)” behaviour causes a 1,73 decrease in “Satisfaction with Supervision”.

Model Three

The third model aims to find answers to research question number six. In this model, the variables of “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” and “MbE (Active)” are considered to have an effect on “Satisfaction with Co-workers”. The reason behind this is that “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” and “MbE (Passive)” are among the transformational and transactional leadership behavioural characteristics. This model is created to find out which leadership behaviour effects “Satisfaction with Co-workers” more dominantly.

Table-23, Model Summary Table for Model Three

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square	F	df1	df2	P (Sig.)
1	.302(a)	.091	.088	.79411	.091	29,614	1	296	.000
2	.327(b)	.107	.101	.78854	.016	5,201	1	295	.023

a Predictors: Idealised Influence (attributed)

b Predictors: Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (active)

Table-24, Anova Table for Model Three

Model	Sum of Squares		df	Mean Square	F	P (Sig.)
1	Regression	18,675	1	18,675	29,614	.000(a)
	Residual	186,662	296	.631		
	Total	205,337	297			
2	Regression	21,909	2	10,955	17,618	.000(b)
	Residual	183,428	295	.622		
	Total	205,337	297			

a Predictors: Idealised Influence (attributed),

b Predictors: Idealised Influence (attributed), MbE (active)

c Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Co-Workers

The ANOVA table shows that model is significant as a whole (sig=,000).

Table-25, Coefficients Table for Model Three

Model		Unstandardised Coefficients		Standardised Coefficients		
		B	Std. Error	Beta	T	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3,448	,101		34,056	,000
	Idea.inf.(attr.)	,222	,041	,302	5,442	,000
2	(Constant)	3,686	,145		25,460	,000
	Idea.Inf. (attr.)	,235	,041	,319	5,740	,000
	Mbe (active)	-,134	,059	-,127	-2,281	,023

a Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Co-Workers

The aim of these two different models is to find out what type of leadership behaviour effects “Satisfaction with Co-workers”. In the first step, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” was used as a predictor by itself and it was concluded that here it explains the variance for 9.1 percent. Additionally, the slope of “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” suggests that there is a positive statistically significant relationship at any significance level. In the second step, together with the “Idealised Influence (Attributed)”, a new variable was added, which is “Management by Exception (Active)”. It was found out by adding this variable that our prediction had improved by 1.6 percent, but the significance level of the model dropped to .023. However, it is still statistically significant and can be kept in the model. The slope of “Management by Exception (Active)” is inversely related to the dependent variable (b=-.134). When comparing these two models, it seems that there is no collinearity problem between the two independent variables because the partial coefficient remained pretty much similar to that in the first model and tolerance value of “Management by Exception (Active)” is .981.

In summary, when the model is examined in detail, the parameter values of the coefficients table (.235 and -134) and their “t” values are seen. When “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is significant, “MbE (Active)” does not have a significant effect on the model (sig=.023). While one unit increase in “Idealised Influence

(Attributed)” causes a 2,35 increase in “Satisfaction with Co-workers”, one unit increase in “MbE (Active)” behaviour causes a 1,34 decrease in satisfaction with co-workers. When considered from the standpoint of Bass’ (1985) theory, transformational leadership promotes commitment to friends, supervisors and the organisation. In this table 25, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” behaviour is among the transformational leadership behaviours. Therefore, finding the positive effect of “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” on the “Satisfaction with Co-workers” is a factor which runs parallel to that in Bass’ (1985) theory. In contrast, “MbE (Active)” behaviour is among the characteristics of transactional leadership behaviours. Therefore, it is not surprising to find that “Satisfaction with Co-workers” and “MbE (Active)” behaviours are inversely related.

