The quintessence of leadership: Antecedents and consequences for employee well-being and organisational commitment

NOPDOL SANKAE

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirement

of Kingston University for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy

Kingston Business School, Kingston University

May 2014

Summary

The quintessence of leadership: Antecedents and consequences for employee well-being and organisational commitment

This thesis investigates the quintessence of leadership in terms of antecedents and consequences, focusing on the leadership traits and styles that relate to employee work-related attitudes. The thesis sheds light on the distinct traits of leaders/managers in the context of the Five-Factor Model of personality and the congruent leadership styles that reflect directly on employee behaviours, work-related attitudes, and organisational performance. Unlike most of the existing studies exploring the antecedents and consequences of leadership, which rely predominantly on small samples and contemporaneous correlations, this thesis uses large-scale survey data to provide a detailed investigation of the influence of gender and sector difference in influencing the triadic relationship personality-leadership-employee attitudes and behaviour.

The thesis provides answers to the three main research questions. The first research question is whether there are specific personality traits that can explain the propensity of individuals to become managers and undertake leadership roles. The second question explores the relationship between leadership style at the organisational level and employee work-related attitudes i.e. job related to well-being. Finally, the third question examines whether leadership style at organisational level can build employee work-related attitudes, and more specifically organisational commitment.

The findings confirm the importance of personality traits as strong predictors of managerial/leadership roles. Likewise, management/leadership style at the organisational level has a significant influence on employee job related well-being and

employee organisational commitment. In particular, the role of trust in leaders, as both a moderator and a mediator, affecting this relationship within particular industrial sectors is confirmed. These findings contribute to the existing theoretical and empirical literature on the antecedents and consequences of leadership.

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

Table of Contents

List of Tables

List of Figures

Acknowledgements

Chapter 1

Introduction and overview of the study

1.1 Introduction

The study addresses the quintessence of leadership, particularly in terms the antecedents and consequences of leadership effectiveness. The research framework is designed to explore antecedents in terms of what the essential issues are that individuals face in becoming leaders and the consequences of leadership effectiveness for employee outcomes. Indeed, this study attempts to explain the leadership traits-behaviour-effectiveness relationship considering the influence of gender and sector differences. Throughout the analysis, leadership traits and behaviour paradigms are used as predictors of leadership effectiveness (Nahrgang, Morgeson and Ilies,2009).

This chapter introduces the research topic of leadership and leadership effectiveness. Section 1.2 discusses the rationale and motivation for the study. Section 1.3 explains the aims, and section 1.4 provides an outline of the chapters in the study.

1.2 The rationale of the study

This research study focuses on the quintessence of leadership in terms of its distinct traits and styles that influence its effectiveness. The study is motivated by a desire for a better understanding of the antecedents and consequences of managerial traits and behaviours. According to Judge et al. (2002), leadership effectiveness is defined as the performance of a leader that influences and guides an organisation's

activities to achieve its goals. Additionally, leadership affects the relationship between leaders and organisational performance, which relates to employee's attitudes to work. The behaviour of leaders could actually have an important impact on employees' work-related behaviours, productivity, and performance (Bass, 1998; Keller, 2006; Northouse, 2010; Yukl, 2010). Thus, leaders and their leadership behaviours/styles are of critical importance for organisational success.

Gender inequality in the leadership and managerial positions has been an interesting and intensely researched topic in the literature and in practice. Although organisational gender diversity and the increasing trend of females in managerial positions, the proportion of male managers remains much higher than that of females. The proportion of females managers, among all managers, increased from about 15% to 30% during the period of the early 1980's to 2003 (Melero, 2004). However, only 9% of female employees were in managerial positions in the United Kingdom, whilst the corresponding percentage for males was 18% (Summerfield and Babb, 2003). Thus, gender differences in managerial positions remains a relevant and important issue within the broader context of a persistent gender gap in opportunities and career prospects in organisations across the world (e.g. Bass, 1990; Eagly, Karau and Makhijani, 1995; Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky, 1992; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Fujita, Diener and Sandvik, 1991).

Nevertheless, a number of empirical studies assert that gender bias in the incidence of managerial positions is only minimal. As Elsesser Lever (2011) and Fiske (1998) argue, employees rate well-known leaders with less stereotyping, irrespective of their gender. Controversially, it remains a puzzling stylised fact that although gender bias or stereotyping has been less prevalent in recent years, the proportion of female managers is still significantly lower than that of male managers. Until an explanation is

2

found to explain such a difference based on differences in productive characteristics, the possibility of gender discrimination in promotions and opportunities for women to advance in managerial positions remains plausible. In this study, we argue that to find satisfactory explanations for the observed gender differences in managerial positions, one must disentangle the influence of organisational factors from the individual factors, including individuals' preferences for an improved work-life balance, material vs. intrinsic rewards, as well as individuals' productive characteristics (i.e. education, skills, workplace experience etc.). Identifying such factors, which explain the gender gap in managerial positions, will offer valuable insight for selecting and recruiting the right person for specific managerial roles.

Within this context of gender differences managerial positions, the current study further explores the behaviours of leaders in terms of leadership style at the organisational level and their impact on employees' work-related attitudes. Thus, the study contributes to the existing literature that explores employees' attitudes and workplace behaviours, including job satisfaction, well-being at work, and organisational commitment, paying particular attention to gender and sector differences. Interestingly, our findings suggest that there are some differences between employee attitudes in terms of trust in their leaders, which are identifiable along gender and sector lines. Trusting their leaders and responding positively to leadership/management styles, provides an additional motivation for employees to work harder with their managers to achieve organisational objectives.

1.3 The aims of the study

Most of the existing studies on the relationship between leadership and organisational outcomes have been conducted using small samples, which affect the

3

interpretation and to what extent the results could be generalised. Existing studies provide some mixed evidence on the role of gender in determining managerial styles, behaviours, and outcomes. In this sense, the relationship between gender, leadership, and organisational outcomes remains an open question. Detailed evidence on this relationship at the sector and occupation levels is rather sparse in the extant literature. Consequently, our study attempts to close these gaps in the literature by using large-scale survey data to provide a detailed investigation of the quintessence of leadership in terms of traits and styles related to employee work-related attitudes, paying particular attention to gender and sector differences.

More specifically, the first aim of this study is to identify leadership traits, in an attempt to explain the difference in such traits in terms of personality, gender and other demographics. Identifying the personal and demographic characteristics of managers/leaders will help us understand who these managers are. A second aim of the study, based on the influence of the gender diversity of managers as a moderator, is to determine whether leadership style is significantly associated with employee work-related attitudes i.e. employee job satisfaction and well-being. A third aim is to highlight an advanced investigation in terms of using the role of trust in leaders to determine whether it is a moderator or mediator into the relationship between leadership style and employee organisational commitment. Our analysis provides answers to the following main research questions:

> **Question 1**: *Do personality traits predict the choice of managerial jobs? Gender and sector differences (see Chapter 3)*
>
> **Question 2**: *Does gender diversity moderate the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction related to well-being? (See Chapter 4)*

4

Question 3: *Is the role of trust in leaders as a moderator or mediator? Examining the relationship of leadership style and organisational commitment (see Chapter 5)*

Figure 1.1 summarises the conceptual framework underpinning our empirical analysis in this thesis.

The study contributes to the existing literature in several distinct ways. Unlike most previous studies based on small samples and mostly on contemporaneous correlations, the study uses large-scale survey data such as the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS 1991-2008) in Chapter 3 and the Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS 2004) in chapters 4 and 5. The study provides a more disaggregated analysis by gender and sector than many of the existing studies investigating traits and styles of leadership. More specifically, in chapter 3, investigating gender differences in the Five-Factor Model (FFM) of personality traits, the study uses gender-oriented approaches to define the different sectors, which refer to two types: (1) feminine oriented sectors and (2) masculine oriented sectors. Moreover, this study examines an additional perspective by using the intrinsic motivation to categorise the industrial sectors into the two different types: (1) private sectors and (2) public sectors. Thus, both perspectives in the classification of the different sectors are used to indicate the FFM of personality traits in managerial positions. In Chapter 4, the study emphasises the congruent gender role theory and employee preferences for alternative leadership styles; the study categorises the different sectors in terms of the organisational gender diversity perspective, which is linked to the classification of three categories of sectors: (1) feminine dominant sectors, (2) masculine dominant sectors and (3) heterogeneous sectors.

Figure 1.1: Conceptual Framework: The quintessence of leadership: Antecedents and consequences
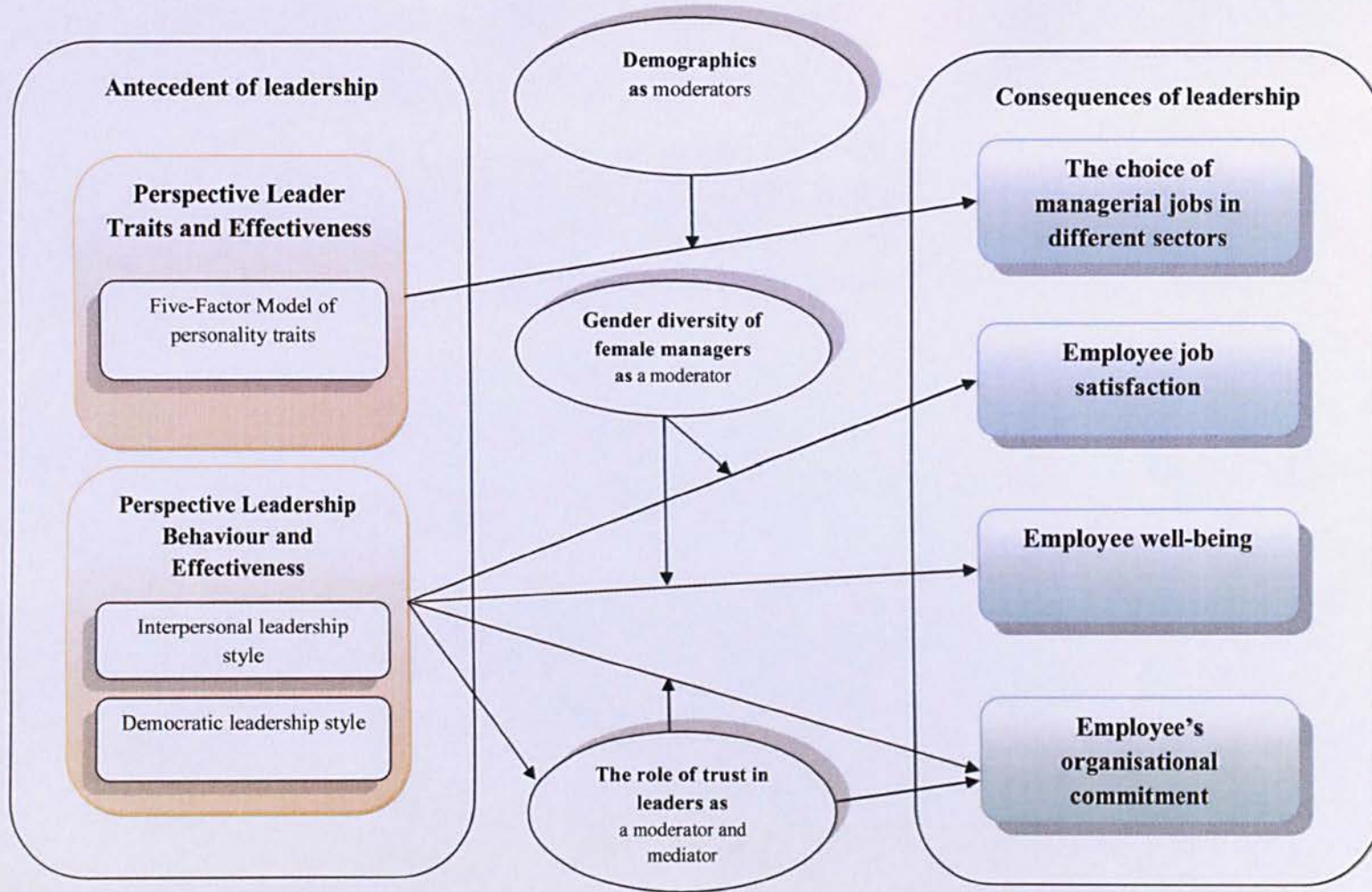
Furthermore, in Chapters 4 and 5 the influence of organisational culture to define the different sectors is taken into account. Chapter 5 focuses on employee work-related attitudes in terms of organisational commitment, which is related to the role of trust in leaders, thus making organisational culture particularly relevant for the typology of sector differences.

1.4 The structure of the thesis

The study is divided into six chapters. Chapter 2, *Literature review,* reviews the relevant literature, which discusses the triadic relationship of leadership traits-behaviour-effectiveness. Concerning leadership traits, the focus is on the FFM of personality traits, in which the study explores theories of leadership in terms of personality traits, mainly considering the gender role toward managerial jobs in the different sectors. Moreover, particular attention is paid to the theoretical leadership behaviour and style of managers, which relate to employee work-related attitudes. To provide the link between leadership style and employee work-related attitudes, the systematic review of the literature identifies employee work-related attitudes in terms of employee job satisfaction and well-being and employee organisational commitment within the role of trusts in leaders. Additionally, the relationship between leadership style and employee work-related attitudes is reviewed, emphasising the influence of gender roles and cross-sector differences in organisational culture. Likewise, interweaving leadership with employee work-related attitudes provides a critical insight into the influence of organisational culture on the efficacy of managerial policies.

