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**Leadership Styles, Motivational Approaches and
Stereotypes of Women Leaders in Hungary in 2024**

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ABSTRACT

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- a) Nagy, B. (2013). Nők a vállalati vezetőtestületekben és irányításban Magyarországon. *Társadalmi Nemek Tudománya Interdiszciplináris EFolyóirat*, 3(2), 52–63.
<https://www.iskolakultura.hu/index.php/tntef/article/view/33697/32769>
- b) Morgan, M. S. (2017). *Glass ceilings and sticky floors: drawing new ontologies* (K. Chemla & E. Fox Keller, Eds.). Eprints.lse.ac.uk; Duke University Press.
<https://eprints.lse.ac.uk/65859/>
- c) Shanmugam, M., Haigh, R. P., & Amaratunga, R. D. G. (2007). Leadership styles: gender similarities, differences and perceptions. *Semantic Scholar*. 7th International Postgraduate Research Conference in the Built and Human Environment, Salford Quays, UK. <https://www.semanticscholar.org/paper/Leadership-styles-%3A-gender-similarities%2C-and-Shanmugam-Amaratunga/b83c5b565b74ed9169cd56a2a6315056076f3418>

3. Short abstract of the thesis:

The thesis paper is dedicated to analysing women's leadership in Hungary. The primary focus is on conducting an in-depth exploration of leadership styles, motivational techniques, and the challenges faced by women leaders in the country. Additionally, the study aims to identify the leadership styles predominantly adopted by women leaders within Multinational Organizations in Hungary. Furthermore, the paper examines various motivational theories, providing a comparative analysis. It also explores how women leaders effectively motivate their teams. Two fundamental questions drive the research: 1) What leadership styles are commonly practised by women leaders in Hungary? 2) How do women leaders motivate their employees? A robust literature review serves as the foundation for the primary research. To obtain a comprehensive understanding and detailed insights into the research questions, interviews were conducted with women leaders in Hungary. These interviews focused on their leadership styles, motivational strategies, and the challenges they encounter as women leaders.

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Introduction

Eleanor Roosevelt embraced the opportunity to pave the way for women in leadership, breaking barriers and pursuing her ambitions as a First Lady. The prevalence of prejudice against women in leadership roles stems from socially accepted gender roles, hindering their presence in top positions (Wood & Eagly, 2012).

Women have made strides in leadership and are taking on higher positions. Effective leadership involves traditionally feminine qualities like empowering others. It is essential to acknowledge the value of having more women in leadership roles as an inspiration for future generations of women (Wood & Eagly, 2012).

Although there have been some positive strides towards gender equality in leadership, female leaders are often subjected to different perceptions. Some people unfairly emphasise the perceived drawbacks of women in leadership roles, claiming that women make decisions based solely on emotions. Furthermore, their level of acceptance needs to be improved, and their efforts should be more appreciated.

I chose this thesis topic due to my keen interest in the impact of women leaders on management and motivation within an organisational context. It remains relevant today, as women still encounter barriers to reaching leadership positions in 2024. They must consistently prove their value. In Hungary, women leaders have made strides in gaining positions but continue to face challenges in achieving their goals.

The research methods applied in my thesis were the following: In the case of research methods, well-developed and well-researched secondary research is crucial. The main point was to study the literature on the topic with proper materials, such as books, newspaper articles, and internet-type content on the themes of Management and leadership / Motivation theories / Gender studies.

Primary research must support further studies. I conducted a semi-structured interview analysis with professionals, specifically women leaders. These interviews were deeply analysed and compared to previous findings. On the other hand, a structured questionnaire was distributed to team members of confident leaders to examine them from a different perspective. Formulating research questions that were appropriate for the research topic was essential. On the other hand, research questions serve as a guide for the researcher throughout the research process. The questions were formulated based on the subject and the researcher's goal of obtaining answers during the examination. The research questions were carefully crafted to centre on leadership style and motivation. In completing my thesis, I wished to find the answer to the following research questions: What leadership styles are

commonly practised by women leaders in Hungary? How do women leaders inspire and motivate their employees?

To answer my research questions correctly, my thesis will have the following structure: In my first chapter, I will introduce the two critical phenomena, management and leadership. Also, in this chapter, leadership styles are described in detail. In my 2nd chapter, I conduct detailed secondary research on motivation theories. I am highlighting the differences between content and process motivation and bringing in the aspects of extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. In this chapter, I would like to discover practical ways for women leaders to motivate themselves and their team members. The third chapter focuses on women in leadership. The research highlights the positive aspects of women leaders, including their daily challenges and current leadership status in Hungary. The fourth chapter contains the results of my primary study: I interviewed women leaders in Hungary and some team members of those leaders. I was mainly curious about how women leaders perceive themselves as leaders—their motivational tools and their current difficulties. Finally, in my conclusion, I summarise my research results, highlight the essential parts and check if I have found answers to my research questions.

Chapter I: Management and Leadership

This chapter analyses the core meaning of management and leadership. It also profoundly explains and compares leadership styles. The organisation and organisational culture are also examined.

1.1. Management and Leadership

Effective leadership is crucial to reducing attrition rates and achieving organisational goals productively in today's global and competitive environment. Leadership styles influence employee performance and productivity and significantly enhance the quality of work life (Nanjundeswaraswamy & Swamy, 2014). Leaders have diverse perspectives on leadership, influenced by various factors such as gender, organisation type, national culture, and organisational culture. These elements shape leaders' understanding and preferences regarding leadership (Ünal, 2017).

The two phenomena, management and leadership, are actively used together. Although they seem to have similar meanings, there are sharp differences in the responsibilities of the two areas. To distinguish between the two, we first must define both.

1.1.1. Management

Management has been the best outcome of the last 100 years, and the development of the past twentieth century is a response to the emergence of complex organisations. The unwavering commitment to exceptional management has resulted in remarkable consistency in critical aspects such as the standard of quality and overall profitability (Kotter, 2008).

In the past century, managers and consultants have redefined the processes, creating the core of modern management nowadays. The processes are planning and budgeting. This phase sets targets and goals for the future, considering next month or next year. It also helps establish detailed steps to achieve targets. It may include timetables and guidelines that help allocate resources to achieve plans (Kotter, 2008).

The second process is organising and staffing. Establishing an organisational structure and allocating jobs are essential in achieving planned targets. For success, jobs must be given to qualified individuals. They must communicate the plan, delegate responsibility, carry it out, and establish systems to monitor the implementation (Kotter, 2008).

Last but not least, controlling and problem-solving. Monitoring the results helps collect valuable information for future decision-making processes. Monitoring can be reporting, monitoring or other information-collecting tools. These checking systems help to highlight so-called problems, and then, with this planning and organising, we can start to solve the issues (Kotter, 2008).

Considering the explained steps, modern management aims to produce consistent results on key dimensions expected by stakeholders, customers, and employees. Its creation management helped keep complex organisations on time and budget, which is still its primary function (Kotter, 2008).

1.2. A leader

A supervisor's role encompasses task coordination and management. Contrastingly, a leader shoulders a more substantial burden of responsibility. Leaders navigate various issues and determine their appropriate resolutions without being guided by stress or unexpected challenges, all while prioritising the well-being of their team. Central to this responsibility is effective communication with employees, addressing their needs proactively rather than reactively. Material motivations are not always necessary; a simple gesture of support can foster a positive environment, as emphasised by Thomas Erikson (2018). Successful leadership promotes a cohesive working relationship with outstanding collaboration and mutual understanding. Leaders must also be willing to seek assistance when needed, understanding their essential role in guiding the team towards success. Leaders maintain significant influence over organisational outcomes compared to their subordinates. While formal education on leadership is limited, theoretical knowledge is widely available; practical training, however, remains limited (Erikson, 2018).

Effective leadership combines managerial duties with engaging employees in development. An effective leader ensures that employees have guidance, resources, and encouragement. This means task delegation, instruction, support, and motivation. Eventually, leaders' effectiveness is underscored by their ability to plan, provide feedback, and inspire their teams toward shared goals (Erikson, 2018).

A leadership role calls for a significant responsibility beyond a pure title within the organisational structure. This position carries with it duties, authority, and specific obligations. A leader's role involves decision-making, setting objectives, and achieving tangible outcomes. It is a varied position that demands proactive engagement in defining and meeting goals (Erikson, 2018).

Leadership is not slightly a directive on behaviour but a role full of responsibilities and tasks essential for organisational success (Erikson, 2018).

1.2.1. Leadership

From another point of view, the topic of leadership is ageless. The word leadership has two meanings in everyday life. On the one hand, it refers to directing and mobilising people and

their ideas. On the other hand, it can describe a group of people in a formal context, a position (Kotter, 2008).

As discussed earlier, leadership describes movement. Many individuals have been leaders and created changes (Kotter, 2008).

Good leadership has been disputed for a long time (Kotter, 2008). Leadership can be described as suitable or competent, moving people and ending up better. In this belief, the outcome is constructive or adaptive change. Leadership within a complex organisation can achieve this function with three subprocesses. The first subprocess is establishing direction and developing a vision for the future with strategies to create changes and achieve the desired vision. Further on, aligning people is essential to communicating people's direction. Their cooperation is needed as they understand the vision and have the same aim of being committed to the achievements. The third part is motivating and inspiring. They keep people on the right track and inspired by human needs, values and emotions (Kotter, 2008).

1.3. Leadership Qualities (Competencies)

The personal skills and competencies of the leader highly shape a leadership style's competence. Emotional intelligence is crucial as well. In many instances, emotional intelligence is a more dominant factor for a leader's success than intellectual wisdom (Balassa, 2014). Individuals with high emotional intelligence can efficiently inspire and motivate employees. They can use diverse leadership styles tailored to various circumstances and individual personalities (Goleman, 2001). Leadership and organisational culture encounter challenges from various factors while being approved by others. These factors can be categorised into three distinct groups: individual attributes that hinder or enhance progress, traits associated with organisational culture, and broader organisational elements (Goleman, 2001).

In practical terms, individual attributes apply to the qualities exhibited by leaders, which can be further classified into obstructive and beneficial components (Balassa, 2014). Obstructive employees are more likely to exhibit risk aversion, slow proactivity, bad attitudes, unclear personal views and a belief in their inappropriateness. Suppression of emotions and over-rationalization; a strong desire to control others and events; a focus on status and prestige; mistrust; engaging in win-lose scenarios; and a reluctance to accept weaknesses and mistakes (Balassa, 2013). Employees who are obstructive have openness to novelty, a problem-solving mindset, accountability for errors, and a defined personal vision and objectives. They have a strong desire for progress and advancement, readiness to address personal

shortcomings, capability to delegate authority, self-assurance, a drive for mutually beneficial outcomes, and empathy towards one's and others' emotional needs (Balassa, 2013).

1.4. Leadership styles

Researchers study leadership styles year by year. The increasing focus on strategic and effective leadership has become outstanding due to organisations' challenges in maintaining profitability, productivity, and competitive advantage. Leadership and leadership styles have emerged as essential areas of study, with various theories contributing to a deeper understanding of this field (Ünal, 2017). These theories highlight how leaders motivate organisations towards extraordinary outcomes by inspiring high motivation, respect, trust, commitment, loyalty, and performance among their team members. Diverse leadership style theories offer insights into different leadership contexts, with some emphasising traits and others highlighting behaviours to describe leadership styles. While specific theories characterise leaders as authoritative figures, others portray them as facilitators, educators, or team collaborators (Ünal, 2017).

In general, three leadership styles are differentiated. Nanjundeswaraswamy and Swamy (2014) found that leadership style, organisational commitment and work satisfaction are interrelated. These three styles are autocratic, democratic and laissez-faire (Klein, 2002).

In the 1940s, Kurt Lewin created an experiment to identify and analyse leadership styles. His early studies were influential and established the three major leadership styles. The experiment that led to the description of the three styles included schoolchildren assigned to groups with a leader, each using a different leadership style (Billig, 2014).

The group with the autocratic leader had a cold atmosphere. Leadership and control was in the adult's hands. He was aggressive and apathetic towards the children. The children could only do the work within the group with the leader. Their working morale and outcomes were poor quality. In the case of motivation, the leader used extrinsic motivational tools (Billig, 2014).

In the democratic group, the team was guided by the leader. The children cooperated strongly while working together but only received advice from the leader. As a result, teamwork developed between the children. Their working morale was intense, and they were motivated by intrinsic tools (Billig, 2014).