Model Four

The fourth model aims to find answers to research question number seven. In this model, the variables of “Intellectual Stimulation”, “Marital Status”, “Gender” and “MbE (Passive)” behaviours are considered to have an effect on “Satisfaction with the Nature of Work”. The reason behind this is “Intellectual Stimulation”, which is among the transformational leadership behaviours and it requires that a leader teach others how to conduct the task if subordinates do not know how to. A leader makes them take classes or courses to do their job better; therefore, it should have a positive effect on “Satisfaction with the Nature of Work”. “Marital Status” and “Gender” variables are inserted to test if they have any significant effect on the “Nature of Work”. The fourth variable “MbE (Passive)” is considered as an opposite behaviour to “Intellectual Stimulation”, and which only intervenes when the things go wrong; therefore, “MbE (Passive)” behaviour is expected to have a negative effect on

“Satisfaction with the Nature of Work”.

Table-26, Model Summary Table for Model Four

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square	F	df1	df2	P (Sig.)
1	,275(a)	,075	,072	,78233	,075	24,173	1	296	,000
2	,343(b)	,118	,112	,76556	,042	14,113	1	295	,000
3	,366(c)	,134	,125	,75965	,017	5,605	1	294	,019
4	,382(d)	,146	,134	,75576	,012	4,037	1	293	,045

a Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation,

b Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status,

c Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status, Gender,

d Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status, Gender, MbE (passive)

Table-27, Anova Table for Model Four

Model		Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	P (Sig.)
1	Regression	14,795	1	14,795	24,173	,000(a)
	Residual	181,166	296	,612		
	Total	195,960	297			
2	Regression	23,066	2	11,533	19,678	,000(b)
	Residual	172,894	295	,586		
	Total	195,960	297			
3	Regression	26,301	3	8,767	15,192	,000(c)
	Residual	169,660	294	,577		
	Total	195,960	297			
4	Regression	28,606	4	7,152	12,521	,000(d)
	Residual	167,354	293	,571		
	Total	195,960	297			

a Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation,

b Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status,

c Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status, Gender,

d Predictors: Intellectual Stimulation, Marital Status, Gender, MbE (passive)

e Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Nature of Work

When the significance of the model as a whole is considered, F values are Sig=,000, which shows that the model is significant as a whole at all levels.

Table-28, Coefficients Table for Model Four

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	Sig.
1	(Constant)	3,588	,118		30,468	,000
	Intellectual Stimulation	,229	,047	,275	4,917	,000
2	(Constant)	4,263	,213		19,971	,000
	Intellectual Stimulation	,193	,047	,231	4,142	,000
	Marital Status	-,529	,141	-,210	-3,757	,000
3	(Constant)	5,024	,385		13,059	,000
	Intellectual Stimulation	,206	,047	,247	4,421	,000
	Marital Status	-,528	,140	-,210	-3,780	,000
	Gender	-,410	,173	-,129	-2,368	,019
4	(Constant)	5,134	,387		13,279	,000
	Intellectual Stimulation	,205	,046	,246	4,429	,000
	Marital Status	-,492	,140	-,195	-3,514	,001
	Gender	-,400	,172	-,126	-2,318	,021
	MbE (passive)	-,116	,058	-,109	-2,009	,045

a Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Nature of Work

When the coefficients table is examined, the t results of gender and MbE (passive) are not significant ($\text{sig} > 0,05$).

The first step suggests that “Intellectual Stimulation” by itself explains the total variance by 7.5 percent. When “Marital Status” is added, it improves our prediction on the dependent variable by 4.2 percent more. However, the relationship between “Marital Status” and the dependent variable is negative ($b = -.529$). It seems that there is no collinearity problem between the two variables because the tolerance value of “Marital Status” is .958, which is a good indicator with no collinearity problem. When considered from the standpoint of Bass’ (1985) theory, finding a positive relationship with “Intellectual Stimulation” and “Satisfaction with Nature of Work” are factors which run parallel to the theory of Bass (1985) because the transformational leader supports subordinates while they are conducting the task and teaches how to do a task better. The “Marital Status” variable has been added to test if there is a difference between the married and single officers in their approach to “Satisfaction with Nature of Work”. The negative relationship shows that satisfaction

with nature of work is being effected negatively depending on whether officers are married or single.