Chapter 3, *Do personality traits predict the choice of managerial jobs? Gender and sector differences,* examines the antecedents of the quintessential leadership by

using the FFM of personality traits to define the difference between leaders and non-leaders. Moreover, the study employs the FFM of personality and other demographics such as marital status, education, and annual income to indicate the gender gap in managerial positions. Likewise, we pay particular attention to differences in personality traits and their interaction with gender and organisational sectors.

Chapter 4, *Does gender diversity moderate the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction related to well-being?*, focuses on the effectiveness of leadership in terms of employee work-related attitudes. The chapter explores the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being. More specifically, the gender diversity of managers as a moderator is examined to ascertain its impact on the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being.

Chapter 5, *Is the role of trust in leaders as a moderator or mediator? : Examining the relationship of leadership style and organisational commitment,* scrutinises the impact of leadership styles and behaviours on employee organisational commitment. Interestingly, the study explores the role of employees' trust in their leaders as a moderate and a mediator of the relationship between components of leadership style and employee organisational commitment.

Chapter 6, *Conclusions and implications of research findings,* the final chapter, summarises and discusses the findings. In this chapter, we discuss the main findings of the thesis in terms of the FFM of personality traits of leaders, the relationship of leadership style and employee work-related attitudes and the potential of leadership style to influence employee work-related attitudes. This chapter also reflects on the main contributions of the thesis to the existing theoretical and empirical literature. The findings in the context of implications for individuals' practice and recommendations

for organisational policy and practice are outlined. Finally, the chapter highlights some of the limitations of the analysis in this thesis and suggests ways for future work.

Chapter 2

Literature Review

2.1 Introduction

The literature review focuses on the aspects of particular interest in terms of the antecedents and consequences of the quintessential leadership effectiveness. The study addresses the effect of personality traits and behaviour of leaders on personal and organisational outcomes. These are defined by the subjective assessment i.e. the personality traits of leaders and objective measurement i.e. employees' work-related attitudes to indicate the leadership effectiveness. Thus, the literature review is to delineate pathways of the existing theories and the relevant context in order to discover the important variables, relate ideas and theories to the application, and identify the main methodologies and research techniques.

Another aspect to consider is the difference between leadership and management. Although Bennis and Nanus (1986) support the view that the roles between managers and leaders are different in that managers do the right things whilst leaders do the thing right, other studies argue that the boundaries between leadership and management overlap (Yukl, 1999). The behaviour of both leaders and managers in what they do are alike and difficult to observe clearly given the certain professions (i.e. leaders) or the position within an organisation (i.e. managers) (Briner and Walshe, 2013). Consequently, the terms of manager vs. leader and management vs. leadership usually can be used interchangeably in practical and academic work, which is referred in this thesis.

The literature review begins with the general overview of research relating to the definition and classification of leadership styles, and highlights the influence of personality traits of leaders and the effect of employees' work-related attitudes, which are associated with leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the literature review is structured into four sections. The first section covers the perspective of leadership traits-behaviours-effectiveness, providing a conceptualisation of leadership effectiveness, leadership theory, and the classification of leadership and the relationship between leadership traits, behaviours, and effectiveness. The second section emphasises the relationship between leadership and FFM of personality and its implications. The third section presents the influence of gender and its implication on the leadership traits and effectiveness. Finally, the fourth section introduces the relationship between leadership style and employee's work-related attitudes, which are referred to employee job-related well-being and organisational commitment, and its implications.

2.2 The perspective of leadership traits-behaviours-effectiveness

Leaders' personality traits and behaviours have been the subject of numerous studies as paradigms that could offer useful insight into the antecedents of leadership effectiveness (Nahrgang, Morgeson and Ilies, 2009). In this section, the study aims to explore the concept of leadership effectiveness and its various definitions and approaches. Moreover, the study reviews the relationship between leadership traits-behaviours-effectiveness within the different perspective approaches.

2.2.1 The Conceptualisation of leadership effectiveness

There are various definitions for leadership effectiveness, depending on the context that is used, e.g. competent, managerial, or organisational context. Defining the concept is often difficult and influenced by many factors (Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994). Lee et al. (2010) state that an effective leader is a person who has motivation and commitment to work and interact with his or her group to achieve the vision, mission and goals of the organisation. Likewise, Judge et al. (2002) propose that leadership effectiveness relates to the performance of a leader who influences and guides an organisation's activities to achieve its goals. Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy (2012) mention that effective leadership is about the behaviour of leaders in relation to the behaviour of followers. Thus, leadership effectiveness relies on the specific context of the leader - follower relationship.

To measure leadership effectiveness, studies have adopted both subjective and objective measures, e.g. the validity of the outcome performance and employees' work-related attitudes (e.g. Dionne et al., 2002; Jing and Avery, 2008; Keller, 2006; Schriesheim et al., 2006; Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013). However, there are some conflicts in terms of effective measurement. Judge et al. (2002) criticise existing approaches to measuring leadership effectiveness because of the potential impurity that should be directly assessed by individuals' perceptions rather than objective performance outcomes. On the other hand, Spector (2006) and Spector and Brannick (1995) point out that the problem of subjective assessment is overstated even though the researchers have been aware of the potential effect of sources and methods. Likewise, Yukl (2010) proposes that the best way to investigate leadership effectiveness is by including a variety of criteria and examining the implications of each criterion for leadership behaviour. Consequently, DeRue et al. (2011) demonstrate, in their meta-analysis, that

12

effective leaders can focus on making improvements in three main dimensions: (1) the content relates to task performance, affective and relation criteria (e.g. satisfaction with the leader), or overall perspective (i.e. both task and relational elements); (2) the level of analysis involved to conceptualise at individual, dyadic, group or organisational level perspectives; and (3) the target of the evaluation refers to effectiveness, satisfaction with leader or domain outcome perspective. These dimensions introduce different perspectives that depend on the specific purpose of each study. Thus, it is important to revisit the framework of leadership effectiveness perspective adopted in previous studies.

In another strand of the literature, empirical studies focus on leadership emergence instead of leadership effectiveness. Leadership emergence is a perception of individual as leader-like whilst the leadership effectiveness refers to an effective individual to influence others in organisation's activities (Colbert et al., 2012; Stogdill, 1950). Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan (1994) propose that although the concepts of leadership emergence and effectiveness are different, they are likely to be highly correlated. Moreover, Colbert et al. (2012) propose that the correlation of the emergent and effective leadership is about 0.89. Indeed, both leadership emergence and effectiveness are subjectively measured by self-assessment questionnaires.

2.2.2 The leadership traits theory

The traits theory of leadership is the earliest approach emphasising attributes of leadership. Nevertheless, it is still studied today acknowledging its contribution in making more progress to discover the relation of traits-behaviours-effectiveness leadership (Yukl, 2010). Moreover, the relationship between leadership and traits varies depending on the type of leaders, such as a business, military officer, or politician

13

(Lord et al., 2001). Due to the inconsistent context and examining different leadership facets, the results have been different from study to study (e.g. De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman, 2005; Judge and Bono, 2000; Van Eeden, Cilliers and Van Deventer, 2008). Therefore, this topic has been of continuous interest to researchers who have placed particular emphasis on the nature and characteristics of leadership roles.

The individual leader's traits is referred to a variety of aspects, which include general individual's characteristics in physical and mental capacities such as height, weight and age (Hunter and Jordan, 1939; Pigors, 1933), personality traits, temperament, needs, motives, and values (Yukl, 2010), intelligence, dominance and masculinity (Lord, De Vader and Allinger, 1986). Northouse (2010) points out that the traits viewpoint of leadership is based on individuals who take on inherent characteristics or congenital qualities toward leadership that distinguish themselves from others. However, Stogdill (1974) claims that there are no traits universally guaranteed to be associated with the effective leaders, but some characteristics such as intelligence, initiative, stress tolerance, responsibility, friendliness, and dominance are moderately associated with leadership effectiveness. Empirical evidence testing the predictions of leadership categorisation theory highlight the fact that important leadership traits that reflect leadership effectiveness relate to the followers' perception in attribution and identification of leaders. Such perceptions could be about the leaders' physical appearance in terms of maturity and attractiveness, and the followers' similarity attraction (Cherulnik, Turns and Wilderman, 1990; Conger and Kanungo, 1987; Lord, 1985). Thus, this has led previous research studies to emphasise individual's traits as predictors of emergent leadership or identifying the relevant traits for indicated leadership effectiveness.

The increased interest in the role of traits has led many researchers attempting to integrate the existing conceptual frameworks within a comprehensive taxonomy. However, as Yukl (2010) argues, certain traits can explain only a particular situation, implying that there are no universal traits of leadership. For instance, some traits are suitable for effective performance at a lower-level managerial position, but they are not necessary suitable for higher-level leadership positions. Moreover, Colbert et al. (2012) point out that using numerous traits leads to inconsistent results for explaining leadership effectiveness and lack of an organising framework for comparing results across studies. Thus, based on the abstract nature of some traits, which are difficult to interpret, Yukl (2010) suggests that studies need to adopt a holistic approach for linking leadership traits to leadership effectiveness. He proposes three aspects of a balanced concept in leader traits, which have attracted most attention among researchers:

1) The balancing of ideas in an optimal clustering of traits as a moderator, although most studies fail to find a strong relationship between leadership traits and effectiveness. Yukl (2010) points out that the previous studies analyse explore mostly linear relationships, which are not necessarily appropriate for all situations. For example, the effective leaders need self-confidence to influence others to achieve performance, nevertheless, excessive self-confidence impacts on the resistance to leaders. Thus, using curvilinear analysis (rather than linear relationship) may be suitable for investigating the relationship between traits and effective leadership in the situation.

2) The balancing of ideas in one trait with another to the analysis of trait patterns; i.e. leaders need to balance competing values. For instance, leaders often face situations involving trade-offs such as task versus people, risk taking versus prudent caution, and control versus empowerment.

3) The balancing of concepts of both individuals and teams in management. This means that it is also important for a better understanding of leadership effectiveness to examine the trait patterns of management teams rather than to investigate only the individual traits of a leader.

Along with a growing body of research, the empirical studies during the 1980s and 1990s have highlighted the link between leadership and personality traits (e.g. Hogan, Curphy, and Hogan, 1994; Lord, DeVader, and Allinger, 1986). Moreover, Hogan and Hogan (1995) demonstrate that individuals' behaviour depends on the strengths of the personality traits that they process. It implies that the measurement of personality traits could potentially identify a consistent pattern of behaviour in effective leaders. This could offer valuable support for an organisation in hiring the right person into a managerial position.

The contents of Personality: Conception and background

The concept of personality is loosely described using statements that reflect a variety of perspectives on philosophy, religion, art, and science throughout history and in various cultures. However, Engler (2008) refers to the common usage of personality that derives the word '*personae*' from Latin. '*Personae*' means the masks that change according to the role of the performers on stage in ancient Greece. She also proposes the concept of leadership as a personality, described by Bingham (1927), in which a person who is a leader relies on a large number of desirable personality traits and characters. Moreover, the relevant meaning of personality is organised as a pattern of distinctive traits in a specific person and the personality traits are integrated in patterns of a varying degree of complexity. For instance, the trait of *Agreeableness* may consist of correlated sub-traits such as trust, straightforwardness, altruism, compliance,

16

modesty, and tender-mindedness. Additionally, Ryckman (2008) describes personality as a dynamic set of personal characteristics, which influences an individual's cognitions, motivations, and behaviours in different situations.

Yet, a controversy regarding the different perspectives on personality dominates many of the academic discussions. For example, McCare et al. (2000) refer to the biological perspective that an individual's personality after the age of 30 is subject to only minor modifications, which are driven by a process of intrinsic biological maturation rather than the influence of a nurtured perspective. Additionally, Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy, (2012) assert that the personality traits, which are the key drivers of behaviour, tend to be stable over the years. On the other hand, the contextualised views suggest that personality is subject to a variety of changes along the life span, which could be gender specific (Helson, Pals and Solomon,1997). As a matter of fact, personality consists of behavioural patterns underpinned by intrapersonal processes (Burger, 2004) and is regarded as a combination of inheritance, environmental influence, and learning experiences. In other words, individuals' personality is the results of both nature and nurture. Meanwhile, Shriberg and Shriberg (2011) postulate that although both nature and nurture play a role in personality, this is not taken into account universally across studies, which tend to adopt a different perspective depending on the specific context of inquiry.

The taxonomy of FFM of personality traits

The relationship between personality traits and leadership has been studied extensively and is supported by an increasing body of evidence. Engler (2008) argues that personality is used to predict what a person will do in each situation. Additionally, the individuals' personality, rather than intelligence or gender, remains the key aspect

for selection of effective leaders (DeRue et al., 2011). Leadership scholars have shown

how, at the theoretical level, personality traits could be used to create personality scales

but their findings are confused and inconsistent (McCrae and Oliver, 1992). However,

the most familiar models of personality traits, which are categorised and developed to

the FFM of personality, are Cattell, Norman, and McCrae and Costa's studies. The

taxonomy of personality traits could be traced back to Cattell's (1943, 1946, 1947,

1948), who focuses on a relative complexity of individual differences in terms of

describing behaviour (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Although biological and physical

differences can explain differences in personality traits, such differences can be

manifested through observable behaviours. As Avolio and Gibbons (1988) assert,

individuals' behaviours can be traced by individuals' traits. In other words, personality

is consistent with the patterns of behaviours and intrapersonal process, which originate

in individuals (Burger, 2004). For categorising personality traits, Cattell uses factor

analysis to group personality traits into the 16 personality factors (16PF). However,

some studies, for instance the study of Borgatta (1964) and Tupes and Christal (1961),

found that only 5 factors (i.e. Surgency, Emotional stability, Agreeableness,

Dependability and Culture) of Cattell's model are correlated significantly with

personality (Digman, 1990).