Last, the third group was led by a Laissez-faire leader, meaning the unwillingness to influence other people's activities (Cambridge Dictionary, 2019). The children worked individually and were treated as individuals. The leader had no participation in the group. As a result, the work within the group was aimless. The children became bored and

frustrated. There was no aim or motivation to succeed within the group (Billig, 2014). This is how the three main leadership styles were described.

1.4.1. Authoritarian Leadership Style

Authoritarians are well known for their decision-making and control over tasks (Ünal, 2017). Leaders who practice authoritarian leadership possess complete control over their subordinates and rarely consider advice from their followers. This style relies on threats and penalties to influence employees, creating a motivational environment through a structured system of rewards and punishments (Ünal, 2017).

Under authoritarian leadership, followers are required to follow orders without explanations. In this style, leaders are expected to make decisions independently, even when team members encounter challenges. Autocratic leaders generally base their choices on personal thoughts and assessments, providing solutions for the entire group (Ünal, 2017).

An autocratic leader usually prepares the decision-making process independently, and the leader decides by himself at the final point. In the case of communication, their style is aggressive, and they tend to enjoy competition and create competing situations (Hersey et al., 1977). The autocratic leader prefers to use instructions and commands as leadership methods. Their focus is always on the desired goal. Despite aiming for competition, the leader usually reduces the level of risk-taking. They stay within their best practices and comfort zones (Csepeli, 1997). They require autonomy in work but do not give freedom to others (Hersey et al., 1977).

On the other side, an autocratic leader has a positive side. Autocratic leadership can show an advantage in specific cases when crucial decisions need to be made without extra consultation. There are examples where critical leadership is essential for immediate and effective project completion. Team members might favour an autocratic approach in high-pressure situations like military conflicts. It helps them to concentrate on completing the assigned tasks without the duty of complex decision-making. This approach develops expertise among team members in case of specific responsibilities from which the group benefits (Cherry, 2018).

Although autocratic leadership can have its advantages, it can also bring challenges. Individuals who misuse this style are often seen as controlling and authoritarian. It may lead to resentment among team members. Since autocratic leaders tend to make decisions independently, group members may feel left out, limiting their ability to contribute ideas. Studies have shown that autocratic leadership can destroy innovative problem-solving, negatively impacting the group's performance. Besides the opposing sides of this style,

leaders can tackle this style effectively. For instance, an autocratic leadership style can be suitable when the leader must provide unique knowledge or information unavailable to other group members (Cherry, 2018).

1.4.2. Democratic leadership style

Democratic leadership is a powerful and effective style of leadership that promotes collaboration, open communication, and collective decision-making. The democratic leader makes decisions after being concerned. They emphasise the importance of reaching a concern when solving issues. A democratic leader involves colleagues in decision-making processes and allows them autonomy. In this approach, leaders listen to team members and consider their input while making the final decision. They aim to make compromises and reach goals by convincing the team members. They tend to be assertive. This means the leader can communicate assertively and express themselves confidently. Consciously and honestly acknowledges feelings, needs and wants. (Hersey et al., 1977). Subordinates are expected to be involved in the process, fostering a sense of participation. They are performance-oriented, but they always remember human factors. The vision is well communicated, and the organisation's participants can easily follow the path to reach the goal. They judge and give opinions objectively. It also provides supporting feedback (Klein, 2002).

The positive side is that the democratic leader encourages group members to share their thoughts, which can result in better ideas and more innovative problem-solving solutions. This approach requires involvement and commitment among group members, leading to a more significant investment in project outcomes. Studies on leadership styles have indicated that democratic leadership enhances group productivity (Cherry, 2018).

While democratic leadership is often regarded as the most effective style, it has drawbacks. Uncertainty about roles or time limitations may result in communication breakdowns and unfinished projects. Sometimes, team members need more expertise to provide valuable input in the decision-making process. Democratic leadership is most successful when team members are experienced and willing to share their insights. It is crucial to give enough time for contributions, planning, and selecting the most suitable way to act through voting (Cherry, 2018).

1.4.3. Laissez-faire leadership style

The laissez-faire leader assumes the organisation can achieve its goals without constant external impact. This leadership style, also called delegated leadership, means ineffective leadership. It is self-restrained and limited; it avoids leadership responsibilities.

Communication is assertive, yet it may also be passive in some situations. It lowers the interactions between employees (Hersey et al., 1977).

Conflict resolution typically follows an adaptive or conflict-avoidant approach (Hersey et al., 1977). The goal is to bring out employees' creativity. Creating a work environment where everyone is trying to stand out is favoured. Emphasising performance is crucial for success. However, being cautious and fearful in decision-making can hinder progress (Csepeli, 1997). No interruptions, no compliments, and no critique (Hersey et al., 1977).

Laissez-faire leadership can be effective when group members are skilled, motivated, and independent. While this style is traditionally hands-off, many leaders can still provide guidance and feedback to team members (Cherry, 2018).

In some cases, laissez-faire leadership may only be suitable when team members have the needed knowledge or experience to accomplish tasks and make decisions. Some individuals need help setting deadlines, overseeing projects, and solving issues independently. In these circumstances, projects may deviate from the desired goal, and deadlines may be overlooked if team members do not receive the needed guidance or feedback from their leaders (Cherry, 2018).

1.4.4. Charismatic leadership style

In 1958, Max Weber introduced his theory of authority, outlining three key categories: Traditional authority, rational-legal authority, and charismatic authority. These elements represent the opposite principles of social leadership, based on respect for rules and adherence to guidelines (Social Student, 2013). Based on Weber's concept, charismatic leadership involves a leader with exceptional qualities. The leader inspires others with their vision. This leadership style is often used when leading social or political movements. However, charismatic leadership is fragile as it relies on faith and belief, which, when diminished, can lead to a loss of authority (Social Student, 2013).

Charismatic authority relies on a leader's ability to maintain moral influence and well-being over followers. According to Weber, charisma is a unique quality in an individual that gives them almost supernatural powers, leading to loyalty and obedience among followers (Social Student, 2013). Weber noted that charismatic leadership declines due to "routinisation," where influence diminishes as structures become institutionalised. When routinisation occurs, charismatic authority becomes bureaucratic or traditional forms (Social Student, 2013).

On the other hand, theories of charismatic leadership centre on the leader's personality, qualities, behaviour, the characteristics of the social and organisational context, and the

followers' attributes. Charismatic leaders often have high self-confidence, strong authority, and reduced affiliation needs. Such a leader typically communicates a compelling vision, supports a particular ideology, sets high standards for subordinates, leads by example, and is willing to make personal sacrifices (Balassa, 2013).

Conger and Kanungo (1994) developed a questionnaire to measure charismatic leadership behaviour. The study reanalysed data and conducted three additional studies in the US, Canada, and India. Results supported a five-factor charismatic leadership model and showed the scale's reliability and validity across different contexts (Conger et al., 2009).

Phases of charismatic leadership:

1. Identification
2. Increasing activation of subordinates
3. Commitment to vision
4. Disappointment from routine changes
5. Depersonalization due to bureaucratic processes
6. Alienation from the organisation due to uncertainties and role changes (Conger et al., 2009).

This leadership style focuses on inspiring devotion, commitment, and high performance based on core values and a performance-oriented approach (Conger et al., 2009).

1.4.5. Transactional leadership style

Transactional leadership is a traditional style characterised by transactions between leaders, colleagues, and followers. These transactions are based on discussions between leaders and followers about the requirements and awards they receive to satisfy their needs (Ünal, 2017). They function within the existing organisational culture, aligning their decisions and conduct with their organisations' established norms and protocols (Bass & Avolio, 1993). Transactional leadership primarily emphasises work standards and is task-oriented. Leaders who favour this style focus on achieving specific goals without focusing on employees' personal development. They clearly define followers' responsibilities and roles, providing rewards for positive performance and punishments for adverse outcomes, often based on pay or other incentives. Transactional leaders closely monitor their followers' work to follow the agreed procedures, which require power, authority and control to maintain effectiveness (Ünal, 2017).

1.4.6. Transformational leadership style

Transformational leadership is seen as the opposite of transactional leadership. The leadership style is connected to positive behavioural features, such as motivation, emotional

connection, and a sense of efficacy. These behaviour characteristics support the team, work efficiency, and development towards the desired goal (Ünal, 2017).

Further on, transformational leaders are characterised by the four Is (Bass & Avolio, 1993). The four factors include influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Transactional leaders are confident in creating arrangements and keeping the past influence from making future decisions. Transactional leaders focus on creating a successful vision and long-term goals, changing systems, evolving together, and training others (Khan et al., 2016). Leaders who favour transformational leadership must possess strong integrity and honesty, charismatic behaviour, and the skill to motivate followers by encouraging creativity and collaboration (Ünal, 2017).

Transformational leaders blend creative insight, persistence, energy, intuition, and sensitivity to address the needs of others. On the other hand, transactional leaders are known for their styles of conditional rewards and exceptional leadership (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

To establish a highly innovative and satisfying organisational culture, the leader must assume people are trustworthy and purposeful, becoming a transformational leader (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

1.4.7. Situational leadership style

Although situational leadership often centres around the leader, it underlines the importance of group dynamics. These leadership styles include directing others (autocratic), involving others in planning and decision-making (democratic), and giving autonomy with minimal guidance (laissez-faire). A servant leader prioritises followers' needs to enhance their independence and knowledge. Encouraging positive support, merit-based promotions, improved performance, and fostering cooperation can contribute to a collaborative work environment (Khan et al., 2016). That is why the situational leadership style is more like a mix of different leadership styles.

1.4.8. Servant Leadership style

It prefers power-sharing models of authority and encourages collective decision-making. Servant leadership theory integrates ethical, relational, and outcome-based dimensions to offer a meaningful approach to leadership. It highlights practices like establishing a higher purpose, simplifying procedures, and empowering employees. This leadership style leads to positive outcomes such as enhanced corporate citizenship, work engagement, and sales performance while reducing turnover intention. Servant leadership emphasises serving people first and achieving a vision that benefits the community. It incorporates situational,

transformational, and personal trait dimensions. It differs from transformational leadership because it prioritises people over results and has a unique leadership intent. It also sets itself apart from transactional leadership by its serving practices to attain outcomes (Coetzer et al., 2017).

Based on the research of Coetzer et al. (2017), the study on servant leadership identified characteristics, including authenticity, humility, and accountability. Competencies such as building relationships and caring were highlighted. Servant leadership positively impacts individual outcomes like work engagement and job satisfaction, team outcomes like group identification, and organisational outcomes like customer service performance (Coetzer et al., 2017).

1.4.9. Evaluation of Leadership Styles

In evaluating the effectiveness of various leadership styles, researchers found that the authoritarian leadership group demonstrated the highest group performance, followed by the democratic leadership group, while the laissez-faire leadership group exhibited the lowest productivity (Csepeli, 1997). Nevertheless, the trade-off for keeping peak performance becomes seeable in the presence of an autocratic leader. This dynamic often leads to tension and aggression within the group, characterised by authoritative conduct, derogatory remarks, and self-promotion among team members (Klein, 2002). The prominent group advocating laissez-faire leadership showed the lowest performance and work quality. They needed to establish a positive working environment. Members experienced disconnection and lacked motivation because of no clear sense of purpose. It is attributed to the leader's passive management style (Klein, 2002). The group operating under democratic leadership created a highly positive atmosphere. Members showed honest concern for one another and remained steady in pursuing a common goal. They openly expressed their viewpoints and became an example of a collaborative spirit (Klein, 2002). All in all, different leadership styles may impact organisational effectiveness or performance (Nahavandi, 2009).

1.5. Leadership communication

A leader's strong communication skills are paramount in effectively engaging with employees. These essential skills are necessary for the leader's message to reach its intended recipients regardless of significance (Erikson, 2018). Communication should encompass appreciation, delegation, clear instructions, constructive criticism, and support. Failure in these aspects can impede effective communication (Erikson, 2018).

The individual assuming a leadership role must adeptly navigate interpersonal relationships. Leadership inherently involves effective communication, as understanding others requires

adept conversational skills. A leader must be able to guide others effectively, fostering motivation and enthusiasm within the team. Leadership is defined by actions taken, emphasising conduct that cultivates eagerness, loyalty, and trust among team members (Erikson, 2018).

Those aspiring to leadership roles should also strive to excel in communication. Effectively engaging with employees is outstanding for making a meaningful impact (Erikson, 2018).