In the third step, "Gender" was added as an additional variable to the second model and our prediction improved by 1.7 percent on the dependent variable. The "t" value of "Gender" suggests that it is statistically significant at a .05 level. In addition, the tolerance value of "Gender" indicates no multicollinearity problem among the independent variables (tolerance value for gender is .986). Furthermore, "Gender" is inversely related to the dependent variable ($b = -.410$) and it is statistically significant.

The fourth step suggests that by adding "Management by Exception (Passive)", our prediction improved by 1.2 percent. The tolerance value of "Management by Exception Passive" (.999) indicates no multicollinearity problem between the four independent variables. The slope of the "Management by Exception Passive" is $-.116$ which means that it is inversely related to the dependent variable and statistically significant at a .05 level. When considered from the standpoint of Bass (1985), "MbE (Passive)" behaviour is among the transactional leader behaviours and it is consistent to find that "Satisfaction with Nature of Work" is inversely related to "MbE (Passive)" behaviour.

Model Five

The fifth model aims to find answers to research question number eight. In this model, the variables of “Effectiveness” and “MbE (Passive)” are considered to have effect on “Communication Satisfaction”. The reason behind this is that “Effectiveness” is among the outputs of transformational leadership and there should not be any communication problem if “Effectiveness” is exhibited. In contrast, “MbE (Passive)” behaviour is among the transactional leadership behaviours and it is expected to have a negative effect on “Satisfaction with Communication”.

Table-29, Model Summary Table for Model Five

Model	R	R Square	Adjusted R Square	Std. Error of the Estimate	Change Statistics				
					R Square	F	df1	df2	P (Sig.)
1	,304(a)	,092	,089	,86606	,092	30,059	1	296	,000
2	,357(b)	,127	,121	,85058	,035	11.874	1	295	,001

a Predictors: Effectiveness

b Predictors: Effectiveness, MbE (passive)

Table-30, Anova Table for Model Five

Model	Sum of Squares	Df	Mean Square	F	Sig.	
1	Regression	22,546	1	22,546	30,059	,000(a)
	Residual	222,019	296	,750		
	Total	244,565	297			
2	Regression	31,137	2	15,568	21,518	,000(b)
	Residual	213,428	295	,723		
	Total	244,565	297			

a Predictors: Effectiveness

b Predictors: Effectiveness, MbE (passive)

c Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Communication

The model is significant as a whole (sig=,000).

Table-31, Coefficients Table for Model Five

		B	Std. Error	Beta	t	P (Sig.)
1	(Constant)	2,991	,121		24,727	,000
	Effectiveness	,258	,047	,304	5,483	,000
2	(Constant)	3,358	,160		21,050	,000
	Effectiveness	,240	,046	,283	5,171	,000
	MbE (passive)	-,223	,065	-,189	-3,446	,001

a Dependent Variable: Satisfaction with Communication

In the first step, the researcher wanted to see how “Effectiveness” by itself explains “Satisfaction with Communication”. This variable by itself explains the total variance on dependent variable by 9.2 percent. The slope of “Effectiveness” is positive and statistically significant at any level of alpha.

In the second step, “Management by Exception (Passive)” was added and it was found out that our prediction improved by 3.5 percent more. However, the slope of “Management by Exception (Passive)” is negative (as expected according to theory) and statistically significant at any level of alpha. When we examined the partial coefficient of two models, the first model’s partial coefficient remained pretty much similar. In addition, the tolerance value of “Management by Exception (Passive)” is .988 and suggests no collinearity problem between the two independent variables.