Norman's work uses the findings of previous studies (e.g. Borgatta (1964),

Cattell's 16PF model (1948) and Tupes and Christal model (1958)) to create an

adequate taxonomy of personality traits. By doing this, he develops the theoretical

basis of prior models and also investigates various levels of abstraction in terms of five

factors that include Extraversion or Surgency, Emotional Stability, Agreeableness,

Conscientiousness and Openness to experience or Culture, as a label of Norman's Big

five or the Big five (Barrick and Mount, 1991). Interestingly, all five factors notably

emerge as the Big Five of today. Later, McCrae and Costa (1995) conclude that

18

personality traits are explained by dispositions rather than descriptive summaries of behaviours. These are related to patterns of thoughts, feelings and actions. Thus, FFM of personality represents a complete characterisation of individuals at a global level toward the highest hierarchical level of traits description (McCrae and Oliver, 1992). Psychologists regard the Five-Factor Model (FFM) as an indicator linking any personality construct to a taxonomy that integrates the existing body of evidence on personality facets and other individual attributes (Mueller and Plug, 2006). Moreover, McCrae and Costa (1995) point out that using a validated method and manifest knowledge of traits to assess individual's traits can address the explanation of an individual's behaviour. Likewise, Barrick and Mount (1991) assert in their meta-analysis that FFM of personality is a robust model across different theoretical frameworks and in different cultures. Some studies suggest the measurement of personality with more than five factors, for example Hogan's (1986) model with six facets of personality. Nevertheless, the principle differences of his model are related to FFM of personality i.e. Sociability and Ambition of Hogan's model are associated with Extraversion dimension of FFM of personality.

Previous studies which employ the same instruments of the five dimensions of FFM model assert that the results are indeed similar (Deary, 1996; Hogan, Curphy and Hogan, 1994), implying that the FFM is likely to be robust in describing individuals' behaviour patterns. Therefore, the FFM, as an indicator of personality traits including *Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Neuroticism,* and *Openness to experience,* is independent in its categories and classification of individual personality at the broadest level of abstraction (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Goldberg, 1990; Mueller and Plug, 2006). Generally, FFM is known as OCEAN, NEOCA, or CANOE. Some theorists identify the personality in Five-Factor Model as the Big Five. The description of the five dimensions of the FFM model is presented as follows (e.g. Costa and

19

McCrae, 1988; De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman, 2005; Hogan, Curphy and

Hogan, 1994; Hughes, Ginnett, and Curphy, 2012; John and Srivastava, 1999; McCrae,

1996; McCrae and Costa, 1991; Mueller and Plug, 2006; Ployhart, Lim and Chan,

2001).

Extraversion: It is concerned with those behaviours that are more involved in

group settings and paying attention to future life. The facets of characteristics

associated to *Extraversion*(vs. Introversion) are gregariousness (sociable), assertiveness

(forceful), excitement seeking (adventurous), positive emotions (enthusiastic) and

warmth (outgoing). Individuals who stand on *Extraversion* in terms of being outgoing

and trying to get the group to do certain things are associated with leadership positions

(e.g. taking risks, making decisions and having upward mobility).

Agreeableness: Agreeable individuals (vs. Antagonistic) are trustworthy

(forgiving), straightforward (not demanding), altruistic (warm), compliant (not

stubborn), modest (not showing off) and tender-minded (sympathetic) and are

encouraged to link to others and have concern for others interests. Wosinska et al.

(1996) mention that a female with high *Agreeableness* is highly favoured by an

audience, whilst this dimension is moderately modest favourite in males. However,

people who have a high score of *Agreeableness* dimension often confront with the

problem in odd decision-making and in dealing with the conflict situations, which lead

to the negative effectiveness in their teams.

Openness to experience: This dimension involves encompassing ideas

(curious), fantasies (imaginative), aesthetics (artistic), actions (wide interest), feelings

(excitable), and values (unconventional). Individuals scoring high on *Openness to*

experience have bravery from inside their mind to think and fantasize whilst

considering social values. Moreover, they tend to have a strategic, big picture thinking,

20

seeking new experiences and learning about new cultures. This seems more important for effective leadership at a higher level of the organisational hierarchy and in the context of strategy and planning.

Conscientiousness: Individuals scoring high on *Conscientiousness* (vs. Lack of Direction) are characterised by competence (efficient), order (organised), dutifulness (not careless), achievement striving (thorough), self-discipline (not lazy) and deliberation (not impulsive). Moreover, the dimension of *Conscientiousness* is associated with the behaviour of individuals in terms of organising, planning, and taking commitments seriously. Although people with a high score in this dimension tend to be uncreative, risk-averse and dislike change, which may be a barrier against effective leadership, the previous empirical studies assert that the dimension of *Conscientiousness* is a good predictor for potential leadership.

Neuroticism: *Neuroticism* (vs. Emotional Stability) reflects the tendency to be anxious (tense), angry hostile (irritable), depressed (not contented), self-consciousness (shy), impulsive (moody) and vulnerable (not self-confident). A person who has a high rating in *Neuroticism* shows that he or she lacks self-confidence and self-esteem and is likely to be a pessimist. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) mention that in emotional situations, followers always imitate their leader's behaviour; therefore, leaders who control their emotions and stay calm under pressure are more likely to lead the team to achieve the goal than leaders with high *Neuroticism*. Moreover, research studies also confirm that the dimension of *Neuroticism* is not a measurement for leadership effectiveness.

Besides, the FFM of personality has been certified by numerous analyses focusing on taxonomies of personality traits across different cultures. Thus, the classification of FFM can characterise accurately people with different characteristics

21

and cultures in terms of five dimensions of personality. Nevertheless, there is a controversy over whether the FFM of personality is a too narrow or a too broad of a measurement for examining personality traits (Buss, 1988; Cattell, 1990; Waller, 1999; Eysenck, 1990; Tellegen, 1991; Zuckerman, 1991). However, many studies also indicate that the Five-Factor structure is inheritable and stable over time (Costa and McCare, 1988; Digman, 1989; Judge et al., 2002). Block (1995) points out that the study of leadership traits is necessary to measure a more specific personality than in a broad level of measurement for an adequate understanding of personality traits. Likewise, Hogan,Curphy and Hogan (1994) emphasise the relevance of the FFM as one of many personality trait measurements, which has heightened valuable and useful measurement in relation to predicting successful leadership. However, the results of previous studies are still ambiguous. De Hoogh, Den Hartog, and Koopman (2005) argue that the FFM is considered comprehensive enough in terms of capturing several aspects of the above relationship between personality and leadership, but on the negative side, it puts too much emphasis on lower level dimensions or traits or personality.

Barrick and Mount (2005) point out when studies predict the leadership behaviour based on narrower (e.g. criteria of leaders) and more specific workplace criteria (e.g. sector of organisations), they are concerned about the requirement for traits constructs, which could influence the results. *Agreeableness*, as Yukl (2010) explains, is measured using different measurements depending on the type of organisations, different representations of sub-dimension of FFM and different criteria variables (e.g. leadership of emergence, advancement, or effectiveness). This makes the interpretation of the results in the role of *Agreeableness* difficult to interpret. Likewise, Judge et al. (2002) propose that FFM of personality can predict the leadership within a multiple correlation of .48. They remark that *Conscientiousness* has the strongest correlation

with leader emergence. Indeed, the FFM of personality in leadership have a higher degree on four dimensions i.e. *Extraversion, Conscientiousness, Openness to experience* and *Agreeableness,* and a lower degree on *Neuroticism.* As a result, leadership effectiveness and leadership emergence are linked to all five dimensions with multiple coefficient values of .39 and .53.

2.2.3 The leadership behaviour theory

Leadership behaviour continues to attract a strong interest among both researches and practitioners. It is a phenomenon within a context of interaction between leaders and followers, which is intrinsically linked to the role of leaders in managing successful organisations (Northouse, 2010). Day (2000) asserts that leadership behaviours predict accurately leadership effectiveness. Moreover, leadership effectiveness is highly correlated with leadership behaviours rather than with leadership traits. The different types of leadership behaviours are more likely to reflect on different follower behaviours by his/her outcomes e.g. the level of satisfaction and performance. There are several taxonomies which are derived from observed behaviours to describe leadership behaviours such as two paradigms of a considerate-people orientation and an initiating structure-task orientation (Bass, 1991; Judge and Piccolo, 2004), the leaders' behaviour of three approaches, which are task-oriented, relational-oriented, and change-oriented approaches (DeRue et al., 2011). However, Yulk (2013) confirms that no set of leadership behaviour classification can be the definitive explanation. He concludes that the different designed taxonomies, which range from broad to narrow to define leadership behaviours, depend on the purpose of constructs.

Some empirical studies suggest that taxonomies designed to research leadership effectiveness are more useful within narrowly specific behaviour classifiers. For instance, Bass and Avolio (1994) propose that the full range model of leadership behaviours which refers mostly to the concept of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire behaviour associates with leadership effectiveness. On the other hand, Yulk (2013) claims that the effective leadership is relevant one or two broad categories related to specific component behaviours. Additionally, the broadly-defined behaviours (e.g. a set of two meta-categories) are useful to analyse complex contexts and to compare results from study to study (Alimo-Metcalfe, 2013; Yulk, 2013).

Alimo-Metcalfe (2013) proposes that leadership behaviour types can be classified in the set of two meta-categories, which are referred to as masculine and feminine roles i.e. task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented and autocratic vs. democratic leadership styles. These leadership style paradigms are implicit for the effective leadership in terms of being associated with employee job satisfaction and performance in all situations (Stogdill, 1974). Thus, the current study presents two major taxonomies of leadership behaviours, which are most interested in theory and practice for effective leadership behaviours, i.e. (1) the full range leadership behaviours as broadly defined behaviour categories and (2) the four leadership style paradigms (the set of two meta-categories) as narrowly defined behaviour categories. These are explained in more detail below.

The Full range of leadership behaviours

The full range model, developed by Bass and Avolio (1994), is comprised of transformational leadership, transactional leadership, and laissez-faire behaviour which

are considered in terms of employee-employer involvement and leadership effectiveness.

Transformational Leadership

Transformational leadership consists of relational-oriented behaviour, which is a set of behaviours to create and assist individual followers in changing organisations (DeRue et al., 2011). The leaders with transformational behaviour sitimulate followers to bringforth a new vision, leading them to more success than initially expected (Yukl, 2009). Similarly, Bass (1985) defines transformational leadership as a motivation process, which raises followers to recognise what is right and what is important and encourages them to work beyond expectations. Typically, most studies refer to transformational leadership as a driving behaviour of a leader to leadership effectiveness in several associated contexts of organisations. The dimensions of transformational leadership behaviour are idealised influence, inspirational motivation, individualised consideration, and intellectual stimulation (Bass and Avolio,1993). Each dimension of transformational leadership can be explained by the study of Bass and Avolio (1994), Judge and Bono (2000), Lee et al. (2010) and Sosik and Megerian (1999) as follows.

Individual consideration: Focuses on assistance and development of the individual needs of followers, which means to spend time teaching and coaching from lower-level physical needs to higher-level psychological needs. This dimension is unlike traditional considerations because it concerns more on followers' development than on decision-making.

Intellectual stimulation: It encourages followers to be more creative with problem solving and stimulation of new perspectives, as well as it challenges followers

25

to reconsider their self-interest in order to meet the needs of the group. Intellectual stimulation also means promoting the innovation by changing the view of problems and finding new ways to resolve situations. From this point, Sosik and Megerian (1999) explain intellectual stimulation as "... re-examines critical assumptions to question whether they are appropriate..." (p.376).

Inspirational motivation: It is a strong desire that requires high attempt and challenge to achieve the goal, which involves articulation of a clear, appealing and inspiring vision to followers. This dimension is greatly correlated with idealised influence and they always join together in practice. Thus, the major component of transformational leadership or the construct charisma is the combination of both dimensions, inspirational motivation and idealised influence, which are able to predict leadership success.

Idealised influence: Decides, shares and encourges a transparent vision, mission and purpose of the organisation to followers, which is usually referred to as a charismatic role model. Idealised influence demonstrates high standards of conduct, self-sacrifice, determination and far-sightedness. Particularly, it is the most prototypic and the most single important dimension.

Transactional Leadership

The distinguishing feature of transactional leadership as opposed to transformational leadership is the association with the followers in the context of an exchange relationship. Bass (1985) explains the purpose of transactional leadership is an exchange of valued things with others. The behaviour of transactional leadership represents task-oriented through contingent rewards, anticipate task-oriented problems and active management by exception (DeRue et al., 2011). Meanwhile, Bono and

Judge (2004) reveal that there are varying degrees of representation in transactional leadership. Such representations present the activity level from highest to lowest in three dimensions of transactional leadership respectively, as mentioned in Bass (1990), Bass (1997), Judge and Bono (2000), Judge and Piccolo (2004), Lee et al. (2010) and Sosik and Megerian (1999), which are concluded as follows.