1.5.1. Communication orientation

When considering leadership orientation, one can distinguish between case-oriented and relationship-oriented approaches. There is a primary divergence in their focal points. Case-oriented individuals prioritise task completion over interpersonal dynamics. They concentrate on task accomplishment rather than team composition. This orientation places importance on the task. The essential attributes of case-oriented individuals include a pragmatic approach to problem-solving and a tendency to remain unaffected by emotional considerations. Their remarkable strength lies in their unwavering ability to focus and drive towards accomplishing tasks. However, a drawback of this approach is the potential disregard for the opinions and perspectives of team members. Case-oriented leaders may initiate projects without fully considering input from others, potentially leading to conflicts. Most individuals lean towards a case-oriented mindset, and clashes can arise due to perceived insensitivity or a lack of consideration for others' viewpoints (Erikson, 2018). Leaders who prioritise relationships focus on nurturing connections within their workforce and workplace. This strategy emphasises the importance of interpersonal bonds without compromising task completion. Successful teamwork relies on employees comprehending their responsibilities and fostering effective communication within their respective departments, enhancing overall operational efficiency.

1.6. Organisation

An effective organisation requires tactical and strategic thinking, and its culture is built by its leaders. Strategic thinking helps to create the vision of the organisation's future. When the culture is created to be dedicated and support the vision, then the vision can emerge and move forward. On the one hand, the culture is created by what the vision holds; on the other hand, the vision may determine the characteristics of the organisational culture (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

1.6.1. Organisational culture

Culture and leadership have a strong relationship. Culture is crucial in establishing leadership styles (Ünal, 2017). Leaders establish mechanisms for cultural growth and uphold

the norms and behaviours that reflect the culture's boundaries. The culture changes and develops norms regarding what the leader focuses on. Further on, how crises are handled, what behaviours are supported and what type of colleagues are attracted to the organisation. The leadership creates the culture, and then it is followed and accepted by its followers (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

For instance, transactional leaders operate within their organisational culture's established rules, procedures, and norms. In contrast, transformational leaders alter the culture by comprehending it initially and then reshaping it to reflect a new vision and revised shared assumptions, values, and norms (Bass & Avolio, 1993).

Cultural sensitivities, beliefs, and nuances are crucial in defining leadership. These elements are the guiding principles that leaders use to make decisions and assess individuals and events. Cultural values significantly impact the leadership styles demonstrated by leaders. In recent years, there has been significant progress in enhancing the involvement and empowerment of women in the business area. Notably, more women are taking on leadership roles in boardrooms. The business world's attention has shifted towards empowering women, and this focus has extended to the academic sphere. Scholars are delving into female leaders' perspectives and their leadership approaches. The leadership styles of female leaders have emerged as a critical area of interest for academic research (Ünal, 2017).

1.7. Culture and leadership style

National culture influences leadership, impacting theories and practices. Leadership is not universal but varies based on gender and culture, as cultural traditions, values, beliefs, and norms shape leadership styles (Ünal, 2017).

Culture holds patterns of behaviour transmitted through symbols, shaping human groups. National culture influences values, attitudes, and behaviours, impacting leadership styles, emergence, and effectiveness. Cultural values guide leaders' decisions and evaluations. Leadership styles vary across cultures based on norms and beliefs. National culture moderates the relationship between leadership behaviours and outcomes, affecting workplace dynamics and authority evaluations. Leadership styles are influenced by personal values within the national culture, highlighting the explanatory power of national culture on leadership styles (Ünal, 2017).

Chapter 2: Effective motivation in organisations

2. Motivation

Motivation significantly influences human behaviour and performance, impacting organisational performance across all aspects (Tan, 2013). Numerous researchers have analysed and defined the concept of motivation, with early definitions offered by Whisenand (Whisenand, 1988). Rollnick and Miller (2003) defined motivation as the driving force that inspires individuals to act and focus on their decisions to pursue their goals. Saraswathi (2011) describes motivation as the drive to dedicate substantial effort towards organisational objectives, driven by the potential of that effort to meet personal needs. The definition highlights three main elements: effort, organisational goal, and need.

Various researchers have provided definitions of motivation that share common meanings, such as drive, energise, and action. They concur that an individual's motivation begins with identifying a currently absent desire, leading to a mental aspiration to accomplish a goal and eventually resulting in physical actions to fulfil that desire. Workplace motivation theories are classified as process or content motivation (Miljus et al., 1971). In the following section, the two motivation theories will be deeply analysed.

2.1. Content Motivation

Content theories highlight the factors employees need motivation to enhance their performance ultimately. Job satisfaction is attained when work responsibilities contribute to personal growth and development. This means that everyone in an organisation has similar daily needs, which allows organisations to anticipate and adjust job characteristics accordingly. The Motivational Theories, or the Content Theories, focus on the essential elements that drive the individual forward. Examples include McClelland's theory of achievement, affiliation and need for power; Alderfer's ERG model; Herzberg's two-factor model; and Maslow's hierarchy of needs. According to these views, our actions are driven by the need to satisfy unmet needs. Maslow's theory, for example, emphasises that higher-order or 'growth' needs, including self-actualisation and career fulfilment, are secondary to satisfying basic needs such as food, shelter and security (physiological needs). On the other hand, models such as the ERG suggest that motivation may come from reachable goals instead of simply unsatisfied needs (Jeanes, 2019).

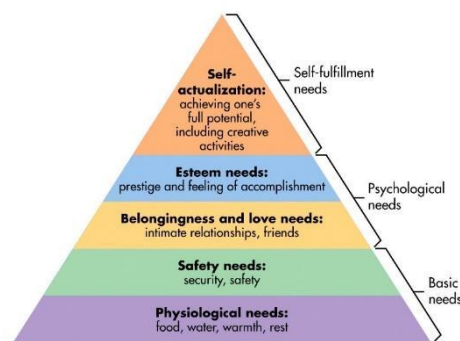
2.1.1. Process Motivation

Process theories centre on employees' behaviours influenced by individual needs. Job satisfaction is achieved when job expectations and values are in harmony. These theories explore how expectations, needs, and values interact with job tasks to determine satisfaction.

Various workplace motivation theories, categorised under process theory, address employees' diverse needs and the cognitive processes driving them. They analyse the origins and rationales behind employees' behaviours and the incentives impacting the intensity and direction of these behaviours (Whatmore & Lynne, 2021). Process theories underscore that employees' behaviours are shaped by their needs, maintaining that motivation arises when the job aligns with expectations and values. These theories concentrate on how employees' expectations, needs, values, and interactions intersect with their job tasks to drive motivation. They show how individual behaviour is inspired and sustained through self-directed cognitive processes. All process theories advocate that employees' varied needs and mental processes should be considered (Lynne, 2012). Critical process theories concerning job satisfaction and motivation include Vroom's expectancy theory, Adam's equity theory, Locke's goal-setting theory, Skinner's reinforcement theory, and Pink's motivation theory.

2.2. Maslow Motivation Pyramid

Abraham Maslow, born on April 1, 1908, in Brooklyn, New York, introduced Maslow's hierarchy, a groundbreaking psychological theory, in 1943 (Gherman, 2012). In 1954, Maslow endeavoured to consolidate studies on human needs and motivation. Later, he expanded this concept by adding his additional research findings. His theories aim to outline various developmental stages in human growth. Maslow's theory was extensively detailed in his 1954 book, "Motivation and Personality" (Maslow, 1954). Abraham Maslow formulated a personality theory that has significantly impacted various fields. Maslow's hierarchy of human needs has five levels (Maslow, 1954).



1. Figure The Maslow Pyramid (Comberg, 2011)

The pyramid builds up from bottom to top. The first stage is physiological needs, including food, water, sleep, and shelter, which are essential for the human body. When adequately met, these needs take precedence, serving as the primary motivators without the necessity for any other need to drive motivation.

Safety and security needs include stability, safeguarding from illness, physical harm, financial crises, unforeseen elements, and the requirement for organisation, regulation, and legal frameworks. The need for security becomes more prominent and essential in specific scenarios like wartime, pandemics, calamities, societal breakdowns, economic downturns, psychological stress, and ongoing adverse conditions (Maslow, 1954).

Social needs come from human beings' social inclinations. Initially termed belonging needs by Maslow, these needs take various forms: The need for affiliation involves the wish to connect with friends and peers and to engage with others in informal or formal settings. The need for affection is a common social requirement that operates in two ways: from an individual to others and reciprocally. The need for cooperation arises as a potent human need linked to the need for affiliation. It is predominantly observed in organisations through teamwork (Maslow, 1954).

The requirement for esteem within two distinct groups, based on their approach angle, can be internal or external. Internal needs in terms of national esteem encompass the longing for power, accomplishment, confidence, independence, and freedom. Externally, the desire is for reputation, prestige, status, fame, recognition, dignity, and discretion. Fulfilling these needs results in self-assurance, self-awareness, a sense of usefulness, and an essential feeling in the world (Gherman, 2012).

The need for self (self-actualisation) is an individual's aspiration to develop a unique personality in alignment with their potential and the constraints imposed by reality. Meeting this need enables the individual to actualise their potential and available capabilities while neglecting it will lead to escalating needs (Maslow, 1954).

If a need is not fulfilled, those at the bottom of the hierarchy should be addressed first. Once a level of need is adequately met, the focus can shift to the next level. Once a need is fulfilled, it loses its power to motivate. Higher personal needs hold a more significant motivational influence than lower needs, and their impact lasts longer (Maslow, 1954).

Maslow states that certain preconditions must be met to fulfil basic needs. These conditions are essential for needs to be satisfied, as they act as threats if not present. (Maslow, 1954).

Interconnected needs must be fulfilled to reach their full potential, satisfying lower-level needs while aiming for self-actualisation. Higher-order needs do not always follow a strict hierarchy; different categories of needs can be active simultaneously (Maslow, 1954).

2.2.1. Herzberg Two-Factor Theory

Frederick Herzberg's Two-Factor theory was designed in 1959. Based on research which analysed two hundred pieces of feedback from engineers and accountants in the USA about

their feelings towards their working environment. Herzberg identified two motivation and hygiene factors influencing employees' work attitudes and performance levels. Motivation factors are internal elements that boost job satisfaction among employees. Hygiene factors are external elements that aim to prevent employee dissatisfaction. Herzberg argued that simply providing all Hygiene factors does not guarantee job satisfaction. To enhance employee performance and productivity, it is essential to focus on addressing Motivation factors (Tan, 2013).

The two-factor theory is closely associated with Maslow's hierarchy of needs. However, it expands on this concept by introducing additional factors that assess how individuals are driven in the workplace. According to this theory, addressing individuals' basic needs (extrinsic or hygiene factors) does not motivate them to work harder; it only prevents dissatisfaction. Organisations must fulfil higher-level needs (intrinsic or motivational factors) to inspire employees. Meeting extrinsic needs prevents dissatisfaction but does not boost motivation for enhanced performance. Organisations should encourage employees to provide intrinsic motivational factors (Robbins & Judge, 2021).

According to the theory of motivation, Extrinsic Factors are less likely to fulfil employees' motivational needs. These factors are to prevent dissatisfaction in the workplace. They are known as job context factors. Extrinsic Factors are external rewards others provide to employees. They help employers establish a positive work environment where employees feel at ease. When these external elements are met, employees are covered from adverse working conditions that could lead to dissatisfaction, though they may not feel particularly satisfied or motivated. Conversely, failing to meet employees' Extrinsic Factors needs can result in job dissatisfaction. Intrinsic Factors, on the other hand, directly impact employees' job satisfaction. These factors, known as job content factors, aim to offer employees fulfilling work experiences through meaningful tasks, responsibilities, learning opportunities, and achievements (Robbins & Judge, 2021).

Intrinsic Factors are crucial in promoting lasting positive effects on employees' job performance as they cater to their fundamental psychological growth needs. When employees' motivational needs are met, their productivity and efficiency increase. The theory also suggests that Intrinsic and Extrinsic Factors are interconnected. While extrinsic factors can eliminate job dissatisfaction, they are insufficient in providing job satisfaction. In contrast, a robust supply of Intrinsic Factors nurtures employees' personal growth and development, leading to enhanced productivity and performance. These factors are

necessary for employees to feel satisfied with their jobs. Extrinsic Factors may (Robbins & Judge, 2021).

These two categories of factors, Extrinsic and Intrinsic, are not necessarily opposites, as the absence of satisfaction does not equate to dissatisfaction but rather a lack of satisfaction. Similarly, the absence of dissatisfaction does not mean satisfaction but rather a state of neither dissatisfaction nor satisfaction (Robbins & Judge, 2021).