In summary, the coefficients table shows that one unit increase in “Effectiveness” increases the “Satisfaction with Communication” by 2,4 and one unit increase in “MbE (Passive)” decreases the “Satisfaction with Communication” by 2,2. When considered from the standpoint of Bass’ (1985) theory, “Effectiveness” is an output of transformational leader behaviour and it is consistent with the theory to find that “Satisfaction with Communication” is positively related with “Effectiveness” behaviour of the leader. On the other hand, “MbE (Passive)” behaviour is transactional leader behaviour of one who does not communicate with the followers as much as a transformational leader does. Therefore, again parallel to the theory being inversely related to the “Satisfaction with Communication”, is that “MbE (Passive)” behaviour is part of the nature of a transactional leader.

Summary of Findings

In order to check the relationship between the perceived transformational leadership behaviours and job satisfaction, five models were created as stated earlier. The findings of these models are summarised below;

In Model One, “Effectiveness” by itself explains “Overall Job Satisfaction” in a 20 percent variance as an explanatory variable. In the second step, the “Management by Exception (Passive)” variable only increases by 3.7 percent, which can be accepted as a slight improvement for the model. In the third step, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” was added to the model and it was found that the partial effect of “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is more significant than “Effectiveness” (.153 vs .160).

Therefore, it is found in Model One that “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” is as important as “Effectiveness” on “Overall Job Satisfaction”. In addition, the explanatory magnitude of the model was improved by 2.5 percent by adding a third variable. In the last step, the “Marital Status” of the police officers was added to the model and no statistically significant effect of Marital Status on Overall Job Satisfaction could be found.

In Model Two, “Extra Effort” behaviour of transformational leadership was found to explain the “Satisfaction with Supervision” by 39,8 percent. In the second step, “Idealised Influence (Attributed)” was inserted into the model and the explanatory strength increased to 45,3 percent. In the third step, “MbE (Passive)” behaviour was inserted into the model and the explanatory power increased to 48,8 percent. Finally, in the fourth step, “*Laissez-faire*” behaviour was inserted to the model and a significant change could not be observed (Sig=,010). Not surprisingly, it was found in Model Two that “Extra Effort” is a strong predictor of “Satisfaction with

Supervision". It was also found that a one unit increase in "MbE (Passive)" behaviour causes a 1,73 decrease in "Satisfaction with Supervision".

In Model Three, the variables of "Idealised Influence (Attributed)" and "MbE (Active)" were considered to have effect on "Satisfaction with Co-workers". In the first step, it was found that "Idealised Influence (Attributed)" explains the variance for 9.1 percent by itself. In the second step, "Management by Exception (Active)" was added to the model and it was found that, by adding this variable, our prediction had improved by 1.6 percent. It was also found that while one unit increase in "Idealised Influence (Attributed)" causes a 2,35 increase in "Satisfaction with Co-workers", one unit increase in "MbE (Active)" behaviour causes a 1,34 decrease in "Satisfaction with Co-workers".

In Model Four, the variables of "Intellectual Stimulation", "Marital Status", "Gender" and "MbE (Passive)" behaviours were considered to have effect on "Satisfaction with Nature of Work". It was found that "Intellectual Stimulation" by itself explains the total variance for 7.5 percent. When "Marital Status" is added, it improved our prediction on the dependent variable by 4.2 percent more. However, the relationship between "Marital Status" and "Satisfaction with Nature of Work" was found to be negative ($b = -.529$). Therefore, it was found that "Satisfaction with the Nature of Work" is being effected negatively depending on whether officers are married or single. In the third step, "Gender" was added as an additional variable to the second model and our prediction improved by 1.7 percent on the dependent variable and it was also found to be inversely related to the dependent variable ($b = -.410$). In the fourth step, "Management by Exception (Passive)" was added to the model and our prediction improved by 1.2 percent. The slope of the "Management by

Exception (Passive)” was -0.116 , which means that it is inversely related to the dependent variable.