Contingent reward: It is defined as an exchange of valued resources between leaders and followers when they recognise good performance toward the achievement of organisation's goals. In terms of active form, the contingent reward is the highest degree in transactional leadership but it is less than the active form of transformational leadership. Judge and Bono (2000) support that transactional leadership engages in contingent reward without involvement of subordinates such as implementing a pay for performance plan whilst transformational leadership refers to one or more persons engaged with others in higher levels of motivation and morality. However, the contingent reward dimension has a significant and positive correlation with the follower's job satisfaction, satisfaction with leader and followers motivation.

Management by exception-active: It monitors the performance of followers to prevent errors and deviations from standards. A leader pays attention to the followers' actions, which require corrective direction before any mistakes occur (e.g. poor performance, irregularity, or complains). In other words, the leader enforces rules to avoid mistakes.

Management by exception-passive: This active form is only taken after a severe problem has occurred by intervening to resolve the issues. Leaders do minor monitoring followers and action only when problem becomes seriously.

Both active and passive management are preliminary to support the implicit or explicit contingent in order to keep the performance of followers on track, preventing errors and make sure followers are compliant to the rules. The findings of the dimension of transactional behaviour related to leadership effectiveness are inconsistent. Judge and Piccolo (2004) propose in their meta-analytic study that contingent reward is significantly positive whilst management by exception (active and passive) is inconsistently associated with leadership criteria (e.g. emergent and effective leadership) and effectiveness outcomes (e.g. employee's job satisfaction, motivation and performance). Although there are the different levels of attention in the three dimensions of transactional leadership (i.e. contingent reward, management by exception-active, management by exception-passive), all three dimensions still need further attention from studies of the effective leaders.

Laissez-faire behaviour

This behaviour refers to non-leadership, which avoids any leadership duties or responsibilities and it is neither the behaviour of transformational leadership nor of transactional leadership. Thus, leaders who are in laissez-faire behaviour escape from leadership or management of perception and execution in any responsibility and they do not attempt to persuade or satisfy the followers' needs. This implies that there is no particular emphasis on task and people relationships. However, this style may be used as a component with other leadership behaviours in self-management. Leaders have not displayed laissez-faire behaviour directly in any action. Consequently, Bass (1997) points out that laissez-faire behaviour negatively relates to transformational leadership whereas contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership relates positively. Therefore, three dimensions of leadership behaviour i.e. transformational, transactional, and laissez-faire behaviours are likely to have their sub-dimensions overlap each other.

28

In consideration of transformational and transactional leadership styles, transformational leadership theory receives the most attention of organisation research. In a view of transformational leadership behaviour, although leaders predominate over their subordinates, the influence of leaders is to empower subordinates for participative organisational transformation (Yukl, 1989). Transactional leaders, on the other hand, clarify followers' work-by setting up constructive exchange (Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Although there are different styles and contrastive characteristics between transformational and transactional leadership, both leadership behaviours are examined concerning the effective leaders. Some research studies assert that transformational leadership is likely to be more associated with leadership effectiveness than transactional leadership (e.g. Lee et al., 2010; Lowe, Kroeck and Sirasubramaniam, 1996); however, other studies have different arguments (e.g. Avery, 2004; Judge and Piccolo, 2004). Avery (2004) mentions that both transformational and transactional behaviours support leadership effectiveness depending on the organisational situations. For instance, transformational leadership is more appropriate where the situation has insufficient information or is complex and ambiguous for managers. Likewise, in the situation that employees are lacking in commitment or unwilling to perform in leader's vision, transactional behaviour is required. However, it should be noted that both theoretical transformational and transactional behaviours are broader in focusing attributes due to they are simultaneously involved in leader traits, powers, behaviours and situations (Yukl, 1989). This may lead to more difficult in interpreting the relationship of leader-follower within these behaviours. Particularly, transformational leadership relates to gender roles and effectiveness, as is in the most research studies; the results are still mixed which may be due to the implicit relationship of it attributes.

In the same vein, the full range of leadership behaviours in terms of transformational, transactional and laissez-faire behaviours is not obviously associated

with gender roles when compared with the set of two meta-categories leadership styles (i.e. task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented and autocratic vs. democratic leadership style) (e.g. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Hackman et al. (1992), however, propose that the individualised considerate dimension of transformational leadership is somewhat aligned with communal aspects which are likely to have more feminine than masculine attributes. For instance, leaders who behave in the theme of individualised consideration of transformational leadership are monitoring and developing their subordinates as well as paying attention to their subordinate's needs (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). The leaders with individualised consideration seem more in line with female in communal attributes rather than male gender roles as agential attributes. However, Yulk (2013) argues that although some studies assert transformational leadership is effective leadership behaviour, the components of transformational behaviour, which have different theories and measurements (e.g. mixed a few relation-oriented, a few task-oriented and a few change-oriented behaviours), are difficult to identify into single meta-categories.

Four leadership style paradigms as the set of two meta-categories

Alternatively, there is another criterion of the leadership behaviour approaches which refer to the set of two meta-categories i.e. task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented and autocratic vs. democratic leadership styles. These leadership styles, which are the consistent patterns of behaviours, attempt to influence the followers' activities (Hersey and Blanchard, 1981). The dimension of task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented which is introduced by Bales (1950) and the dichotomy of autocratic vs. democratic styles which is introduced by Lewin and Lippitt (1938) are the most prominent leadership styles in leadership theory today (Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen, 2001). Each definition of leadership styles is explained by the study of Bass (1990), Eagly and

Johannesen-Schmidt (2001), Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012), Melero (2004) and Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen (2001) which are summed up as follows.

Production-oriented or Task-oriented leadership style

Task-oriented style consists of behaviours in terms of supervising subordinates to follow rules and procedures and maintain high standards of performance. Leaders who possess the task-oriented style are able to clarify the scope of their team including telling people what, how, when and who to do it. In other words, they focus on getting the work done and giving direct instructions, which are likely to influence the actions of the followers. Moreover, these leaders reserve more decisions for themselves and are less concerned with the needs of their followers. In contrast, leaders who are characterised as less task-oriented tend to have higher flexibility in the distribution of jobs and be less specific in the setting of goals and procedures.

Employee-centred or Interpersonal leadership style

Employee-centred or interpersonal leadership style involves care, concern, and compassion for others, whereby employees value relationships with others and focus on the positive aspects of such relationships. Furthermore, individuals with interpersonal leadership style tend to maintain a high level of follower's morale and care for the follower's self-esteem. Particularly, leaders who display interpersonal leadership style do favours for subordinates, explain procedures and tend to be friendly and available. Consequently, this leadership style relies on the interaction between leaders and followers, which affects the behaviour of followers.

Directive leadership or Autocratic leadership style

Individuals who have more autocratic leadership style employ hard tactics to control others' behaviour. The authoritarian leader relates to a powerful person who coerces others to follow him or her and is able to directly reinforce others' behaviour by rewards and punishments. Thus, authoritarian leaders who are characterised by dominance and control tend to have a more masculine stereotype in decision-making. Traditionally in early studies, the concepts which described leadership in terms of work related behaviour are likely to align with the autocratic leadership style.

Participative leadership or Democratic leadership style

Participative or democratic leadership style is concerned about the followers' participation in decision-making, influenced through rational methods. The employees have more motivation is likely to depend on their involving in decision in the task. Additionally, these leaders are characterised by a feminine style, which involves a high emphasis on others. Although both leadership styles (i.e. autocratic and democratic) assessment is equal in employee performance, the authoritarian leaders rate their follower as less in terms of motivation, skill, and appropriateness for promotion. This may decrease the efficiency of followers' performance and follower work-related attitude in the long term.

Each set of two meta-categories is somewhat interrelated. For example, individuals who display the democratic leadership style are likely to facilitate the emergence of interpersonal-oriented leadership style. Similarly, the autocratic leadership style is relevant to task-oriented. However, Bass (1990) mentions that the magnitude correlation of these leadership styles is not perfect. Based on the dimension of task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented, some studies consider the two leadership

32

styles as a separate dimension related dichotomous approach whereas others propose as a single continuum (Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen, 2001). Interestingly, the findings of the effective leadership in both task-oriented and interpersonal leadership styles are different. For instance, Melero (2004) argues that the distinguishing feature between task-oriented and interpersonal leadership style in terms of leadership effectiveness is non-exclusion. In contrast, the study of Bass and Dunteman (1963) in the laboratory finds that task-oriented leadership style is potential related to the successful leader (Bass, 1990). Meanwhile, Daley (1986) proposes that interpersonal leadership style is more associated with effectiveness than the task-oriented style. This implies when the actual leader's behaviour is investigated, both task-oriented and interpersonal leadership styles, as a dichotomous approach, are still ambiguous in terms of its relations with the effective leadership. One possibility is that leaders may display a combination of leadership styles within different degrees. Therefore, this current study will explore the dimension of task-oriented and interpersonal-oriented as a single dimension in alternatively defining two ends of a continuum set. This means that a range of the single dimension is considered, with leaders who are more concerned with task structures to interacting with subordinates. Likewise, Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen (2001) confirm that the dimension of autocratic and democratic leadership is a single dimension. The range of a continuum dimension of autocratic-democratic decision-making rates a leader's behaviour from more leading and not allowing subordinates in interferential decision-making to empowering subordinates to participate in decision-making.

Furthermore, the four approaches of leadership styles which are indicated as a set of two meta-categories (i.e. the dimension of task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented styles and the dimension of autocratic vs. democratic styles) associate with gender role. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) explain that agential norms, which are typically

33

related more to men than women in terms of dominant and controlling roles, are likely

relevant to autocratic dimension of leadership style. Indeed, based on leadership role,

the set of the autocratic vs. democratic styles is a slightly narrower aspect than the set of

task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented styles. It implies that gender difference may be

related to both sets of meta-categories. Therefore, the broadly defined leadership style

of the four approaches may be suitable for investigating the relationship of gender roles,

leadership styles and employees' attitudes which are emphasised more in chapters 4 and

5.

2.2.4 The relationship between leadership traits, behaviours, and effectiveness

Most theory and research on leadership views an influence process and focuses

on the explanation of the differences of leaders vs. non-leaders and leadership

effectiveness. Avolio (2007) proposes that the predominant approaches of effective

leaders emphasise cognitions, attributes, behaviours and contexts concerning the

interacting of leaders-followers. A framework of integration theoretical leadership

refers to two paradigms i.e. traits and behaviours to define leadership effectiveness

(Derue et al., 2011). Although previous studies support that leader's traits and

behaviours influence leadership effectiveness, the results are inconsistent due to various

criteria of research on leadership effectiveness and the influence of other relevant

variables. Such criteria include subjective and objective measures of leadership

effectiveness (e.g. a subject in individual/ group and an object in employee job/leader

satisfaction), criteria based on sectors (e.g. private and public) and criteria based on

different hierarchies of leadership (e.g. higher and lower level of leaders) (Lowe,

Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996). Moreover, Avolio (2007) points out that there is

a lack of integration of leadership traits and behaviours paradigms. Most empirical

studies focus on a single trait (e.g. gender and leadership effectiveness) or behaviour

(e.g. transformation-leadership effectiveness) without controlling for or comparing or

being concerned with other contexts (Derue et al., 2011). These may affect the mixed

results from previous studies.

In terms of the leader traits paradigm, prior studies have examined the

distinguishing traits of leaders by exploring demographics such as physical

characteristics (e.g. height, weight), education and experience. Yukl (2013) points out

that the gender of leaders has been paid more attention to in research studies. Likewise,

some studies support that personality traits related to task competence and interpersonal

attributes are important predictors of leadership effectiveness (e.g. Costa and McCrae,

1992; Judge et al, 2002). Although Conger and Kanungo (1998) argue that the traits

approach is too simple to define the effective leader, previous research studies found

that some traits directly influence leadership effectiveness such as gender differences

related to the followers' perception of their leaders (e.g. Eagly and Johnson, 1990;

Sczesny et al., 2004). Moreover, House and Aditya (1997) assert that there are a few

traits generally associated with leadership behaviour to predict the effective leadership.

Bateman and Snell (1999) also support that some traits can have outstanding effects on

the effectiveness of leaders. However, Derue et al. (2011) mention that no research has

systematically investigated the different magnitude of traits that affect leadership

effectiveness.

Judge and Bono (2000) propose that some dimensions of transformational

leadership behaviour (such as intellectual dimension) are associated with traits or

influenced by traits of leadership. Similarly, DeRue et al. (2011) explain that the

dimension of leadership traits in terms of task-competence associates with task-oriented

behaviour that indicates performance outcome; likewise, the dimension of interpersonal traits is related to relational-oriented behaviour, which refers to followers' satisfaction with their leaders. Nevertheless, the results are still unclear about which specific traits relate to each dimension of behaviours in empirical studies. Indeed, Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012), and Yukl and Van Fleet (1992) propose that the relationship between leadership traits and behaviours depends on the situation of the study.