2.2.2. Alderfer's ERG theory

Clayton Alderfer revised Maslow's hierarchy of needs, decreasing it from five levels to three core needs: existence, relatedness, and growth. Existence needs include physiological and safety requirements, relatedness needs to involve love and belongingness, and growth needs to encompass self-esteem and self-actualisation desires. Relatedness and growth needs are considered higher-order needs. The ERG theory compares to a starving artist who may prioritise creating art over bare existence needs such as food or shelter. Individuals may revert to lower needs for contentment (Redmond, 2010).

2.2.3. McClelland's theory

McClelland's theory of needs delves into the higher-order needs, such as social and esteem needs, in Maslow's hierarchy. The achievement motivation theory explores individual needs and external influences, shaping three fundamental human motives: the need for achievement, power, and affiliation. Individuals exhibiting a solid need for achievement embrace challenges, take charge, and strive to overcome obstacles to achieve their objectives. This drive propels them towards swift career advancements, personal growth, and triumph (Sahito & Vaisanen, 2017).

2.2.4. Lock's theory

Locke's goal-setting theory is a motivational model similar to the expectancy theory. Key motivation factors include setting specific and challenging goals and committing to achieving them. Goals represent future desires and guide behaviour towards success, inspiring individuals to excel. Measurable, particular goals result in higher performance compared to general goals. According to Locke, motivation is enhanced when goals are specific and challenging, providing a basis for performance assessment, feedback, commitment, and acknowledgement. Organisational and managerial goal setting influences employees' behaviour and performance positively. When implemented correctly, goal setting is a potent tool to boost motivation and performance within an organisation (Locke & Latham, 2002).

2.2.5. Vroom's theory

Researchers and professionals widely embrace Vroom's expectancy theory of motivation, which emerged in the 1960s as an alternative to content-based models. The theory examines the relationship between motivation, expectations of individual performance and the expected outcome of that performance, in other words, valence, expectancy, and instrumentality. Valence relates to the desire for a reward, expectancy involves the belief in successful task performance, and instrumentality focuses on the connection between performance and reward receipt. The motivational equation is expressed as $\text{Motivation} = \text{Valence} \times \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality}$ ($V \times E \times I$). Valence represents the strength and personal value attached to an outcome, with high valence leading to high motivation. Vroom's expectancy theory, a cognitive process model, analyses how employee motivation is influenced within various organisational settings. It emphasises perceiving and anticipating consequences to predict behavioural outcomes (Butler & Rose, 2011).

2.2.6. Adam's equity theory

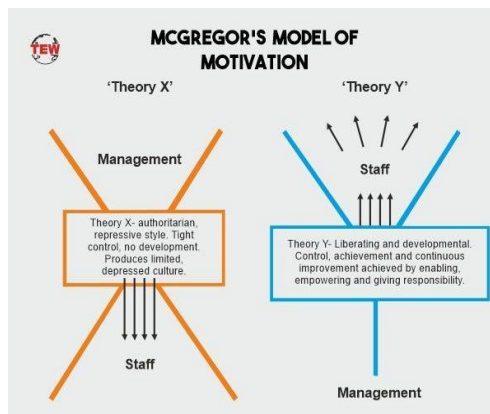
Adam's equity theory is derived from the social comparison theory. It is recognised as one of the most popular social exchange theories. According to Adam's equity theory, the level of equity or inequity plays a crucial role in job performance. Also, individuals' satisfaction in their work environment is high. Equity is achieved when the percentage of an individual's outputs to inputs matches another person, while inequity arises when the ratios differ. Inputs such as education, social status, qualifications, age, and organisational position are compared to rewards like pay and promotions, which are the outputs. The theory assumes that individuals evaluate their performance, attitudes, contributions to work, and benefits by comparing them with others in the organisation. Their motivation is influenced by the perceived fairness of the rewards they receive for their efforts compared to their peers. As a result, turnover rates tend to be high, making it a significant challenge to motivate the lowest-paid employees (Tudor, 2011).

2.2.7. McGregor's X & Y Theory

McGregor's Two Motivation Theory describes two management styles: authoritarian (Theory X) and participative (Theory Y). Douglas McGregor, a social psychologist, formulated two theories to illustrate how managers' beliefs and actions regarding employee motivation influenced their management approach (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020). Suppose the manager believes that the team lacks motivation and dislikes their job. In that case, the management style is likely to be authoritarian, so-called Theory X. This method

shows control and closely overseeing the employee's work. By doing so, the leader ensures that the task is completed correctly (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020).

On the other hand, if the manager feels that their team is committed to their work and they take the courage to do it perfectly, then the management style is participative, Theory Y. Managers using this approach trust their team to take responsibility and ownership of their work and can do it effectively by themselves (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020).



2. Figure Symbolising the X and Y Theory of Herzberg (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020)

Managers who adopt this approach tend to be pessimistic, assuming their team members dislike their work and lack motivation. Consequently, they believe in the constant need to reward, prompt, or discipline their team to complete tasks (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020).

Organisations employing this method often have repetitive work structures, relying on the 'carrot and stick' motivation theory. Employees receive performance evaluations and compensation based on their output (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020).

This management style assumes team members dislike their work, shirk responsibility, and require continuous guidance. The leader feels they must use control or coercion to get members to finish tasks. Also, members need supervision at every stage.

While McGregor noted that this approach is used in organisations with multiple layers of management, Theory X management has become less prevalent in recent times. Larger organisations may still resort to this style due to the number of employees and deadlines.

Unlike Theory X managers, Theory Y managers maintain an optimistic outlook and adopt a decentralised, participative management style. This approach fosters collaboration and builds trust between managers and team members. Under Y management, employees are entrusted with greater responsibilities and are empowered to enhance their skills.

Performance appraisals promote transparent communication and acknowledge good performance rather than exert control (The Enterprise World Magazine, 2020).

The management style assumes team members enjoy working independently, engage in decision-making, are self-motivated, find work fulfilling and challenging, and approach problem-solving creatively and innovatively.

The Theory Y management approach is widely favoured in organisations as it boosts employees' enthusiasm for meaningful careers and offers more than just monetary rewards.

2.2.8. Pink's motivation theory

David Pink has introduced a new motivation theory into the 21st century (Pink, 2005). His idea of Motivation 3.0 highlights the importance of allocating tasks properly, which increases the motivation to fulfil the addressed task as it increases intrinsic motivation in teams, where members are intrinsically motivated to become lifelong learners. The three main principles of Pink's Motivation Theory 3.0 are autonomy, mastery and purpose. Pink highlighted that ineffective, damaging management has created a state of passive inertia in which people do not act (Pink, 2011). Team members are only willing to act when a tangible reward is already offered, or they receive punishment if they fail to finish the desired task. In this case, even though people have autonomy, it is taken away from them when those in power control them.

It is essential to be both autonomous and interdependent at the same time. In this case, groups that form independently, with approximately no budget and a low level of authority, are so-called groups (Pink, 2011). These groups have interdependency and autonomy and aim to change something within the organisation. Working in these groups rather than in an inherited team is better.

The second principle of the Motivation Theory is the desire to improve daily in something that matters. This principle relates to the third principle, which is purpose. The something that matters part highlights that working on something that does not matter is unnecessary. With control, with tedious and irrelevant tasks, the desire to improve and act is destroyed. Summarising Pink's theory, feeling desire and purpose in our work is essential as it increases productivity and gives us a better sense of self. Society and the economy depend on intrinsically motivated workers who become lifelong learners and can look beyond absurd tasks (Nordgren, 2013) (Pink, 2011).

2.2.9. Extrinsic and Intrinsic motivation



3. Figure Showing the relations between the motivation theories (Own creation, 2024)

An imperative highlight of reasonable and successful hierarchical motivating forces and remunerate frameworks is that they enough meet all the crucial needs. The human needs assembled into a few categories by the different substance speculations of inspiration are, of course, related in numerous ways in terms of substance since each looks to capture desires of human nature and the standard components of operation between them. Knowing and tolerating that the comparison will cloud vital contrasts at many points, for this subsection, we will all things considered briefly appear that the required bunches of the imperative substance speculations of inspiration can be, to some degree, viably mapped to the bunches concurring to the extrinsic-intrinsic motivational divisions (emphasising that the result of the classification is ordinarily utilised within the assessment of incentive-reward disobedient, not within the examination of human mental forms). Concurring to this, the human needs to be spoken to by the two lower levels of Maslow's Needs Pyramid (physiological and certainty needs bunches), Alderfer's Presence Needs, Herberg's Cleanliness Needs and Murray's Essential (organic) Needs bunches are regularly met by bosses (entirely in line with the current framework of social norms/expectations) with outward motivations. Satisfactory fabric benefits and reasonable work security are fabulous instruments within the current social frameworks for individuals to meet the desires of these bunches viably. The post-biological requires bunches of Maslow's pyramid (the beat three levels: social, acknowledgement, and self-actualisation), Alderfer's Improvement and Relationship Needs, Herzberg's Spark Variables, Murray's Auxiliary (psychogenic) Needs, and all of McClelland's needs (he did not address the natural ones at all) are ordinarily more

effortlessly and straightforwardly related to work exercises and hence tend to be naturally spurred, ordinarily by non-material motivating forces (Atkinson et al., 1971).

Without viable inspiration, associations will lose their competitiveness, indeed their practicality, in the long run; in this sub-chapter, I would like to specify two key thought processes for effective authority: the respectful/fair utilisation of outward motivating forces and the abuse of the wealthy application potential of inborn motivations.

Several HR-related articles nowadays address the expanding part of inherent motivating forces, which are usually genuine when the boss motivating force framework gives reasonable rewards on the outward side. In this case, Herzberg's demonstration truly works on paper: if the cleanliness components are arranged, they are "quieted" on the off chance that they are not arranged; they will typically play the part of hope (instead of spark) variables in spurring individuals of the association. Be that as it may, the lower the average wage in a given society, and the more deliberately a boss company abuses this (i.e., the less it is characterised by reasonable monetary motivating forces and common work security for its representatives), the less genuine it is that outside motivations do not influence work execution. As long as cash remains the premise of trade in social orders, and as long as the tremendously more significant part of citizens in nations determines the tremendous more substantial part of their pay from the work showcase, the insufficiency of outward rewards will be an essential obstruction to accomplishing not as it were ideal but too least adequate levels of inspiration in associations (Atkinson et al., 1971).

Within the setting of inborn inspirations, social needs are the duty of all individuals in the organisation, so the pioneer has to create a secure and robust authoritative culture based on belief. In expansion, it makes sense to work with a more customised natural inspiration arrangement based on a more profound understanding of the person's needs and individual characteristics of workers. The potential here can be improved, in any case, if directors in associations create strategies in this region with the fundamental ability and tolerance. This implies, on the one hand, the utilisation of devices that regard and perceive the touchy nature of human inventiveness and, on the other hand, the reliable and customised application of the three components of SDT (Self Determination Theory): independence, self-development and the connecting of exercises to higher objectives, which, within the hands of any gifted and committed supervisor, can end up an ace trinity of really viable hierarchical inspiration (Pink, 2018) (O'Hara, 2017).

Chapter 3: Women in Leadership

3. Leadership and organisational identity

The organisation and its roles influence its members, shaping their behaviour, values, attitudes, and identity. The primary motivations are to foster a sense of belonging, self-understanding, and self-expression and to project a socially acceptable image to others (Ashforth & Schinoff, 2016). The organisation influences members' behaviour, values, attitudes, and identity, aiming to foster belonging, self-understanding, self-expression, and a positive image of others.

The organisations where individuals operate reflect how they see themselves within the organisation and, thus, their identity. Peer constructs shape leaders' images of themselves. For this reason, it is characterised by constant change. Nevertheless, a leader's identity derives from the interactions between the leader and his followers. Thus, leadership is derived from the recognition of the leader by his followers (Karp & Helgø, 2009). An individual's identity within an organisation is influenced by how they perceive themselves and their peer constructs. Leadership identity evolves through interactions with followers, where recognition plays a crucial role.

3.1. Women's career options

Women and men occupy distinct positions in the labour market, leading to variations in pay, job roles, promotion prospects, length of employment, and household responsibilities, among other factors (Katona, 2021). It is not surprising that men and women have diverse career opportunities due to various factors. O'Neil and Bilimoria (2005) highlighted three key elements when examining the differences in women's careers: family responsibilities, women's developmental psychology, and their underrepresentation in higher positions within companies and token roles. Traditionally, women are tasked with maintaining the household, caring for the family, and nurturing children. Nonetheless, women who work face a dual challenge as they juggle work and family responsibilities (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005). Achieving a work-life balance is crucial to managing these dual roles. Additionally, women's psychological development, where their relationships influence their self-perception, makes it challenging to separate their personal and professional lives (O'Neil & Bilimoria, 2005).