In Model Five, the variables of “Effectiveness” and “MbE (Passive)” are considered to have an effect on “Communication Satisfaction”. It was found that “Effectiveness” by itself explains “Satisfaction with Communication” by 9.2 percent. In the second step, “Management by Exception (Passive)” was added to the model and our prediction improved by 3.5 percent more. However, the slope of “Management by Exception (Passive)” was found to be negative. It was also found that, one unit increase in “Effectiveness” increases the “Satisfaction with Communication” by 2.4 and one unit increase in “MbE (Passive)” decreases the “Satisfaction with Communication” by 2.2. As a conclusion to the five models given above, it can be assessed that job satisfaction is moderately effected by the perceived transformational and transactional or *Laissez-faire* behaviours.

Chapter 7: Conclusion and Recommendations

Findings indicate that the transformational leadership behaviours of the police chiefs working at the Eskisehir Police Department as perceived by the police officers are at the moderate level. Therefore, it is possible to assess that police chiefs who are scored by their officers are “moderate level transformational leaders”. The mean scores of transactional leadership behaviours as perceived by the police officers is also at the moderate level. Perceived *Laissez-faire* behaviour by the police officers is at the low level. The perceived “Extra Effort”, “Effectiveness” and “Satisfaction with Leadership” variables are also found to be at the moderate level as parallel to the findings of transformational leadership. The mean score of “Overall Job Satisfaction” of the police officers is found to be 3,42 over 4 which is a highly desirable result for an organisation.

Before conducting this research, it was expected by the researcher that the transactional leadership behaviour of police chiefs would be more salient and the job satisfaction scores of police officers would be low. In contrast, it was found that the scores of transformational leadership behaviours of police chiefs were higher than those for their transactional leadership behaviours (Tables 15, 16). The reason behind this can be explained as the increase observed in recent years in the quality of “chief police officer” training-including a rapid increase in the number of chief officers to who have completed post-graduate and doctorate education. Furthermore, an increase in variety and competition in terms of human resources for promotion to “chief-officer” positions have all lead to an increase in the parameters of transformational leadership; however, the level is still low, which indicates that there still exist “traditional” and “authoritarian” chief officials in the TNP. These findings also indicate that the police organisation has “just” undergone a transformation.

As it is examined earlier in the transformation of police education section, the Police training system in Turkey is a comprehensive and structured system composed of Police Colleges, Police Academies, the Institute of Security Sciences, Police Vocational High Schools, the Training Department and other units. In recent years, this huge structure has started the transformation from its traditional form to an organisation that attaches great importance to change and improvement and supports academic studies. In-service training is now being given priority, as well as pre-service training, and personnel are starting to feel encouraged to work harder to better themselves with current information. Today, the police training system is open to change and improvement and is in a transformation process. In contrast to this transformation, no solid evidence could be obtained in the literature review to verify that transformational leadership courses, lectures or seminars are being given either to the students of the police academy before their commencement of actual service or to the chiefs of police who actively work in the security department of the TNP. Similarly, no exact information could be gathered to document that chief police officers are given courses, lectures or seminars on the job satisfaction of their personnel. However, as mentioned above, the openness of the system to change and improvement will play a big role in the filling of this gap.

Recommendations

This chapter presents several policy recommendation based on the research findings discussed in Chapter 4. There are three recommendations presented, the first focuses on developing education and training programs to improve leaderships skills among TNP Academy students and current supervisors. The second recommendation focuses on revising hiring and promotion policies that are dependent on the level and

quality of leadership skills of ranking officers. The third and final recommendation addresses the need for further research to expand the literature on transformational leadership in paramilitary hierarchical organizations.

Recommendations for Future Training

As demonstrated in the research findings, current police chiefs of Eskisehir Police Department demonstrate only a moderate level of transformational leadership behaviour as parallel to the findings of the previous research of Yucel (2007) which was conducted among the 4th year Turkish National Police Academy students. Bass's (1998) leadership theory suggests that transformational leadership skills can be taught and improved over time as long as leadership training is provided early on in one's career. Based on the transformational leadership theory, formal education and skill building programs would help to develop effective leaders. Therefore, to improve the quality of leadership skills within the TNP, it is strongly recommended that the TNP Academy curriculum incorporate more training that focuses on leadership skill development in students prior to their graduating.