The results of previous studies obscure the relationship between leadership traits and behaviours as well as the relationship between leadership traits and effectiveness because they are dependent on the framework of interpretation, which focuses on different combination of traits. Likewise, based on the reference of leadership behaviour to the act of leadership, it is more predictive of leadership effectiveness than leadership traits. On the other hand, there are some leadership traits, which can be integrated themselves for explaining the relationship between leadership traits, behaviours and effectiveness such as the personality of leadership traits (Humphrey, Nahrgang, and Morgeson, 2007). Similarly, DeRue et al. (2011) propose that the personality should be the strongest traits when the relationship requires the specific leadership traits. This implies that the personality traits of leadership could match for explaining effective leadership and its implications which are more investigated in chapter 3.

The existing literature documents a strong traits-behaviours-effectiveness relationship, whereby the leadership effectiveness depends critically on the behaviour of leaders. Specifically, transformational leadership behaviour has the most association with the effective leadership (e.g. Bass, 1985; Burn, 1978; House, 1977) which is the correlation across different cultures and using a variety of methods (Bass, 1997; Judge and Bono, 2000). The original consistent theme of leadership behaviours in the

36

literature refers to task-oriented and relation-oriented attributes which are represented by different categories of behaviours in the literature (Yukl, 2013). Particularly, transactional leadership describes more in the theme of task-oriented behaviours (active approach) whilst transformational leadership represents the theme of relation-oriented behaviour (passive approach) (DeRue et al., 2011). To make a conceptual distinction and organise ideas, this study presents the full range leadership model as shown in Figure 2.1.

However, as aforementioned in the context of the relationship between transactional leadership behaviour and leadership effectiveness, the results overlap. For instance, Judge and Piccolo (2004) found in their meta-analysis that the estimated overall validity of transformational and contingent reward of transactional leadership (.44 and .39 respectively) is related to leadership criteria (e.g. follower satisfaction and performance) whilst laissez-faire is about -.37 in counterpart. Besides this, transformational leadership is more highly associated than contingent reward of transactional leadership with follower leader satisfaction and effective leader but not for follower job satisfaction and leader job performance. Likewise, DeRue et al. (2011) assert that transactional leadership behaviour has not any association with the effective leadership whilst the passive dimension of transactional leader behaviour is negatively correlated with the effective leader when transformational leadership behaviour is controlled. As in the study of Bass (1995), the corollary of transformational-transactional leadership theory is referred to as a "one-way augmentation effect". He explains that "... measures of transformational leadership add to measures of transactional leadership in predicting outcomes, but not vice versa" (p.135).

Figure 2.1: The full range leadership model (Judge et. al., 2006, p. 205)
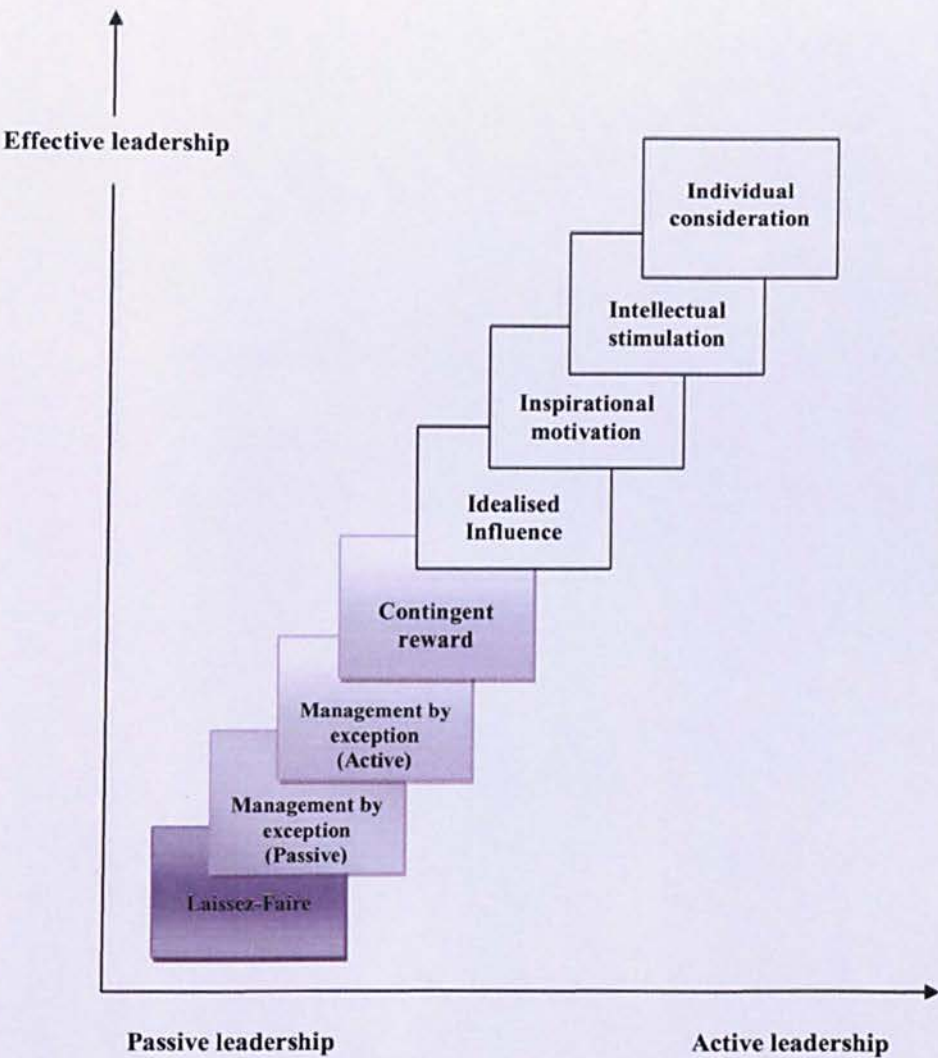
Purple squares represent Laissez-faire leadership behaviour and three dimensions of transactional leadership behaviour.

White squares represent four dimensions of transformational leadership behaviour

Bass (1997) mentions that "rules and regulations dominate the transactional organisation; adaptability is a characteristic of the transformational organisation" (p.131). This asserts that transformational leadership behaviour is likely appropriate for

contemporary organisations today which tend to have a more flat hierarchy. However, it is difficult to interpret the effective leader in terms of the full range of leadership behaviour by using other variables as moderators particularly gender role and organisational culture. Because of the overlap of dimensions of full range leadership behaviours, transformational and transactional leadership behaviours are unclear in relation to gender roles (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Alternatively, the present study addresses leadership effectiveness by exploring the typical leadership style within two meta-categories i.e. task-oriented and interpersonal-oriented leadership styles and autocratic and democratic leadership styles. These leadership styles are related to effectiveness, and are more appropriate for investigating the influence of gender roles and other variables (e.g. employee attitudes and organisational culture) as moderators to define leadership effectiveness which are in chapters 4 and 5.

2.3 The relationship between leadership and FFM of personality and its implications

Although leadership behaviours are better predictors of effective leadership than leadership traits, the behaviours could change by learning and developing (DeRue et al., 2011). Meanwhile, Mcshane and Von Glinow (2007) suggest that characteristics of individuals are able to predict leadership effectiveness when they have developed in the part indicted to the necessary leadership behaviours. Given this, it implies that leadership behaviours are the dependent variables of leader traits. Therefore, we have further questioned what the characteristics of individuals are to develop leadership behaviours. Barling, Weber and Kelloway (1996) assert that some leadership behaviours (i.e. dimensions of transformational leadership) can be trained but it depends

on the individuals' personality basis. Thus, we assume that some traits i.e. personality traits are the root of individuals' characteristics to support the developing of leadership behaviours. This leads to the following systematic literature review of conceptualising personality, the relationship between leadership and FFM of personality and the implication of this relationship to explore the context.

Nevertheless, there is some controversy over the results of the earlier traits - leadership studies, which ignore personality. Stogdill (1948) fails to define a particular set of traits that identify the effective leader. However, Yukl (2010) argues that the relationship between leadership effectiveness and personality traits depends on the situation. Likewise, there is more evidence that still supports the influence personality on the effective leaders such as the study of Bass (1999a), Hogan and Kaiser (2005), and Lord, DeVader and Alliger (1986). Colbert et al. (2012) also state on the empirical leadership studies that the personality traits influence both leadership emergence and effectiveness.

2.3.1 The relationship of leadership and each dimension of FFM

Several studies specifically focus on FFM of personality traits that are related to leadership behaviours, emergence, or effectiveness. Yukl (2010) asserts that FFM is concerned in terms of predicting and explaining the effective leader, which is better than focusing on any other specific traits measurement. However, the relationship between FFM of personality and leadership is not universally accepted. For instance, leader traits indicate only leadership potential, not leadership performance (e.g. leadership effectiveness) (see Mcshane and Von Glinow, 2007). In addition, DeRue et al. (2011) propose that the leader behaviours are a mediator toward the relationship between leader traits (e.g. personality traits) and effectiveness. Nevertheless, there are

previous studies that support FFM of personality influence in leadership effectiveness

(e.g. Bryman, 1992; Den Hartog and Koopman, 2001; Judge et al., 2002). For instance,

Hogan, Curphy and Hogan (1994) demonstrate in terms of leadership traits-behaviour

relationship that transformational leadership, which refers to relational-oriented

behaviour, is associated with some personality traits such as social and interpersonal

skill, *Agreeableness* and adjustment. Thus, the relationship between leadership FFM of

personality traits-behaviours-effectiveness is still controversial.

Given this argument, the inconsistent results may be depended on the situation

whilst there are a limited number of studies in terms of comparing the relationship of

FFM of personality and the different criteria of leadership. Based on previous section,

which purposes to explore leadership effectiveness in terms of FFM, we investigate

both relationship of FFM-leadership behaviour and FFM- leadership effectiveness to

clarify those relationships. There are linkages between personality and leadership by

each dimension of FFM which are referred to the study of Barrick and Mount (1991);

Bass (1998); Bass and Bass (2008); De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman (2005).

DeRue et al. (2011); House and Howell (1992); House, Spangler and Woycke (1991);

Judge and Bono (2000); Judge et al. (2002); Kirkpatrick and Locke (1991);McCrae and

Costa (1997); Mount, Barrick and Stewart (1998); Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Ilies

(2009); Watson and Clark (1997) as follows.

Leadership-Extraversion

Extraversion is the interpersonal attribute, which the person with high in

Extraversion is deemed efficacious, optimistic and has positive moods, and emotional

experiences. Gough (1990) points out the sub-dimensions of *Extraversion* i.e.

dominance and sociability are associated with the assessment of leadership through

41

ratings by self and peers. Therefore, *Extraversion* emerges as the most compatible correlate of effective leadership. Moreover, leaders with high scores on *Extraversion* indicate that they have strong tendency to experience positive emotions.

In fact, extravert leaders are more likely to call for strong emotions and to build the strong and high-quality relationships with co-workers. Thus, the extroversive trait of leaders is positively correlated to that of followers. Because *Extraversion* is relevant to both sociable and dominant people, hence, it is more highly related to leader emergence than to leader effectiveness, which the meta-analysis by Judge et al.(2002) reveal the corrected correlations are .33 and .24, respectively. Although some studies find that the correlation of *Extraversion* and transformational leadership is obscure, House and Howell (1992) point out that this trait is a requisite of transformational leadership; for instance, taking initiative in social settings, introducing people to each other and being socially engaging. Additionally, Bass (1998) proposes that transformational leadership behaviour is significantly related to sociability and dominance, which is likely relevant to *Extraversion*. In a similar vein, Ployhart, Holcombe-Ehrhart and Hayes (2005) support that the link of *Extraversion* and charismatic transformational leadership behaviour (Conger and Kanungo, 1998) is stronger in dynamic rather than more stable work environment.

Leadership-Agreeableness

Agreeableness has the strongest association with transformational leadership in individualised consideration. *Agreeableness* is mostly related to characteristics of charismatic leaders, which identifies dominance as one of appearance in transformational leadership. Meanwhile, Judge and Bono (2000) propose that the rate of *Agreeableness* of leaders is more positive because it is evaluated by subordinates

who desire agreeable traits in their leader. This is consistent with the study of Judge et al. (2002), that *Agreeableness* is not correlative to leadership emergence.

Agreeableness is in the same category of leader traits as *Extraversion*, both traits are the most commonly studied interpersonal attributes of leaders. In particular, Judge et al. (2002) support that *Agreeableness* and *Extroversion* are positively related to leadership effectiveness and followers' satisfaction with a leader in the affective and relational dimensions of leadership effectiveness. However, there is the controversial relationship between *Agreeableness* and leadership effectiveness related to employee outcomes. For instance, *Agreeableness* is likely to be the strongest positive predictive factor in satisfaction of subordinates; in contrast, it is negatively related to followers' job satisfaction. Interestingly, empirical studies have produced inconsistent results on *Agreeableness* dimension depending on the different facets of *Agreeableness*. This can be explained that individuals with high level of *Agreeableness* may be opposed for being promoted to managerial positions when they are viewed as getting along (communal) rather than getting ahead (agency). On the other hand, *Agreeableness* is associated with effective leaders when agreeable individuals are viewed as being warm and supportive to others (Colbert et al., 2012). However, Judge et al. (2002) demonstrate that the overall correlation between leadership and *Agreeableness* is about .08. Likewise, Ross and Offerman (1997) found the relationship between charismatic leadership, which is a dimension of transformational leadership in terms of trust, compassion and empathy, and *Agreeableness* is significantly positive. However, Judge and Bono (2000) argue that *Agreeableness* is a social trait which should have a higher score of subordinates' rating than other source ratings. In particular, the relationship may depend on the intensive of the situations. For instance, in the risk situation, subordinates need a strong leader with a clear sense of direction, therefore, this leads to

a negative relationship with leaders with a high level of *Agreeableness* (Lim and Ployhart, 2004).