On the other hand, women interrupt their careers at a higher rate, and their career paths are less like straight lines. It is full of success, failure, and stagnation, all constantly changing (Koncz, 2016). Women often leave the workforce because of becoming mothers, but from a stereotypical point of view, it is because of fulfilling the women's roles (Koncz, 2016).

By the end of the 20th century, significant social changes positively impacted women, offering them new opportunities. This shift resulted in re-evaluating individual lifestyle values, attitudes, and preferences. Fundamental changes included the widespread availability of contraceptive methods, empowering women to manage their fertility. Additionally, there was a rise in equal opportunities in various aspects of life, including the workplace. The growth of white-collar jobs, appealing to women, and developing secondary earner roles allowed for balancing family and work. Women exhibit diverse preferences and priorities regarding work-life balance and employment. The variations in preferences lead to conflicts within different groups of women, often benefiting men, who typically share more homogeneous interests within each group. The diversity in women's choices is fundamental to understanding their responses to social policy initiatives (Hakim, 2002).

Based on Hakim's (2002) research, women can select from three lifestyles based on their personal preferences: home-centric, work-centric, and adaptive. These lifestyle choices consider women's roles in family and childcare, career paths, aspirations, full-time or part-time work, socioeconomic status, and responses to policies impacting them, such as social and employment measures.

3.2. Historical background in Hungary

Until the 1990s, Hungary was under the socialist era they established. During that time, women were equal to men in the workforce. They have created the National Council of Hungarian Women (Magyar Nők Országos Tanácsa) for that support. On the other hand, it pushed back the willingness of grassroots initiatives. On a basis, women were more employed. In the case of their wages, they received less, on average, than men. Their wages varied because of the level of their occupation. Women worked on lower class levels, as assistants or as unskilled workers. There were typical intellectual occupations for intake teachers or nurses. These jobs were underpaid, and employees in these sectors were underrated (Nagy, 2007).

After the socialist era, the issue of equality between men and women was a matter of different social needs and intensities at various levels. Since 1996, a government policy has worked to equalise men and women on the macro level. On the middle line, entrepreneurs tried to take steps to create concrete programs to increase the availability of women. At the grassroots level of society, there has been a surge in the formation of multiple non-governmental organisations (NGOs) dedicated to championing women's causes, encompassing areas such as women's rights, philanthropic endeavours, female education, social empowerment, and legal support services. Notwithstanding this advancement, gender

equality remains inadequately addressed in societal dialogues, particularly in terms of opportunities for both men and women. Gender was not one of the primary economic and social issues in socialist Hungary (Nagy, 2007).

3.3. Women in leadership

Women who once occupied subordinate roles have climbed the ranks to management positions. Nonetheless, the journey to leadership for women is challenging and hindered by patriarchal norms, horizontal and vertical segregation, and gender stereotypes. Despite strides in dispelling biases against women in leadership roles, disparities persist between men and women in social influence. This imbalance is partly fuelled by societal and organisational gender biases that link men to leadership positions and women to supportive roles (Koenig et al., 2011).

Women have gained dominance in the workforce, but it is a mystery why they are restricted from higher managerial positions. Despite the records of various women's movements aiming to strengthen gender equality, women still struggle to have remarkable managerial positions. Challenges in attaining high-level managerial roles are worldwide, with women predominantly occupying lower-level and lower-ranking leadership positions than men (Ganiyu & Akintunde, 2018).

On the other hand, studies describe that women leaders have positively affected multinational companies. Many recent studies have focused on the presence of women leaders and their effect on multinational companies. Also, examinations analyse the changes in multinational companies in Hungary about women in leadership positions.

The presence of women leaders within the organisation develops business advantage (Hopkins et al., 2006). Women leaders have the sense to provide unique insights about customer behaviour, and they have different perspectives about clients. They may offer favourable views of customer relationships, direction, and overall business practices versus mainstream (male) thinking (Bilimoria & Piderit, 1994). Maximising these benefits will foster a culture of leadership development for women at all levels. This perspective may require a change of mindset at all levels of the organisation. However, it can give organisations a distinct competitive advantage as they recognise and leverage the unique capabilities of their employees and female members. Hopkins et al. (2008) highlighted the importance of connection to organisational goals. Previous research has shown that women tend to be more inclined towards aligning themselves with the company's goals. As organisations build effective leadership development systems for women, and when women undertake leadership development activities within their organisations, they are likely to

experience solid organisational connections (Hopkins et al., 2008). This alignment can lead to a commitment to the organisation. Also, dedication can motivate other employees within the organisation.

Looking at it from a different angle, having more women and women leaders in positions of power can help reduce the wage disparity between genders (Cohen & Huffman, 2007). Within an organisation, the wage gap is eradicated after the level of women managers is over 60 per cent (Theodoropoulos et al., 2022). The level of employees increases as women leaders promote to have a higher number of new women employees (Theodoropoulos et al., 2022). In contrast, higher positions can maintain wage equality in the long term (Cohen & Huffman, 2007). Women's presence in the business environment, higher education, and increased activity brought up the intention towards equality, and women began to receive leading positions (Nagy, 2007).

Nagy (2007) has compared the literature on women in Western leadership situations to the Hungarian post-socialist business culture. In Western areas, knowledge and experience are appreciated more than in Hungary. During the socialist era, the country encouraged women to take leading positions (Nagy, 2013). After the regime change, this tendency to improve failed. However, women with higher education had fewer opportunities to receive leading positions. This reflects the traditional gender order in Hungary, which keeps receiving constant confirmation from the country and organisational cultures (Nagy, 2013). According to Nagy and Vicsek (2005), in the case of new viewpoints, women have the courage and ability to transform management thinking. Since the 90th century, women's leadership styles have been judged positively (Nagy & Vicsek, 2005).

The representation of women in leadership roles within companies is increasing. Further action is needed in corporate governance to ensure that women are adequately represented in critical decisions (K, 2022). Based on previous research, the presence of women leaders in multinational companies has affected the organisational and management culture. They establish the research gap with the help of the research on the topic. The gaps in the Hungarian context about women's leadership's effect on salaries, viewpoints, and motivation have not been completely covered.

3.4. Leadership styles used by women

When analysing the relationship between gender and leadership styles, it is essential to highlight the correlations between gender and leadership roles (Katona, 2021). Further analysis of the typical leader behaviour of women and men and the possible differences must be investigated. The leader's behaviour is critical to their development and effectiveness

(Eagly & Karau, 2002). The correlation and differences must be considered when analysing the relationship between gender and leadership.

Further, Powell (2018) stated that early socialisation has a powerful effect on developing different skills in women and men. These competencies increase the difference between the leadership styles used by the two genders.

Based on the research of Kázmér-Mayer and Czibor (2019), women leaders, based on either self-characterisation or characterisation of others, tend to use transformational leadership styles and tools. This intention comes from a socialisation background; social expectations, on the other hand, may come from work socialisation. The driving behaviours of the two genders may vary slightly, possibly attributed to how parents interact with boys and girls differently from an early age, providing rewards and consequences for distinct behaviours. Childhood experiences are shaped by societal and peer norms, which persist into adulthood, dictating different societal expectations for men and women. These influences extend to the professional realm, where distinct behaviours and attitudes may be encouraged in both male and female employees or managers (Kázmér-Mayer & Czibor, 2019).

This implies that incorporating gender roles has an impact on leaders. Thus, leaders in the same situation and position but of different genders may think differently about the problem, behave differently and make other decisions (Eagly et al., 2003).

Studying gender variances in management psychology holds significant value as female employees frequently encounter bias regarding promotions. By challenging the stereotypes contributing to this issue, organisations can enhance their economic success by broadening the range of potential candidates for various managerial roles. Embracing diversity not only expands the candidate pool but also introduces fresh viewpoints, diverse strategies, and increased creative capabilities to organisations, granting them a competitive edge in today's market driven by innovation (Burke & Collins, 2001)

An intriguing point to note is that while gender disparities in leadership often revolve around discrimination against women, there is limited research on how social expectations impact men's leadership approaches. It raises the question of whether the attributes associated with the feminine transformational leadership style – known for its effectiveness – are considered suitable for male leaders. The Hungarian context adds an exciting dimension as the national culture displays pronounced masculinity (scoring 88 out of 100), as indicated by Hofstede's intercultural studies. This implies that competitiveness and achievement are prioritised in Hungarian society over collaboration, teamwork, and compromise. It suggests that

Hungarians lean towards a performance-driven, task-focused work environment (Hofstede & Hofstede, 2008).

The research emphasises the necessity of training and empowering managers and cultivating leaders by broadening their leadership skills to align with social and societal expectations for diverse leader groups. In leadership development programs focusing on transformational leadership, it is crucial to consider the implicit social expectations placed on leaders. These expectations significantly impact the internalisation of specific aspects of the transformational leadership style, the authenticity perceived by leaders, and how well they align with their personalities and values (Kázmér-Mayer & Czibor, 2019).

The differential impact of gender roles on female and male leaders stems from the lack of consistency between the predominantly community-related qualities most often associated with female characteristics—such as kindness, selflessness, and friendliness—and the predominantly self-assertive qualities—such as assertiveness and commanding—that are generally required to be a successful leader (Eagly et al., 2003).

Positive associations associated with women's leadership include teamwork, empathy, and a willingness to compromise. People associate successful leadership styles with qualities traditionally represented by men. The majority of society has an idealised idea of the characteristics of the perfect leader, but the idea and reality sometimes match (Nagy & Vicsek, 2006).

A task-oriented management style best matches male traits, for instance, a style that focuses on accurately completing tasks and related relevant organisational tasks. Feminine characteristics are associated with a relationship-oriented leadership style emphasising personal relationships.

Male leadership styles are associated with an impersonal, task-oriented and transactional approach. The feminine leadership style is associated with a caring, relationship-oriented style closely related to and forms the basis of the transformational style (Shanmugam & Haigh, 2019).

Transformational leadership should embody feminine values such as relationship building, consensus building, communication and teamwork (Shanmugam et al., 2007). Female leaders often use the tools of a transformational style, as, in addition to feminine characteristics, it helps to overcome the gender inconsistency dilemma and avoid giving an overly masculine impression while demonstrating hierarchical control and self-assertive behaviour (Eagly et al., 2003). Furthermore, the communication of female leaders is

generally not characterised by a commanding, autocratic expression (Eagly et al., 2003), but they have weaknesses in the delegation of tasks (Shanmugam et al., 2007).

3.5. Women leaders can motivate better.

Women leaders have a better sense of using the essential motivation tools in the business environment. Leaders with high socialised power motivation are influential and inspiring to employees (McClelland, 1987). This power helps to strengthen team spirit and help teammates align with common goals (McClelland, 1987). Socialised power is usually associated with women. Within leadership, women are intended to establish principles they implement in motivation (Martin, 2011). Such principles, for example, challenge power and respect intersectionality (Martin, 2011). They can motivate others towards action (Martin, 2011). In the business environment, women leaders motivate employees better.

Furthermore, women leaders use several tools to motivate their workforce. Encouraging self-awareness is as essential as self-confidence in motivation (Koch, 2022). On the other hand, women support transformation. This means that women lead by inspiration, encouraging change in employees' attitudes, and aligning the team with meaning and purpose (Koch, 2022). Also, women leaders encourage empathy; they establish an emotional relationship between employees and leaders, and it is best if both show kindness towards each other (Koch, 2022). With the help of feedback and mentoring, women leaders elevate others and help their promotion (Koch, 2022). Staying true to yourself and staying humble helps leaders remain true to their values and morals and accept their mistakes, encouraging them to learn from their mistakes and develop (Koch, 2022). Women leader motivates their workforce with their attitude and with their reassuring acts.

As an outcome, women leaders' presence in the work environment results in work efficiency. Women make decisions based on their emotional aspects (Balassa, 2018). They have a better visual memory and are born with better empathy capabilities. They strive for popularity within their workplace and have strong verbal and non-verbal communication skills (Balassa, 2018). These qualities increase the efficiency of female leaders.

3.6. Social gender and top management in Hungary

According to Nagy's research (2001), several representative surveys conducted in the 1990s indicated that the presence of women in top management had become more firmly established. However, the data also clearly showed that top management is highly segregated. This aligns with international findings: women seldom reach the top but reach the deputy director level and are primarily responsible for the feminised management areas. In the case of the public sector or, in the case of the private sector, banks, women have to

compete mainly with female candidates. Regarding vertical segregation, most women are in the second management tier. In the 1993 survey, there was only one female CEO; this situation has mostly stayed the same over the last ten years.