Other theories suggest that to develop an effective leader it takes time and experience on the job. For example, Maxwell (1993) suggests that individual leadership skills develop over the course of one's career, and to develop more effective leadership skills requires both training and exposure to a role model with strong leadership skills. Therefore, in addition to improving the training for future leaders, it would be beneficial to assess and improve the quality of leadership among currently employed supervisors within the TNP. The implementation of in-service seminar trainings on transformational leadership development and job satisfaction for almost 15,000 ranking officers currently employed throughout the TNP might

significantly improve the overall quality of leadership and management within the TNP organization. If the TNP increases leadership and job satisfaction training options the organization may ultimately experience a sizable reduction of managerial problems and personnel issues across the entire organization.

Recommendations for Future Hiring and Promotions

Recommendation for Revising the Entry Process into the TNP Academy

Because of the level and scope of managerial responsibilities, to achieve success, police supervisors need strong leadership skills. Hiring supervisors with little or no leadership qualities could lead to the overall failure of an organization (Bass, 1998). Keeping in mind that success of an organization is dependent on quality leaders, and failure of an organization often results from inadequate leaders, a revised hiring policy that requires strong leadership skills could change the face of the entire Turkish National Police organization. If all 15,000 supervisors were appropriately trained to lead using transformational style behaviours, the TNP could rise over the shoulders of its supervisors. Therefore new or revised hiring policies may be necessary for achieving overall success. For example, one recommendation may be to develop a policy that regulates eligibility criteria for electing candidates into the Police Academy and capturing individuals who are more recipient to transformational leadership skills.

Recommendation for a Revised Promotion Policy

Another policy that might significantly increase the quality of leadership within the organization is to revise the promotion process. For example, police supervisors with low transformational leadership skills or with strong laissez-fair leadership behaviours may be disqualified from being promoted to the next rank. To capture current supervisors who are resistant to participating in training, an alternative recommendation may be to develop a new policy for realigning supervisors based on their level of leadership skills. For example, officers with low transformational leadership traits may be moved to departments with lower workloads and fewer personnel and those with high transformational leadership traits could be moved to department with more responsibilities, more activity, and higher volumes of personnel. The implications of a policy for the appointment of supervisors based on transformational leadership behaviours of police supervisors may be significant improvement of overall success, effectiveness, personnel motivation and commitment to the organization (Bass, 1985, Lowe, Kroeck & Sivasubramaniam, 1996; DeGroot, Kiker & Cross, 2000; Flores, 2004; Lim & Ployhart, 2004).

Recommendations for Future Research

Future research that focuses on leadership behaviours is necessary for assessing the quality of leadership skills among currently employed supervisors within the TNP. Future research should compare transformational and transactional leadership traits and assess skill levels of currently employed police supervisors working throughout Turkey.

Further research could be conducted using at least two different data measures. The first measure would be to use the “Leader Form” of the MLQ 5X questionnaire

which would assess the different leadership styles among current supervisors based on self-report surveys. The second measure would be to use the “Rater Form” of the MLQ 5X questionnaire which would assess police officers perceptions of their supervisors’ leadership styles. Extensive research is required to capture the various cities (police departments) located throughout Turkey. More extensive research will provide a more accurate profile of police supervisors’ leadership traits and skills.

A third research design would be to compare the data from the two different MLQ 5X data forms, the “Leader” and “Rater” forms to assess the differences between what police supervisors think about their own leadership skills and how other police officers perceive their skills.

A fourth research design would be to examine the perceived leadership behaviours of mid- level police chiefs and their job satisfaction and compare the findings with the job satisfaction of police officers.

Further research may also examine the transformational leadership behaviours of Police Chiefs from the standpoint of demographic variables such as age, gender and cultural differences.