Leadership-Openness to experience

Openness to experience is associated with a personal-based level of high creativity that undermines ordinary ideas. Creativity appears to be an important skill of an effective leader and a part of transformational leadership. Sosik, Kahai and Avolio (1998) also support that individuals with high *Openness to experience* are more likely to score high in intellectual stimulation which supports to emerge as an effective leader. Some empirical studies found that a higher level of *Openness to experience* and *Extraversion* in leaders is associated with job performance, training proficiency and perception in the leader (e.g. Barrick and Mount, 1991; Bass, 1990; Lord, De Vader and Alliger, 1986; Ployhart, Lim and Chan, 2001).

Ployhart, Lim and Chan (2001) reveal that *Openness to experience* is more correlated with charismatic leadership only in challenging situations but there is no direct relationship with charismatic leadership in stable situations. This is related to the study of De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman (2005) that mentions in terms of dynamic environment, leaders have a positive relationship between charisma and *Openness to experience.* Thus, it implies that creativity appears in this dimension and may be an important skill for dynamic situations in managerial positions. Based on the influence of strength situations, the relationship between *Openness to experience* and leadership effectiveness is addressed in a different way. Ng, Ang and Chan (2008) demonstrate that the relevant direction of individuals with higher *Openness to experience* has a negative association with the effective leader in the military context. The military culture emphasises the importance of adherence to rules and hierarchy. In

the same vein, Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001) confirm that three Big Five traits i.e.

Openness to experience, *Extraversion* and *Agreeableness* are valid to predict

performance only in certain conditions e.g. in specific occupations or related to some

criteria.

Leadership-Conscientiousness

In terms of task competence, there are four dimensions (i.e. Intelligence,

Conscientiousness, *Openness to experience* and *Neuroticism/* Emotional stability) that

are mostly referred to as the approaches and reactions to work; especially achievement

and self-discipline are the main elements of *Conscientiousness*. Hogan, Curphy and

Hogan (1994) propose that individuals with high score of *Conscientiousness* are more

relevant to the leadership effectiveness than those with lower scores. Indeed, this

achievement motivation is negatively related with charisma as an aspect of

transformational leadership. It is acknowledged that transformational leadership, which

also has been known as charismatic leadership, pays attention to and has an effect in

influencing subordinate perceptions.

Based on Judge and Bono (2000), both *Conscientiousness* and *Neuroticism* are

not related significantly with transformational leadership. They also show that

achievement striving, which is an obstacle on transformational leadership, is one of the

facets and correlates to *Conscientiousness*. Likewise, House, Spangler and Woycke

(1991) demonstrate in their corresponding study that high-achievement U.S. presidents

display low level of transformational leadership. It is an explanation for supporting the

negative effects of *Conscientiousness* in transformational leadership. In a somewhat

different relationship of *Conscientiousness* and charismatic leadership, De Hoogh, Den

Hartog and Koopman (2005) point out the positive relationship that is linked to be

important for charismatic and transactional leadership in a stable work environment. They refer to Bass's (1985) statement that *Conscientiousness* is a part of charismatic leadership because leaders with high *Conscientiousness* may act as an inspiration for followers to contribute in higher performance criteria. Nonetheless, in challenging environments, conscientious leaders are perceived as being less charismatic and less able transformational leaders because they adhere to regulations.

Interestingly, the foregoing review of transformational leadership implies that the relevance of *Conscientiousness* and charismatic leadership needs to be viewed with caution because the results are generally inconsistent. Likewise, based on *Conscientiousness* related to dependable work responsibilities, leaders with a high *Conscientiousness* dimension are unlikely associated with passive leadership behaviour (Bass, 1998). The findings of Strang and Kuhnert' (2009) study show that only *Conscientiousness* dimension of personality traits is a successful predictor of leadership performance. Moreover, the rating score of *Conscientiousness* has strong relationship with individual who have job autonomy (Barrick and Mount, 1993) which is related to the task-oriented leadership style. Additionally, regarding leaders with high job autonomy as in the strength situation, the mediating effect of leadership self-efficacy on *Conscientiousness* and *Neuroticism* reflects on leadership effectiveness (Ng, Ang and Chan, 2008). On the other hand, there is no correlation effect on leadership effectiveness when leaders have low job autonomy.

Leadership-Neuroticism

Neuroticism is negatively correlated with transformational leadership because neurotic leaders cannot represent their organisations with the required capability and reliability. Moreover, transformational leadership involves taking challenges and risks,

and having unconventionality and resistance to preserve the status quo. This requires a high degree of self-confidence and self-esteem in terms of leaders' characteristics. Therefore, transformational leadership should relate positively to Emotional stability; in other words, the *Neuroticism* dimension is a negative link in managerial positions. Similarly, Judge et al. (2002) support in their meta-analysis that the correlation of *Neuroticism* dimension is negatively associated with leadership effectiveness ($\rho = -.22$) and negative related to task specific self-efficacy beliefs ($\beta = -.25$). Although previous studies (e.g. Levenson, 1981; Rosenberg, 1965; Judge et al.,1998) show that *Neuroticism* has a negative impact on transformational and effective leadership, Judge and Bono (2000) controversially draw the studies together and propose that the facets of *Neuroticism* or others, such as self-esteem or locus of control are unrelated to transformational leadership. It implies that their study explores within the different aspects of this dimension which are affected the result.

2.3.2 The implication of the relationship between leadership and FFM of personality

Although the empirical previous studies are limited in direct findings of the influence FFM to identify leadership effectiveness, they support that there are some associations between personality traits and the perception of leadership (i.e. emergent and effective leadership) (e.g. Bono and Judge, 2004; Judge et al., 2002; Lord, DeVader and Alliger, 1986). For the overall finding, the dimension of *Extraversion*, *Conscientiousness* and Emotional stability have high correlations with leadership effectiveness whilst the low score of *Agreeableness* dimension is in the characteristics of effective leaders (Barrick and Mount, 1991; Boudreau, Boswell and Judge, 2001; Fietze, Holst and Tobsch, 2011; Furnham, Crump and Whelan, 1997; Piedmont and

47

Weinstein, 1994). Nevertheless, the studies are still inconsistent and have contrary results. For instance, Judge et al. (2002) mention that the FFM is able to predict leader emergence is slightly better than to predict leader effectiveness. In particular, they remark that only traits of *Extraversion* and *Conscientiousness* have the strongest correlation in leader emergence and effectiveness. Likewise, the leaders are more likely to obtain higher scores than non-effective leaders on *Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness* and *Openness to experience* and a lower score for *Neuroticism*. More recently, a meta-analysis of DeRue et al. (2011) on personality and leadership suggest that *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Agreeableness* are regarded as a high distinct measure of success in leadership positions. Leaders who are measured as high in *Conscientiousness* and *Extraversion* are effective leaders; meanwhile, leaders who are evaluated as high in *Conscientiousness* and *Agreeableness* tend to improve the overall performance of their teams (DeRue et al., 2011).

According to a meta-analysis by DeRue et al. (2011), they examine and develop an integrative traits-behavioural model of leadership effectiveness and indicate that leadership traits within task competence (e.g. *Conscientiousness, Openness to experience* and Emotional stability) relate to task-oriented leadership behaviour, which focus on their job performance and outcomes. On the other hand, the relational oriented leadership behaviour that involves in affective criteria (followers' perceptions in leader), is associated with leadership traits within interpersonal attributes (e.g. *Extraversion* and *Agreeableness*). Additionally, Hofstee, De Raad and Goldberg (1992) reveal a circumflex approach to the Five-Factor traits structure, which is *Extraversion-Agreeableness* (i.e. friendly, enthusiastic, vibrant, warm, spirited and sociable), *Extraversion-Openness to experience* (i.e. independent, opportunistic, adventurous, eloquent, dramatic and expressive) and *Agreeableness-Openness to experience* (i.e.

48

deep, idealistic, diplomatic, genial, understanding and sincere), which are closely related to transformational leadership.

In terms of traits-transformational leadership behaviour, Judge and Bono (2000) propose that *Openness to experience, Extraversion* and *Agreeableness* display significant correlations with transformational leadership. Among the FFM components, *Agreeableness* and *Extraversion* display the positive prediction and have the strongest relationship with transformational leadership (Judge and Bono, 2000). However, when the other FFM traits are controlled (partial regression control), the significance of *Extraversion* and *Openness to experience* decreases. It means that they are essential traits and correlate with each other. Yukl (2010) proposes that researchers need to recognise in interpretation of their results how specific leader traits (e.g. dimension or sub-dimension of FFM of personality) are related to specific types of leadership behaviours, which act as a mediator linking to the effective leadership. Moreover, he mentions that even though the relationship between leader traits and one criterion of leadership is relevant, it does not mean other leadership criteria have the same result.

According to different situations, *Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness* involve an ability of responding to the reactions and changes on expectation of the followers within high standards; for instance, both *Agreeableness* and *Conscientiousness* are significantly negatively correlated with charismatic and transactional leadership styles in the dynamic environment (De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman, 2005). In a study of probation directors by Lee et al. (2010), the overall finding reports that hightly desirable personality traits, namely *Extraversion, Agreeableness, Conscientiousness* and *Openness to experience*, and less desired personality trait of *Neuroticism* give rise to transformational leadership for contributing leadership effectiveness. Despite this DeRue et al. (2011) suggest that the role in traits and behaviours are used in different

areas, which the leaders determine to play based on the importance of each situation. *Extraversion* is particularly significant in social interaction that certainly correlates to followers but it has a slight effect on group performance. From the implementations of emergent studies, the relationship of leadership emergence/effectiveness-FFM of personality and the leader behaviours-FFM of personality traits, which are structured to be recognised as leadership effectiveness can be summarised as Appendix Table 2.1.

The relationship of leadership and FFM of personality and the choice of occupations

The review of the FFM of personality–leadership relationship contributes to our understanding of how personality influences the choice of managerial positions. Borgen (1986, p.108) states, "personality and vocational psychologists have sliced up the world of individual differences with their unique concepts but they are often looking at the same world". Consequently, many studies examine the relationship of personality traits and choice of occupation by referring to this in terms of FFM of personality and Holland's model of vocational personality types (Holland, 1978, 1985, 1996). Holland's theory is an important expression of personality within the vocational interest, which consists of six occupational types (RIASEC) i.e. realistic, investigative, artistic, social, enterprising and conventional types (Barrick, Mount and Gupta, 2003).

Based on Holland' study (1985), the categorised six types of personality are explained as follows: (1) Realistic: involving authoritarian, practical, inflexible, asocial and confirming; (2) Investigative: involving analytical, complex, independent, introspective, reserved and unpopular; (3) Artistic: involving emotional, expressive, impulsive, introspective, nonconforming, sensitive and open; (4) Social: involving cooperative, friendly, helpful, understanding, sociable and warm; (5) Enterprising:

involving ambitious, domineering, energetic, extraverted, agreeable, self-confident and sociable; (6) Conventional: involving careful, conforming, conscientious, efficient, unimaginative, persistent and inhibited (Tokar and Swanson, 1995). Thus, Holland's model of vocational types facilitates the process to identify the career choices that are suitable for the individual-work environment (Rayman and Atanasoff, 1999). Costa, McCrae and Holland (1984) also support that based on the Holland theory, the structure of personality can be assumed from the clustering of vocational interests. It implies that both FFM traits and RIASEC models are complementary in predicting the natural choice of employment. Consequently, this relationship between the two measurements is able to identify the choice of occupations.

De Fruyt and Mervielde (1999) also propose that there are three approaches to investigate FFM of personality in terms of the choice of occupation as follows:

1) The relationship between FFM of personality and Holland's RIASEC vocational interest approach: Holland's RIASEC vocational interest typology is not only a measurement for predicting a preference of occupational types, but also it is able to imply the effective jobs because of the consistency of the distribution of a person, and the job.

2) The applied FFM of personality by evaluating weight in the particular jobs or clusters of vocations from applicants: however, De Fruyt and Mervielde (1999) mention that there is no available database to generate this approach. The indirect approach is another alternative, which estimates the FFM of personality and RIASEC typology by inferring from AB5C classification by Hofstee, De Raad, and Goldberg (1992).

3) Using the meta-analytical study approach in terms of inferring the relation of FFM traits into vocation: this approach is more likely to represent the specific validity of traits in the occupational groups.

In fact, the primary interest of research studies focuses on the relationship between FFM of personality and Holland's RIASEC model. Costa, McCrae and Holland (1984) propose that a full model of personality traits tends to show comprehensively the linking to the occupational choices. The complementariness of occupational choices and personality traits effects on individual-job fit. In other words, individuals' responding more favourable to a job with their congruent personality traits. Based on the vocational choice framework, Holland (1996) proposes that job satisfaction, achievement and stability depend on the congruence of individual's personality and work environments. Personality traits not only affect shaping orientations of work and career, but also influence work role functions related to work environments. From this logic, it implies that based on individual-job fit, the congruent personality traits may be different in effective leaders depending on the influence of work environment e.g. gender-organisational role and organisational culture.