However, women leaders are not a homogenous group, and various factors influence their economic success and recognition. Their motivation, sector of work during political regime changes, and the period they belonged to play significant roles. In qualitative interviews from the mid-1990s, distinct differences were observed among different groups of women. Those with a background in finance before regime changes had better career prospects, whereas opportunities in the industry had diminished. Conversely, young women who pursued full-time university studies gained expertise in business management and foreign languages, enabling them to surpass their older counterparts and have brighter career prospects in the short run (Nagy, 2003)

In the 2004 examination, there is a vertical segregation between leadership positions.

3.7. Equalisation of women's wages

Pay inequality between women and men is still problematic in the 20th century. By the end of 2021, European women earned an average of 12,7% less than men (European Parliament, 2020). In 1975, Nations wrote the Treaty of Rome to equalise work and salaries (European Parliament, 2020). Unfortunately, many countries still struggle with achieving equality. The salary percentage inequality differs in Europe regions (European Parliament, 2020). In Hungary, 30 per cent of women work part-time (European Parliament, 2020). It is often observed that a more significant number of women tend to leave their careers earlier to prioritise their families. (European Parliament, 2020). Analysing the gap between men and women, in national practice, the most used gender gap measure is the percentage difference between men and women in full-time employment, calculated based on the average gross monthly salary of full-time employees (KSH, 2022). In 2021, the gender pay gap based on the average gross monthly salary of male and female employees amounted to 16.1% for full-time employees, slightly from a year earlier (KSH, 2022). The previously mentioned data shows that there is still an inequality between wages based on gender.

However, there is an improvement trend in women's salaries. The European Parliament called for action (European Parliament, 2020). They enforce equal pay for equal work or work of equal value to prevent women from being paid less than men based on gender alone, with no other considerations (European Parliament, 2020). The wage gap indicated by statistics will likely persist, as additional factors may contribute to the gap, particularly concerning employment. Also, the education level of women increases their wage level and

lowers the wage gap between men and women (Telegdy, 2018). It can be observed that women's salaries are showing a positive trend based on the factors mentioned previously. Fortunately, a positive result can be seen in the current situation of the Hungarian multinational working environment. There are more women executives than men on average in Hungary. According to Eurostat (2021) data, Hungary has a higher percentage of women in managerial positions than most other EU countries. Their share is almost 10% higher than the EU average. Even though from just under 30% in the second quarter of 2002, this proportion has gradually increased with a few bumps (Eurostat, 2021). Hungary scores relatively high, with 42%, regarding the level of women managers (Eurostat, 2021). This refers to the statement of Theodoropoulos et al. (2022) that increasing the level of female employees within an organisation lowers the wage gap. The proportion of women with a university degree in Hungary is also above the EU average. In 2021, Hungary was the highest in this area, 17,3 % (European Parliament, 2020). In Hungary, multinational companies are required to follow specific regulations. In those multinational companies where over 250 people are working, they must give a report every year about the salary difference between men and women. They must provide a reason if this level is five or over five per cent. If the company cannot provide a valid reason, it must correct the wage gap (Nagy, 2022). In Hungary, there is a great tendency for multinational companies to employ more women, which also increases female employees' wages.

3.8. New viewpoints on leadership

Women bring new and different viewpoints into the organisational environment. According to Hofstede's cultural dimension, Hungarians value maintaining a healthy balance between work and personal life (Hofstede Insights, 2023). During an interview with Dr Ágnes Fábián, the CEO of Henkel Hungary, it was emphasised that being a mother should not sway one's career path or lead to quitting one's job (Menedzserek Országos Szövetsége 2023). That is one effect of women leaders' different viewpoints (Kázmér-Mayer & Czibor, 2019). On the other hand, female leaders bring in inspirational goals (Vad, 2020). These are a few viewpoints female leaders bring to the leadership style.

Further, a team is usually seen differently from a female leader's perspective. Women leaders try to understand everyone's own opinions and points of view (Czeglédi, 2008). This is their basis for forming an opinion. Then, women build personal relationships with team members (Czeglédi, 2008). Many women adopt an interactive leadership style emphasising active participation and collaboration skills. Team spirit and cooperation are the key factors of this leadership style (Czeglédi, 2008). Female leaders who use this style believe that

employees are more efficient. Employees who listen and show trust also approve and accept their leader's ideas (Rosener, 1990). Henkel Hungary's CEO is a woman. She views her team differently. She aims to be a team player. Even though she aims for her team to be hard workers and thoughtful, the team members can always rely on her (Menedzserek et al., 2023). That is why a team led by a female person is viewed differently.

Another important aspect is that women have several qualities that can improve the business environment. In the case of crisis management, women and men have different qualities. Also, women leaders show a tendency toward using a transformative leadership style. The transformative leadership style has feminine behavioural factors, such as being democratic, focusing on team playing, and showing empathy towards employees (Bakacsi & Veres, 2004). Based on the research (Goldberger et al., 1987), where they interviewed 135 women leaders, the results show that women choose transformative leadership. They prioritise avoiding competition and situations that could be seen as promoting competition. Harmonious coexistence builds on mutual trust in their relationships, and they enjoy working in a team (Goldberger et al., 1987). The transformative leadership style suits women better as its trademarks align with women leaders' thinking (Goldberger et al., 1987). Women leaders positively impact the business environment because of their qualities.

3.8.1. The Glass Ceiling Theory

The glass ceiling (GC) is a phenomenon that reflects the disadvantages in career opportunities for women. This revealed itself when women tried to advance in their careers (Ganiyu & Akintunde, 2018). Therefore, this theory is called a "glass ceiling" due to the barriers that block upward advancement. The term "glass" signifies that this limitation is not visible. It may represent an implicit workplace culture rather than a formal policy (Ganiyu & Akintunde, 2018). The glass ceiling is a gentle yet formidable workplace barrier that limits women and minorities from reaching the highest positions in the leadership hierarchy (Powell & Butterfield, 2003).

According to Morgan (2015), glass ceiling obstacles are artificial and natural barriers. Artificial barriers are understandable compared to natural barriers. These barriers are related to education or career breaks that impact career advancement.

Compared to the well-known obstacles to career growth, like poor education and lack of necessary work experience, the glass ceiling barriers are more abstract. They may come from cultural, societal, organisational, individual, and psychological factors blocking women from reaching managerial positions (Ganiyu & Akintunde, 2018).

Due to the male-dominated nature of these positions, it has become a common practice to assign male individuals rather than females to the roles of Chief Executive Officer or Managing Director. Moreover, women often meet a familiar pattern in corporate leadership growth, where they gradually progress up the ladder before hitting a 'glass ceiling' that lowers or even stops their chances of reaching the top executive level.

In specific sectors, this glass ceiling is particularly challenging to break through. Leading women only to make slight progress in overcoming it. Although the reasons for the Glass Ceiling are controversial, its effects are apparent, and the prejudice against women is explicit. However, the study of the reasons behind these patterns remains a challenge. This study highlights that despite some positive progress, gender inequality remains in the workplace. Even if gender equality in education and work experience has improved, women still tend to be focused on lower and middle-paid roles, which reflect traditional gender stereotypes and assumptions about the aspirations and abilities of women and men (Ganiyu & Akintunde, 2018).

Women possess the skills and competence to lead from a rational perspective. The missing element could be the lack of necessary support to motivate, empower, and protect them as they negotiate the challenging journey to leadership positions. In other words, women have the knowledge and ability to reach higher managerial positions. They face invisible barriers that block their progression to top executive positions. This indicates that the obstacles women encounter compared to men tend to increase as they climb the corporate ladder, influenced by cultural biases, religious beliefs, and individual and organisational factors. It is widely acknowledged that traditional male-dominated policies and practices are slow to adapt to modern realities, leading to gradual changes (Bramham, 1991).

In many instances, a female-dominated environment may still have male leaders. For example, a male principal may lead a group dominated by females. This phenomenon is called the "glass lift" (Williams, 1992).

An intriguing observation has emerged in organisational research. Researchers highlight that the increasing number of female managers does not necessarily impact the level of authority they hold within an organisation. Often, women are promoted to managerial roles during times of crisis. This trend may stem from stereotypes suggesting that women are perceived as more empathetic, nurturing, and team-focused. Consequently, appointing a female leader could be an innovative approach to managing crises, known as the glass-rock phenomenon (Bruckmüller et al., 2014).

3.9. Stereotypes towards women

Stereotypes and unconscious prejudices. Stereotypes and unconscious stereotyping are part of our everyday lives. Stereotypes are widely accepted belief systems in society about the characteristics of a social group (Greenwald et al., 2003). They are formed based on social perceptions of traits and behaviours typical of a group (Koenig & Eagly, 2014). Stereotypes enable people to categorise phenomena and draw general conclusions about group members based on fixed patterns. (Hentschel et al., 2019). This categorisation is done automatically and in a fraction of a second (Fiske, 1998). Stereotypes are unconscious negative beliefs formed based on social perceptions within seconds.

Stereotypes exist consciously and can also be observed as unconscious beliefs. Unconscious stereotypes are past experiences hidden from the individual but associated with specific characteristics of group members (Greenwald & Banaji, 2017). Stereotypes and attitudes form the foundation of the cultural system, shaping the social reality's cultural patterns (Kovacs, 2007). Unconscious stereotypes are hidden beliefs associated with group characteristics. They shape cultural patterns and social reality.

Usually, gender, skin colour, ethics and age are the most common basis for discriminatory categorisation (Fiske, 1998). The categorisation is commonly centred around, as it is typically the primary and deeply ingrained differentiating factor in an individual's group identity, setting them apart from other groups' genders (Glick & Fiske, 1996).

3.9.1. Allport's prejudice theory

Gordon Allport, a social psychologist, focused on the psychology of prejudice. Allport explained himself using language, the cognitive paradigm of modern psychology (Marx et al., 1999).

In his work, Allport highlights expectancies as the self-beliefs about one's character and capacities that may influence them towards the other person's behaviour and psychological life. The situational effect caused by opposing views or stereotypes might affect a person. These adverse effects and stereotypes put pressure on the person's everyday life. Also, these negative group stereotypes can grow into situational pressure on one's psyche. Being treated or seen through the lens of an opposing group, stereotype, and situational pressure can affect behaviour and psychology (Allport, 1955).

The researcher believes these effects can be seen within the stereotypes towards women leaders. In their case, peer pressure is put on them in everyday life and work, which may affect their behaviour, psychology, and performance. Indeed, as Allport highlights,

negatively stereotyped people have negative expectations of themselves, which can be used as a threat and manipulation towards them (Allport, 1955).

3.9.2. Stereotypes towards women leaders

Stereotypical notions concerning women extend to those occupying leadership roles. Female leaders not only face conventional gender biases but also encounter prejudices linked to their leadership positions. Women in leadership roles must frequently confront and surmount biases that undermine their competence arising from the perceived incongruity between their gender and leadership roles. Two main factors can categorise discrimination towards women. The central leadership qualities are often associated with male attributes. Society tends to view women's leadership, characterised by self-empowerment, more positively when exhibited by men (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

There is a common tendency to mix up the qualities and expectations linked to leadership and gender roles. Consequently, in leadership positions, people tend to view stereotypically feminine and masculine traits as dominant. Moreover, there are variations in how women's and men's leadership and family roles are perceived. A prior research study that employed implicit attitudinal assessment discovered that society tends to view women more positively as mothers than as female leaders (Greenwald et al., 2003). Conversely, men are evaluated equally positively as fathers and male leaders. These results indicate that female leaders who deviate from the expected norms of their gender's behaviour and perform typically masculine traits are often viewed unfavourably by society. The internalised societal biases may hinder women from pursuing managerial roles, making fewer women available for such positions. Additionally, women encounter more challenges and barriers in their journey to succeed in management positions (Eagly & Karau, 2002).

Chapter 4 – Primary Research

4.1. Research methods

The researcher aimed to investigate women's leadership styles and motivation tools in Hungary, as this area has yet to be extensively researched. The study focused on how women leaders in Hungary lead within their organisations and effectively motivate their teams. The research included examining leadership styles suitable for women leaders and how they can work effectively. Personal interviews were conducted with women leaders working at multinational organisations in Hungary, and the interviews were conducted in English. Some leaders' teams were interviewed via a questionnaire to analyse their effectiveness.