Likewise, Tokar and Swanson (1995) support that investigating the association of each dimension of personality traits and Holland's hexagon in occupational choices is fruitful for work-related performance and environments. Additionally, they investigated the difference of gender in terms of the relationship between personality traits and the choice of occupation. They conclude that males are more related to *Openness to experience* and *Extraversion* discriminated by Holland's typology; similarly, females within the validity of Holland's hexagon are related to *Openness to experience, Extraversion* and *Agreeableness*. As a result, Armstrong and Anthoney (2009) mention that the two most important dimensions of FFM which are associated

52

with the occupational choices of Holland's RIASEC are the relationship between *Extraversion* and Social and Enterprising types, and between *Openness to experience* and Artistic and Investigative types. Moreover, Gottfredson, Jones, and Holland (1993) show that the Conventional type of Holland's typology is correlated to the *Conscientiousness* dimension of personality traits. Therefore, the effectiveness of the relationship between FFM of personality and Holland's RIASEC is to understand the capacity of individual's work-related behaviour in the work environment (individual-job fit) via the personality traits of each dimension.

2.4 Gender differences in leadership traits, behaviours, and effectiveness

The demographic factors play an important role in the leadership process. Numerous studies have been explained as to the influence of socio-demographic particularly in terms of the relationship between the gender difference of leadership and outcomes. Thus, we delineate from the previous studies to explore the relationship of the gender role and leadership, which reflect on the outcomes.

2.4.1 Gender gap on managerial positions

A topic of interest among empirical studies is the difference between women and men in traits, behaviours and effectiveness in managerial positions. Additionally, the related topic has been continued to examine an impenetrable barrier at some point for women to become a leader. This results in the gender gap in managerial positions. In the same vein, there is a widespread gender discrimination which has a strong propensity to privilege men rather than women in leadership positions. Heilman (2001)

points out that women and men are not only different in the conceptions, but also people judge them as increasingly appropriate for one sex. Although the proportion of female leaders has been increasing over the past decades, only a small number of female leaders occupies executive positions in organisations or in nations (Powell and Graves, 2003). Similar patterns are found across countries such as in the UK, where females account for only 14 % of top management positions and 22% of the seats in parliament, and also in Germany, where the percentage of females in top management is about 13% and in parliament is 33% (Zahidi and Hausmann, 2010). Therefore, in order to explain the gender gap in managerial positions, we conclude from previous empirical studies that there are two main factors: (1) the glass ceiling (i.e. discrimination in terms of antecedents (e.g. prejudice, biasness, stereotyping) and consequences (e.g. non-acceptance, disrespect, social issues)) (McEldowney, Bobrowski, and Gramberg, 2009) and (2) working and family life; from these emerge the skewed gender ratio in managerial positions, which is referred to as the impact of the gender gap.

In terms of the glass ceiling, Yulk (2013) refers to gender-leadership beliefs which involve assumptions about the more appropriateness of men than women in leadership roles. These beliefs include implicit theory (i.e. traits and behaviours required for effective leadership), gender stereotypes (i.e. inherent about women and men differences) and role expectations (i.e. preferences of female and male behaviours) (Yulk, 2013). Based on the changing work conditions as in contemporary organisations, the feminine leadership style (e.g. supporting, empowerment, interpersonal relations) is required in effective leadership (Ayman and Korabik, 2010). Moreover, there is more controversy to claim that women are more likely than men to behave in a certain way related to leadership effectiveness (e.g. Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen, 2003; Rosener, 1990; Vinkenburg et al., 2011). This suggests that there is less gender discrimination for females to become leaders. Nevertheless,

Yulk, (2013) asserts that gender stereotype and role expectation have remained in which men continue to have the qualification for leadership positions. Heilman (2001) states that "the effects of gender stereotype continue to dog women as they climb the organizational ladder" (p.658). Therefore, biased beliefs in terms of traits and behaviours may exist as an obstacle for women to reach higher positions.

Another perspective of the glass ceiling in women's advancement to high positions is associated with the expectations of actual and ideal behaviour of women and men which refer to social role theory. Eagly and Karau (2002) explain that "the social roles are shared expectations that apply to persons who occupy a certain social position or are members of a particular social category" (p. 574). Thus, the social role theory includes two kinds of expectations or norms in terms of descriptive and prescriptive stereotypes. These refer to the expectations about what women and men actually do (descriptive stereotypes) and what normative behaviours are appropriate for them (prescriptive stereotypes) (Burgess and Borgida, 1999; Eagly, 1987). According to the glass ceiling related to the descriptive gender stereotype, Heilman (1995, 2001) proposes a lack of fit model that is about an inconsistence between an individual's attributes and workplace role. Considering women as a target of gender biases, women's attributes, which are framed in a communal (feminine) stereotype (Koenig et al., 2011), are perceived to have the lack of fit in traditionally agential (masculine) job requirements. Likewise, Heilman (2001) mentions that the more there is the masculine dominance in the workplace role, the more women are negatively perceived fit in managerial positions. This supports the emergence of gender biases in terms of the mismatch between women's natural roles and leadership roles as the descriptive aspect.

Interestingly, in terms of normative prescription, although women are perceived to fit between their attributes and the job requirement, they do not fit between what they

are perceived to be like and what they should be like (Koenig et al., 2011). For example, women display agential behaviour which is required in leadership roles, but it is incongruent with how women should behave in terms of communion. Thus, women are devalued in being promoted to leadership positions.

Eagly and Karau (2002) present that the prejudice is about judgments against women in high positions because of dissimilar beliefs about leaders and women. This refers to the mismatch beliefs between the communal qualities of women and the agential qualities of effective leaders. Consequently, they propose two forms of prejudice which are (1) perceiving women less favourably than men concerning their characteristics because of stereotypical qualities in desired leaders are related to men and (2) perceiving women less favourably than men in leadership behaviour because of beliefs about how women ought to behave. Therefore, women are less valued than men in leader roles and face barriers more than men in management roles. This implies that the increasing level of women being unfavoured as the effective leader may be associated with the more requirements of agential leader role at workplace.

Because of women's communal manner in social skills, it may be more natural for women to express participative aspects as feminine behaviours. There are several empirical studies which assert that women who display traditional feminine behaviours have positive evaluations rather than those who present non-traditional feminine behaviours (e.g. Eagly and Karau, 2002; Haddock and Zanna, 1994; Rudman, 1998). Presumably related to the descriptive and prescriptive theoretical aspects, gender biases directly obstruct women in being promoted to higher positions based on a mismatch between women's natural attributes and leadership roles. Nevertheless, gender biases may be decreased when women in managerial positions behave in a way which fits the job requirements. This means women who display feminine leadership behaviour with

56

feminine dominance in the workplace might meet with acceptance and approval in the leadership role. Furthermore, they are likely to achieve the effective performance within the contemporary organisations.

There are various theoretical perspectives of the glass ceiling of women in obtaining leadership positions. Schuh et al. (2014) mention that although these theories have fundamental differences, they lead to similar conclusions. However, the relating of theoretical explanations in terms of the glass ceiling appears to be an ambitious understanding of the reasons behind the gender gap. Even if we recognise that glass ceilings prevent women from moving up in the management hierarchy, it is still obscure which factors influence the existence of a glass ceiling. Likewise, Fujita, Diener and Sandvik (1991) mention that the studies have unanswered the evidence about why women have more suffering in the work place than men; or why the gender bias is found in every culture. However, other studies propose that the gender gap will decrease, when women and men leaders who occupy the same organisational role and have equivalent power behave similarly (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). In other words, the gender difference does not influence leadership when leaders hold the same position and power. Thus, although the proportion of female managers is likely lower than males particularly in higher positions, there is no gender difference when comparing them in the same environment such as initiating structure and the consideration of leadership style, and subordinate satisfaction (Dobbins and Platz, 1986). Presumably, the effect of female leaders not being promoted to a higher level, which leads to the emergence of the gender gap, may involve other factors of antecedent leadership such as the different personality traits of leaders. This will be investigated in chapter 3. Moreover, when women display their leadership roles in feminine dominance, the level of gender discriminations may decrease which also will be explored in chapter 4 in depth.

Eagly and Chaiken (1993) claim that women in leadership roles are inconsistently evaluated in employee reactions. For instance, Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky (1992) in meta-analysis demonstrate that the tendency of female leaders is less favour than male leaders whilst other studies (e.g. Kent and Moss, 1994; Cheung and Halpern, 2010) assert that female leaders are evaluated more favourably than males. This can be explained that the findings depend on the particulars of the judgment context (e.g. workplace dominant roles, organisational culture) (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Therefore, the current study needs to be concerned with not only individuals' traits and behaviours, but also with other related circumstances to define the gender gap in managerial positions which are referred to in chapters 3 and 4.

Another possible reason for the gender gap in managerial positions is related to working and family life. Previous studies propose that an inequality exists in working and family life in which men dominant not only as managers at work but also as patriarchs in family life; women constrain their drive between work opportunities and family responsibilities (Guillaume and Pochic, 2009). Furthermore, in terms of promoting, the opportunities for women to be promoted are more in the group of those who are single, childless, have older children or are divorced (Karkoulian and Halawi, 2007; Guillaume and Pochic, 2009). Additionally, Hewlett (2002) claims that almost half of the top female managers have no children and half of all women in the United States who have salaries of more than 100,000 dollars also have no children. This means a family-orientation in women executives and young mothers limits the opportunities for a higher level and obstructs their career achievements. Otherwise, Karkoulian and Halawi (2007) mention in their study on work-life conflict and time pressures that women are willing to spend more time for family rather than get involved in their careers. More specifically, they note that women may refuse a chance of promotion if they bear extensive family responsibilities.

In terms of the gender stereotype, Lobel and St Claire (1992) confirm that

women receive more perception in family-oriented roles whilst men are more accepted

in career-oriented roles. Interestingly, there is no difference between female and male

managers concerning promoting penalties when they take parental leaves or absence for

family (Judiesch and Lyness, 1999). In terms of promoting in leadership positions, the

influence of work-family life seems to have an impact only on women not on men. The

different strategies used between women and men of working and family life may be

one factor that can address the gender gap in managerial positions. Thus, the gender

stereotype in the working and family life are investigated more in chapter 3.

2.4.2 The role of gender related leadership traits, behaviours and effectiveness

Along with a growing body of research, the gender studies of leadership still

have more contradictions and confusion. To explain this phenomenon, the theoretical

gender and leaders roles have been discussed. The gender roles have been used to

investigate this matters in terms of gender differences in leadership research studies

(e.g. Eagly and Carli, 2007; Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky, 1992; Elsesser and Lever,

2011). The gender roles are people's expectations or beliefs about women and men's

attributes within each normative identified sex (Eagly, 1987; Eagly and Johannesen-

Schmidt, 2001). In other words, the gender roles are combination of social role theory

i.e. both descriptive and prescriptive expectations of women and men. These refer to

agential attributes (e.g. aggressive, independent, dominant and self-confident) which are

more associated with men than women whilst communal attributes (e.g. kind,

affectionate, sympathetic and nurturing) which are more related to women than men

(Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly and Karau, 2002). Gutek and Morasch

(1982) and Ridgeway (1997) propose that gender roles spill over and are implicit in organisations. It means that the influence of gender roles may result in female and male leaders having somewhat differences in terms of their leader roles, even though they are in the same organisational roles. Moreover, the leader roles which influence a leader's behaviour (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001) are different between females and males due to the reflection of descriptive gender stereotype on gender roles. For instance, Bass (1990) mentions that male leaders are likely rated more favourably than female in managerial positions when the respondents are biased and have stereotyped expectations. It implies that female leaders confront a crucial disadvantage from discriminatory processes. Thus, the gender roles influence employer-employee interaction which reflects on employee outcomes.

Gender congruent role pertains to define the consistency of gender and other roles, particularly leadership roles (Eagly and Karau, 2002). This refers to leadership roles relate to agential characteristics which are typically ascribed to men. Previous studies claim that the congruity of individual's characteristics and leadership roles is more associated with men than women (Eagly and Karau, 2002, Powell, 1999). However, as mentioned earlier, the congruity of gender roles and leader roles may impact on the work environment (e.g. feminine and masculine dominances). Therefore, the congruent role of gender-leadership may support female leaders as effective leaders when they exhibit behaviour which is in feminine leadership style within the feminine dominance at the workplace. In other words, female leaders who are involved with human interaction (e.g. caring and giving support) (Eagly, 1987; Garcia-Retamero and Lopez-Zafra, 2006) may be considered suitable for work roles in feminine dominant environments (e.g. healthcare and education sectors). Likewise, Alvesson and Due Billing (1997) mention that some people may be over sensitive in the gender roles, which is frequently referred to in a negative way in terms of being symbolic of

60

discrimination. Thus, to investigate the effect of gender roles in managerial positions, there are three moderators of the leadership: (1) effectiveness, (2) behaviour/style and (3) traits or potential/ emergence.