As two research methodologies were used in this research, the official name for this research is mixed method. A mixed-method is an integrated approach to addressing complex practical problems. The results are more scientifically proven (Ivankova & Wingo, 2018). Qualitative data is less needed to have representativeness, but data quality is essential (Nunan et al., 2020). The questionnaire is a pre-designed survey for a specific purpose. Various data can be collected through surveys to determine a brand image, show market segmentation, behaviour and so on (Nunan et al., 2020).

The primary target group for the interviews was leaders, categorised by gender, workplace, and working title. The decision to examine only women leaders was to highlight the importance of the research area, fill the gap of lack of previous examinations, and prove the literature review. The interviews were conducted online because it was less time-consuming, and leaders were more likely to participate online. The interview questions were more open-ended, allowing the interviewees to answer in a broader context. Also, there were some yes or no questions by which numerical data could be collected. There were nine main questions with some sub-questions. Background information on the leaders was collected to provide an overview of when they joined the company and how long they have worked in their positions—further, questions related to their leadership styles and how they see themselves as leaders. Further, the main topic of the questions was motivation. Victor Vroom's expectancy theory was also integrated into the questions to analyse the level of their motivation and the outcome of their motivation. In the last part, the difficulties of their leadership were asked. The glass ceiling theory was integrated to find out more about the blocking factors in women's careers and how they have been pushed back because of their gender.

This questionnaire followed the interview scheme, except it tried to find out the opinions of the team members of their leader. All questions were closed, yes or no, checkbox, and rating

questions to gather quantity data. The first part focused on motivation. It was questioned from different aspects of their motivation within their workplace. The second part concentrated on the leader and the leadership style. The third section focused on stereotypes towards women leaders and their leaders. The last section was to gather demographic information to make the research more concrete.

4.2. Interviews

For the researcher, interviews with women leaders were essential to prove the topic's importance and create valuable primary research. The interview questions were designed. Everyone was asked the same questions in the same order. The interviews were conducted on the phone or through online meeting tools. This way, time was saved, and leaders were more open to participating. No full names are mentioned in the thesis for a common request, and not all companies are called by their name.

Two leaders from different companies were willing to participate in the interview section. Their answers are analysed and compared in feedback, highlighting the most essential elements.

The first interviewee was Viktoria M.M., who was in her mid-thirties. She is the Associate Marketing Manager of Nestlé, working with cereal brands. She joined the company in February 2024 because of its good reputation, strong brands, and international projects. The second interviewee was Zsuzsanna A., the regional manager of BNI North Group. She is also in her mid-thirties.

4.2.1. First question

The first question was: What do you think? What kind of leadership style do you use? Why do you use this type? This question was essential to check whether the leaders' answers were similar to the secondary research.

Viktoria M.M. answered that her leadership style is democratic. She is interested in her colleagues' opinions and is open to their requests. She considers the needs of her team. She also finds it necessary to develop team members, focus on their professional needs, and find room for improvement.

Zsuzsanna A. also highlighted that her leadership style is democratic. She uses democratic leadership as she works with new people daily, but task orientation and goals are always in front of her.

These answers show that Kázmér-Mayer and Czibor's (2019) previous findings that women tend to transformational leadership are not true.

4.2.2. Second question

The second was: Which leadership style suits you the best, and why? The researcher asked this question to obtain information about the leaders' own perceptions.

Viktoria M.M. said that she would stay with the Democratic leader. Zsuzsanna A. answered similarly to the one she explained for the first question: democratic leadership is critical in her role.

The answers highlight that these leaders can lead their group, listen to others, and make the final decision based on others' feedback.

4.2.3. Third question

The third question was: Why do you like that you are a woman leader?

Viktoria M.M. said that constant challenges make the workflow more interesting, and it is exciting that she has a chance to mentor her team members. She finds it inspiring to develop other people and affect their professional improvement. Zsuzsanna A. highlighted that daily challenges in her career always motivate her to keep pushing and be proud of herself as a woman.

4.2.4. Fourth question

The fourth question was: Is there a difference between who motivates better, men or women leaders?

Viktoria M.M. thinks there is no difference; the leader's mindset is more important than the person's gender. Good and bad examples exist in both genders. Zsuzsanna A. explained that she sees differences between men and women, but he always focuses on the personality, not the gender.

Their answers show that gender does not differ in leading style, but personality traits are more important.

4.2.5. Fifth question

The fifth question was: What motivational tools do you use to motivate your team? In further sections, it was essential to ask that this topic be analysed from different aspects.

Viktoria M.M.'s essential motivational tool is regular feedback on performance, career plans, and ambitions. She also thinks transparent communication is necessary, and sharing the „big picture” with team members can increase their engagement with the company.

Zsuzsanna A. always prefers personal and regular feedback. She explained that she usually organises meetings to provide this information to her team members.

[Ide írhat]

Comparing the answers, Content Motivation is crucial within the leaders' aspects.

4.2.6. Victor Vroom's expectancy theory analysis

The theory was inserted into the interviewing process to analyse the relation between Motivation, $\text{Expectation} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Valuation}$.

Expectancy

How confident are you that your efforts will lead to the desired level of performance?

Viktoria M.M. is quite confident with the effort she makes, as is Zsuzsanna A.

Do you believe that if you put in extra effort, it will significantly improve your performance?

Viktoria M.M. thinks that putting extra effort into her work will improve her performance.

Zsuzsanna A. mentioned that she is almost 100% sure that extra effort improves performance.

On a scale of 1 to 10, how likely do you think your efforts will result in successful outcomes?

Viktoria M.M. rates her efforts as 8, and she is quite successful with her outcomes.

Zsuzsanna A. rates her effort as 9, as she believes the outcomes are usually successful.

Instrumentality

How certain are you that performing well will achieve the desired outcomes (rewards)?

Viktoria M.M. is sure that she will achieve the desired outcomes, and Zsuzsanna A. believes that, based on her motivation, she will achieve the desired outcomes.

Is there a clear link between your performance and the rewards you receive?

Viktoria M.M. underlined that she thinks there is a relationship between the rewards you receive for your performance. In contra version, Zsuzsanna A. explained that even though there may be a relationship, she believes in inner motivation without needing material reward.

How much trust do you have in the reward system to deliver the promised outcomes based on your performance?

Viktoria M.M. highly trusts the reward system her company provides for her performance. The reward system within Zsuzsanna A's organisation is trustworthy.

Valence

How much do you value the outcomes (rewards) your organisation offers?

Regarding the value of the rewards, Viktoria M.M. highly values the rewards the organisation offers. The valuation of the rewards is the same as in the case of Zsuzsanna A. She explained that the organisation focuses on appreciation, which is usually desired by her team.

Do the rewards offered motivate you to perform at your best?

In response to this question, Viktoria M.M. answered that there is no strong relationship between her performance and the motivational impact of the offered rewards. Zsuzsanna A. explained similarly. She again highlighted that inner motivation and desire to act are more motivational than rewards.

How satisfied are you with the rewards and recognition you receive for your performance?

On the other hand, Viktoria M.M. is satisfied with the rewards she receives for her performance. For Zsuzsanna A., she is satisfied with the recognition she receives. The yearly appreciation in an event is worth the most to her.

Overall Motivation

Considering your expectations about effort, performance, and outcomes, how motivated are you to exert effort in your work?

Considering the three elements of the question, Viktoria M.M. is primarily satisfied with the result of her input and the rewards she receives. Zsuzsanna A. is satisfied with the effort she makes, but she would not put in more effort.

4.2.7. Seventh question

How do you perceive the balance between the effort you put into your work and the outcomes you receive?

Analysing what Viktoria M.M. has said, she thinks it is in balance. However, motivation can also be activated internally; it is not essential to have external factors to feel herself. Zsuzsanna A. also gave a similar answer. She thinks there is a healthy balance between the rewards and appreciation she receives.

4.2.8. Eighth question

The question: Reflecting on your past experiences, how has the alignment between effort, performance, and outcomes affected your motivation? I was asked to analyse how they compare their experiences with motivation increase or decrease.

Both Viktoria M.M. and Zsuzsanna A. highlighted that the outcome has a high level of impact on future performance and effort.

4.2.9. Questions related to women leadership

This section was crucial as the thesis's other main focus is on stereotypes of women leaders. The first question asked: Please describe the positive and negative sides of being a female leader.

When asked this question, Viktoria M.M. could not mention any exact factor. She thinks gender has no additional effect on being a leader. Maybe family concerns can affect a female leader's daily schedule, but it also depends on the leader's background. Zsuzsanna A. highlighted that the organisation surrounding her never discriminated against her because of gender. For her, it is positive as she can represent other women leaders.

Have you experienced conflict between your gender role and your leadership role?

Viktoria M.M.'s answer was heart-warming, as she has not experienced any conflicts based on her roles. Also, Zsuzsanna A. had a positive answer: She is lucky, as she never had to experience any conflict because of her gender.

Have you ever felt a ceiling above you? „Glass ceiling”

In this case, Viktoria M.M. mentioned that after maternity leave, she found it extra challenging to align her professional and family life to avoid the lack of attention in both fields and perform at my best. On the other hand, she also had difficulty returning to work and finding a new position. Maternity leave was again mentioned by Zsuzsanna A. Work-life balance was hard to establish and manage initially.

The question: Have you ever experienced a situation where you cannot move forward, as if something is pushing you back? Was asked because the primary research findings show that, in some ways, situations may block women leaders from moving forward.

However, Viktoria M.M. and Zsuzsanna A. have said they have not experienced this type of situation so far. In the researcher's opinion, maternity leave and the difficulties it brings when returning to work could also be mentioned as a bad experience.

The last question was: Can you describe the experience, feeling, or something that pushed you back? Because they explained that they had no setbacks or negative experiences, they could not bring up a feeling.

The differences between the secondary and primary research can be summarised in the leaders' answers. Starting with leadership styles, it can be seen that the interviewees prefer and use the Democratic leadership style. Compared the leaders' answers to the findings by Hersey et al. (1977) about democratic leadership style is accurate, as both highlighted that communication, feedback, appreciation and assertive acting towards team members are essential in their leading way

Vroom's Expectancy theory was essential in the interview. Based on their feedback, the theory that $\text{Motivation} = \text{Expectancy} \times \text{Instrumentality} \times \text{Valance}$ has its place. The leaders are satisfied with the expected rewards and what they receive for their performance. They believe that their motivation will impact their performance. Still, from their point of view, material rewards are not that essential to increasing their performance.

4.3. Employee feedback

The questionnaire had four main stages. These stages focused on motivation, leader perception and opinion, stereotypes, and demographic data. Not all of the leader's team was willing to participate in this part.

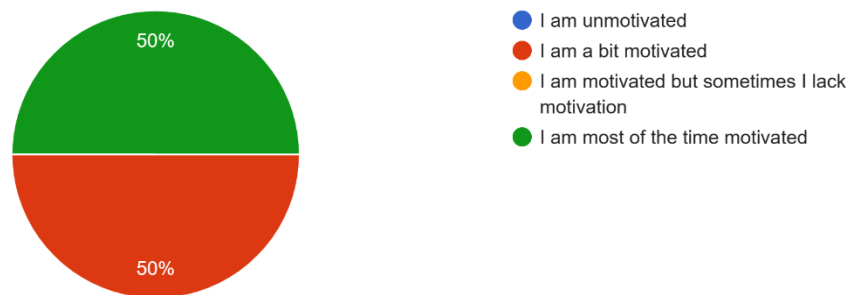
Viktoria M.M.'s team filled out the questionnaire to give feedback on leadership styles, motivation, and stereotypes. Both team members were female, in the 25-34 age group. They have been working at the company for 1-3 years, and this is their 1-3 job since their work life.

The first question focused on their feelings of motivation. The figure below shows the two team members' answers. One feels motivated, and the other is not that strongly motivated. This means that the team has a different level of motivation, which may show up in the need for their desired motivational tool.

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Please select the answer that most reflects your opinion about motivation at your workplace

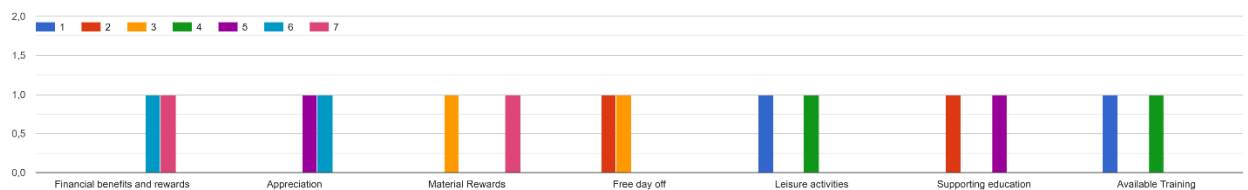
2 válasz



4. Figure Opinion on motivation within the workplace, Source: Questionnaire

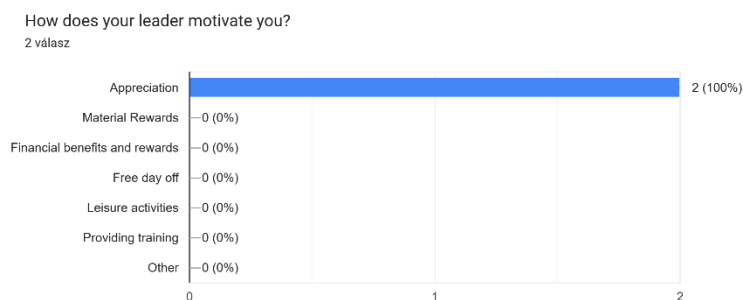
The second question within the questionnaire was to rate seven motivational factors and put them in a ranking. The participants had to answer from 1 as the most important to 7 as the least important aspect. The graph highlights that the most critical elements are financial benefits, rewards and material rewards. This highlights that this two-team member needs extrinsic, material-based motivation. On the other hand, we can see that appreciation stands in second place. This refers to what their leader mentioned; she provides appreciation and supporting feedback to her team members.

What motivates you the best? Please rate them on a scale of 1-7; 1 – not important at all , 7- very important



5. Figure The motivational factors, Source: Questionnaire

The third question focused on how the team members receive motivation from their leader. Both answered that their leader appreciated them. Again, this answer strongly shows how well their leader shows appreciation and how she intends to motivate her team.



6. Figure How are team members motivated by their leader, Source: Questionnaire

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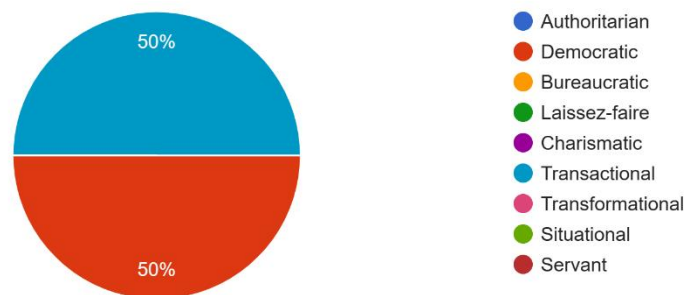
The following question asked if they were satisfied with the motivation they receive from their leader, and their answer was 100% yes. This is vital feedback to the leader that she is on a good path.

The second section focused on leadership style and how team members evaluate that.

The two team members think differently about leadership styles. One member thinks their leader uses Transactional leadership, and the other answers Democratic. The choice of transactional leadership style may come from the leader's motivation, which is not a tangible motivation tool. On the other hand, the other members feel the same about what leadership style the leader uses and believes shows to the outside.

What leadership style do you think your current leader belongs to? Leadership styles

2 válasz



7. Figure What leadership style is used by the leader, Source: Questionnaire

The last question within this section was about which leadership style the team members work under the best. The answer is eye-catching. Both chose Democratic leadership. This is excellent feedback because the leader expressed her devotion towards Democratic leadership. She explained how she is motivated and gives feedback. This answer refers to the need for motivation tools and how the leader perceives herself.

Under which leadership style do you work the best?

2 válasz

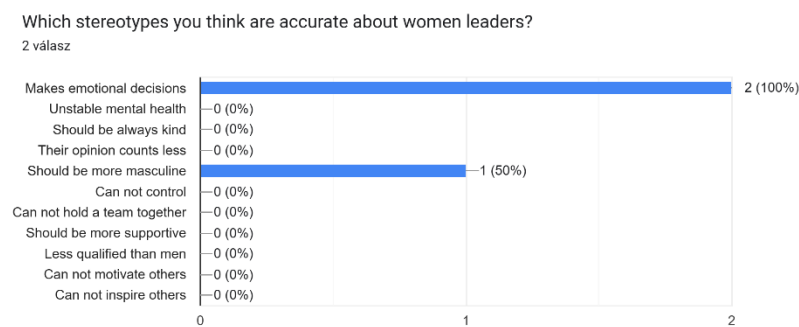


8. Figure Under which leadership style the team members work the best, Sources: Questionnaire

The section regarding stereotypes showed the following result. As the participants could choose more stereotypes, the main answer was that they made emotional decisions. This is also one of

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the central stereotypes highlighted in the secondary research. The team members may feel this, as the leader gives verbal feedback, and her motivational tool is appreciation. One team member chose to say that women leaders should have more masculine attributes. This answer highlights that the opinion is based on gender attributes. There are more male members within the organisation, which can be felt from the outside as a more robust attribution. Also, the team members may prefer more vital masculine attributes, task orientation, and a transactional leadership style. On the other hand, the same member chose transactional leadership as the preferred leadership style.



9. Figure What stereotypes do team members think of women leaders, Source: Questionnaire

All in all, the feedback of the two team members shows that their leader has practical, motivational tools. They prefer feedback and appreciation as motivation. Their leader also explained that a good word can motivate better than material motivational tools.

Suggestions

Based on the primary and secondary research, the researcher has the following suggestions for continuing the study and tips for further analysis. The researcher also suggests a leadership environment that may decrease stereotypes and negative setbacks toward women. First of all, education can be a crucial point to highlight. While teaching leadership and management, leadership styles, not gender, should be connected to the style but personality types. In the case of stereotypes towards women leaders, education on lowering prejudice should be taught as well. From an early age, it should be taught not to form opinions about people because of their gender. In this case, steps have already been taken to teach the importance of appreciating each other, lowering stereotypes, and promoting women's leadership. For instance, the Forbes Women Summit or the Managers National Association (Menedzserek Országos Szövetsége) educates women's leadership and brings women leaders to everyday life.

Moving forward to gaps, which also increase the stereotypes and different treatment of women in work and women leaders, is salary. The researcher thinks that in the 21st century, equal salary should not be a question. On the other hand, salary should not be decided on

gender. For instance, it should be decided on the skills and competencies the job requires and the burden that the person receives.

Another point of view is how the “glass ceiling” could be thinned. As this blockage is formidable and can sometimes be seen through, with the necessary steps, the glass could be thinned and then broken. Education is indeed essential for thinning. Also, as this ceiling could be the company's culture, organisational culture and behaviour should be managed within organisations. This could help common thinking and behaviour shift and offer possibilities not only during a crisis.

On the other hand, companies with healthier organisational behaviour should set an example for others. For instance, Henkel Magyarország Kft. has a female CEO, and the two foremost department leaders are also women. They should take advantage of this and show that women's leadership positively impacts the company.

The researcher's further goals are to continue the research by analysing the opinions of male leaders on female leaders and vice versa. This analysis could highlight what the two genders think of each other. Also, the results could provide information about what viewpoints of each other should be changed and thought differently. Hence, there is no disbelief in each other's competencies, skills, and capability to become leaders.

Conclusion

This paper aims to show what leadership styles women leaders use in Hungary, how they motivate their team members, and what stereotypes they currently face in Hungary. Based on the research questions, what leadership styles are commonly practised by women leaders in Hungary? How do women leaders motivate their employees, the following answers can be given.

Compared to the primary and secondary research, it was found that in Hungary, based on leader feedback, they tend to use a Democratic leadership style rather than Transformational. Again, they focus on team playing and show empathy towards every colleague. On the other hand, it was found that women leaders use motivational tools efficiently. They have better power to encourage employees to act. In addition, fostering empathy, humility, and emotional connections among colleagues can boost employee motivation. Fortunately, there is a positive trend in the reduction of salary disparities. The European Parliament encourages countries to balance the wages of men and women. Hungary has taken steps to lower the difference. On the other hand, the representation of women leaders and management members has also grown. This also highlights the need for salary equality, although it is

insufficient. These aspects support the idea that there is a chance of decreasing the “Glass Ceiling” Theory effect. Based on the leader feedback, they women have low level of negative impact, which highlights the possibility that the opinion towards women leaders have changed. Female leaders have the sense to bring new viewpoints into their leadership. For instance, they set inspirational goals for their colleagues. They seek to understand every team member’s viewpoint. This helps the team spirit and the team alignment. The feedback of team members supports that feedback and appreciation are essential. By working together, companies have the potential to set a positive example for other workplaces and government policies. The writer hopes that the collected information provides an understandable overview of leadership styles, motivational theories, and stereotypes of women leaders.

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Appendix

The interview questions

Name.

Company name.

The sector of the company.

The division you work in.

Please give your age group.

When did you join the company?

Why have you joined the company?

How long have you been the leader of the company/ team?

How many people work under your leadership?

What do you think? What kind of leadership style do you use? Why do you use this type?

Which leadership style suits you the best and why?

Why do you like that you are a woman leader?

Is there a difference between who motivates better, men or women leaders?

What motivational tools do you use to motivate your team?

Victor Vroom's expectancy

Expectancy

How confident are you that your efforts will lead to the desired level of performance?

Do you believe that if you put in extra effort, it will significantly improve your performance?

On a scale of 1 to 10, how likely do you think your efforts will result in successful outcomes?

Instrumentality

How certain are you that performing well will achieve the desired outcomes (rewards)?

Is there a clear link between your performance and the rewards you receive

How much trust do you have in the reward system to deliver the promised outcomes based on your performance?

Valence

How much do you value the outcomes (rewards) your organisation offers?

Do the rewards offered motivate you to perform at your best?

How satisfied are you with the rewards and recognition you receive for your performance?

Overall Motivation

Considering your expectations about effort, performance, and outcomes, how motivated are you to exert effort in your work?

How do you perceive the balance between the effort you put into your work and the outcomes you receive?

Reflecting on your past experiences, how has the alignment between effort, performance, and outcomes affected your motivation?

Please describe the positive and negative sides of being a female leader.

Have you experienced conflict between your gender role and your leadership role?

Have you ever felt a ceiling above you? „Glass ceiling”

Have you ever experienced a situation where you cannot move forward, as if something is pushing you back?

Can you describe the experience, feeling, or something that pushed you back?

Annexe: Analysing motivation and leadership styles

1. Please select the answer that most reflects your opinion about motivation at your workplace:

- a) I am unmotivated
- b) I am a bit motivated
- c) I am motivated, but sometimes I lack motivation
- d) I am most of the time motivated

2. What motivates you the best?

Please rate them on a scale of 1-7: 1 – significant, 7- not important at all

1 2 3 4 5 6 7

- a) Financial benefits and rewards
- b) Appreciation
- c) Material Rewards
- d) Free day off
- e) Leisure activities
- f) Supporting education
- g) Available Training

3. How does your leader motivate you?

- a) Appreciation

[Ide írhat]

- b) Material Rewards
 - c) Financial benefits and rewards
 - d) Free day off
 - e) Leisure activities
 - f) Providing training
 - g) Other
4. Are you satisfied with the motivation you receive from your leader?
- a) Yes
 - b) No
5. What leadership style do you think your current leader belongs to? Leadership styles
- a) Authoritarian
 - b) Democratic
 - c) Bureaucratic
 - d) Laissez-faire
 - e) Charismatic
 - f) Transactional
 - g) Transformational
 - h) Situational
 - i) Servant
6. Under which leadership style do you work the best?
- a) Authoritarian
 - b) Democratic
 - c) Bureaucratic
 - d) Laissez-faire
 - e) Charismatic
 - f) Transactional
 - g) Transformational
 - h) Situational
 - i) Servant
7. Which stereotypes do you think are accurate about women leaders?
- a) Makes emotional decisions
 - b) Unstable mental health
 - c) Should always be kind
 - d) Their opinion counts less

[Ide írhat]

- e) Should be more masculine
 - f) Can not control
 - g) Can not hold a team together
 - h) Should be more supportive
 - i) Less qualified than men
 - j) Can not motivate others
 - k) Can not inspire others
8. What is your gender?
- a) Female
 - b) Male
 - c) Other
 - d) Prefer not to say
9. Please select your age group
- a) 18-24
 - b) 25-34
 - c) 35-44
 - d) 45-54
 - e) 55-65
10. How long have you been working?
- a) Less than one year
 - b) 1-3 years
 - c) 4-6 years
 - d) 7-11 years
 - e) over 12 years
11. How many workplaces have you had during the past 30 years (including your current workplace)?
- a) 1
 - b) 1-3
 - c) 4-6
 - d) 7-10
 - e) over 10