The studies of Eagly and her colleagues in their meta-analysis of gender role theories support that the effect of gender roles on the different perspectives of leadership (i.e. emergent and effective leadership) is significant (Eagly and Karau, 1991; Eagly, Karau and Makhijani, 1995 and Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky, 1992). Furthermore, most studies examine gender roles and leadership styles by comparing women and men on their behaviours reflecting effectiveness of leaders (Ayman and Korabik, 2010). Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) suggest that the study of gender-leadership roles should be clearly categorised on the types of leadership behaviours which are related to agential and communal norms. Generally, the congruent normative gender roles related to leadership behaviours are concerned with two approaches of feminine and masculine leadership style, for example, democratic vs. autocratic leadership styles.

Alternatively, in terms of the full range of leadership behaviours, most studies assert that the degree of effective leadership associates with transformational, transactional and laissez-faire behaviours respectively (e.g. Bass and Avolio, 1994; Judge and Piccolo, 2004; Judge et al., 2006) (see also Figure 2.1). Moreover, females rather than males display transformational and contingent reward of transactional behaviours which are more likely related to leadership effectiveness (e.g. Eagly, Johannesen-Schmidt and Van Engen, 2003; Vinkenburg et al., 2011). On the other hand, male leaders are associated with both active and passive management dimensions in transactional leadership and laissez-faire leadership behaviour. This leads to imply that the association of female leaders is based on the congruent leadership in terms of

feminine role whilst male leaders rely on the congruence of the masculine role. However, in terms of the prescriptive beliefs related to transformational behaviour, Vinkenburg et al. (2011) found that only the dimension of individualised consideration is more important for females than males, whilst inspirational motivation pertains to males rather than females for promotion in managerial positions. Thus, there are somewhat differences in terms of the congruent gender roles related to overall and each dimension of transformational leadership in defining gender- leadership roles. Indeed, the dimension of full range leadership behaviours overlaps each other (Judge et al., 2006) in which the effective leaders behave in both transformational and transactional leaderships (Bass, 1997). To define gender role related to leadership behaviours, the key concept of the present study is to identify one taxonomy of leadership behaviour which is absent from another. In the full range of leadership behaviours, it is difficult to diverge taxonomies from one dimension of behaviour to another. Consequently, there are mixed results which are difficult to interpret.

In another aspect of the gender roles in leadership style, based on descriptive gender-leadership stereotypes, Heilman, Block and Martell (1995) propose that women behave more communal and less agential than men. Likewise, women are devalued when they exhibit agential behaviour (Burgess and Borgida, 1999). Thus, the gender congruent role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002) can explain descriptive gender stereotypes of actual leaders in which women are related to feminine leadership style and men are related to masculine leadership style. Nevertheless, when gender stereotypes are related to norms (prescriptive beliefs) (Burgess and Borgida, 1999), the male stereotype is more congruent with agential behaviour which is more likely associated with leadership effectiveness (Koenig et al., 2011). Indeed, male leaders are freer from gender-leadership roles discriminations even though they lead more with autocratic behaviour (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). In other words, the

effective leadership styles are not appropriate for women and this refers to the lack-of-fit model (Heilman, 2001).

However, prior studies' findings are mixed depending on the complexity of contexts (e.g. Bass, 1990; Eagly, Karau and Makhijani, 1995; Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Powell, 1999). Some empirical studies propose that there are no gender differences in leadership behaviour whilst other studies assert that gender roles are different in leadership styles. For instance, Eagly and Carli (2003) conclude that the gender role affects the leadership style in both laboratory (e.g. experiments on a student group) and assessment studies (e.g. using participants who are not in a leadership role). They propose that females are more associated with interpersonal oriented and democratic styles and less task-oriented and autocratic styles than males are. Likewise, Eagly and Johnson (1990) point out that the gender role has less of an effect on leadership style in organisation studies because female and male leaders are selected by similar criteria in similar organisational socialisation. Thus, it should be concerned when the studies examine the effect of the gender roles on leadership styles in terms of the type of study and organisational socialisation-related organisational culture.

Nevertheless, Eagly and Johnson (1990) conclude that the tendency of each gender leaders is to play the congruent role with their gender i.e. the role of feminine for female leaders and the masculine role for male leaders in all three classes of studies (laboratory, assessment and organisational studies) . Similarly, Yukl (2013) mentions that although there are no overall differences in leadership effectiveness between female and male managers, gender differences are identified for work role requirements. Male managers are more effective when job roles require strong task skills, whilst female managers are more effective when the positions require interpersonal skills. Additionally, in the view of leadership effectiveness, there are inconsistent results of

female leaders who behave with feminine leadership style (e.g. democratic or participative behaviours) and organisational environments such as employee job satisfaction and performance (e.g. Foels et al., 2000; McEldowney, Bobrowski and Gramberg, 2009; Peccei and Lee, 2005). Thus, concerning gender roles in style and effective leadership, it can be concluded that gender differences are different in some behaviours within some situations. Interestingly, Mcshane and Von Glinow (2007) note that the researchers must be cautious in their observations of gender-behaviour-effective leadership because gender has less of an impact on conflict management style. Moreover, they propose that the influence of gender difference appears on the leader selection criteria rather than leadership behaviour. In the same vein, some studies mention that gender differences in leadership are often confounded with other variables such as organisational hierarchical level and the type of organisation (Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen, 2001). Thus, to define the gender gap in managerial positions, the leadership may need further factors in multiple correlations e.g. personality traits, employee job satisfaction and well-being, organisational culture for investigating this relationship.

2.4.3 Gender and personality traits of leaders

Mullins (2010) proposes that the different personalities of individuals make the difference of attitudes and values, which may lead to polarisation and discrimination in terms of nomothetic and idiographic approaches of organisational behaviours. In particular, personality is used to predict what a person will do in each situation (Engler, 2008) and combined with unique physical factors (e.g. gender) or other characteristics to indicate the effective leadership (Northouse, 2010). Therefore, based on previous findings, we can assume that the phenomenon of the relationship between personality

64

traits and leadership effectiveness may be affected by the difference of gender and its implications rather than the direct relationship.

Ensari et al. (2011) propose that men who appear authoritarian, self-confidence and extraverted/socially skilled have a stronger association with leadership emergence than women do. Furthermore, Balthazard, Waldman and Warren (2009) support that *Extraversion* and Emotional stability are predictors of the emergence of transformational leadership in a virtual decision team and may predispose individuals to be more "leader-like". However, there are different definitions of the relationship of FFM and leadership emergence in terms of gender differences that depend on the type of leadership situation (e.g. leader-less leader in-group discussions) to determine individuals of FFM (Ensari et al., 2011).

Eagly and Carli (2007) reveal that the gender difference reflects in some sub-dimension of FFM such as in terms of *Extraversion* dimension, where women have a lower score of the Assertiveness facet but higher score than men on the Warmth and Positive Emotion facets. Their study is compatible with Costa, Terracciano, and McCare (2001) who state that Assertiveness and Openness to ideas are higher in men whereas women have a higher score in Warmth, Openness to feelings, *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism*. However, there are few studies to define the gender gap in emergent leaders by demonstrating the differences sub-dimension of personality.

The influence of personality traits and its implication i.e. age, also shows inconsistency of age difference in terms of natural (e.g. genetics) and nurture (e.g. environmental influence) of personality and it reflects the relationship of gender difference and FFM traits of leadership. Guerin et al. (2011) argue that even if genetic affects personality traits, it does not means that these traits cannot be changed or are not impacted on environment. However, Judge et al. (2002) state that the FFM of

personality structure is inheritable and stable or has minor change after age 30.

Meanwhile, according to the cross-sectional study, when the age groups are controlled,

the correlation of personality traits indicates that the older groups is highly associated

with Consciousness dimension than younger groups whilst *Openness to experience* is

relevant to high education (Goldberg et al., 1998).

2.5 Leadership and employee work-related attitudes and its implications

Another aspect of leadership effectiveness is the followers' subjective ratings on

the effect of their leaders in terms of follower's work-related attitudes. Employee job

satisfaction, well-being, organisational commitment and trust in leaders as the employee

work-related attitudes are the focus in a recent study by Alimo-Metcalfe (2013), who

asserts that these variables are most appropriate for assessing leadership effectiveness.

2.5.1 Leadership and employee job related to well-being

Employee job related well-being is about how employees feel in their job in

terms of both the physical and mental aspects of health. This often entails the

multidimensionality of job aspects such as job satisfaction, commitment, depression,

motivation, competence and efficacy (Haile, 2012; Skakon et al., 2010). Many research

studies in subjective well-being have not specified the content or have classified with

broader conceptualisations of well-being. Likewise, Van Horn et al. (2004) mention

that using the multidimensional approach to measure well-being may have an effect in

terms of implications of working interventions. Thus, Warr (1994) suggests a particular

context of well-being which refers to the conceptualising of well-being in a job-specific

phenomenon at work as the affective well-being. Indeed, he asserts that this approach is an important advantage for specifically emphasising on leader-employee well-being. It offers a potential understanding to the relationship between particular work characteristics (e.g. leadership behaviours) and employee well-being. Research studies related to work relationships, specifically leader behaviours (e.g. empowerment, a high quality interaction between leaders and employees) find the association of improving employees' affective well-being (e.g. Bass, 1990; Schaufeli and Enzmann, 1998). Therefore, the aspect of affective well-being which covers job satisfaction (i.e. job depression-enthusiasm) and well-being (i.e. job anxiety-contentment) (Warr, 1990) is likely more appropriate to examine in the current study.

Job satisfaction, concerned with individual's attitude about work in five essential dimensions i.e. work itself, pay received, promotion or education opportunities, supervision and co-workers (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012), is one of the most researched outcomes linked to leadership effectiveness (e.g. Chen, Chen and Chen, 2010; Judge and Bono, 2001; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996; Pool, 1997). Particularly, the individual's attitude can be changed depending on the perception of their job (Reilly, Chatman and Caldwell, 1991). Job satisfaction is displayed by the influence of the leader's control (Krug, 2003; Tett and Meyer, 1993); in other words, job satisfaction is affected by leadership behaviour. Thus, job satisfaction is a crucial concept for leaders to be concerned about due to the powerful predictor of job satisfaction in ongoing work for an organisation, engaging in organisational citizenship behaviours, turnover rate, and absenteeism of employees (Haile, 2012; Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Additionally, Tett and Meyer (1993) propose that employee's turnover intention or withdrawal cognitions are highly associated with job satisfaction more than the commitment of employees.

67

Employee well-being is defined as an individual's perception and evaluation of the quality of life, which consists of emotional, psychological and social well-being (e.g. happiness, personal growth and social contribution) (Keyes, Hysom and Lupo, 2000). Likewise, Van Dierendonck et al. (2004) mention that the consistent association of an individual's well-being is the social context in an organisation; specifically, the interactions between leader-employee can affect the employees' feelings about their work and themselves. It implies that the way a leader behaves, will reflect on the employees' well-being, for example, a low level of supportive leadership and lack of quality in communication as the cause of reducing employees' well-being and increasing stress (e.g. Sosik and Godshalk, 2000; Van Dierendonck et al., 2004). A reduction of well-being and an increase in the stress levels are relevant to lower performance, increased absenteeism, a high level of turnover and reduced commitment (Van Dierendonck et al., 2004; Shirom, 1989). On the other hand, the increasing of employees' well-being supports the productiveness and profitability, and retains employees in an organisation (e.g. Keyes, Hysom and Lupo, 2000). Thus, the major social support in terms of leadership behaviour has more influence on the direction of employee well-being. Additionally, Van Dierendonck et al. (2004) also mention that the potential effect of leader-employee interaction is not only on employee well-being but also on the employees' reaction to their leaders. Thus, this relationship is likely to be the mutual process between leader and employee well-being.

Interestingly, the link of leadership behaviour and employee well-being is limited in terms of the length of the relationship. Based on the results of the study of the leader-employee well-being relations, the longitudinal studies failed to show the beneficial main effect on the relationship between leadership behaviour and employee well-being (e.g. Dignam and West, 1988; Dormann and Zapf, 1999; Lee and Ashforth, 1993). However, Feldt, Kinnunen and Mauno (2000) point out that the association of

leadership and employee well-being is significant in the same direction within a one-year follow-up. Similarly, Van Dierendonck et al. (2004) propose that the effect of leadership behaviour on employee well-being is more likely to exist within a short-term period than a long-term period.

Based on increasing the proportion of female managers in the workplace, the gender discrimination of leaders may be adverse to employee job satisfaction and well-being because the role of gender affects the interaction of leader and employee. Moreover, due to the employees' expectation in terms of the gender congruent leadership theory, for example, female leaders for feminine leadership style (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Elsesser and Lever, 2011; Schein, 1975), this reflects on the social attitude in the organisation. It implies that the effect of the gender role may moderate in the level of change in the relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job related well-being which focuses on chapter 4.

2.5.2 Leadership and employees' organisational commitment and trust in their leaders

Organisational commitment

Dale and Fox (2008, p. 109) propose that the organisational commitment refers to three attitudes "(1) a sense of identification with an organisation's goals, (2) a feeling of involvement in organisational duties and (3) a feeling of loyalty to the organisation". Likewise, Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) assert that employees become committed to an organisation, particularly concerning organisational goals, when they gain the sincere and enthusiastic commitment from leaders. Alternatively, leaders can build the employees' commitment by providing employees the opportunity to participate in

69

setting organisational goals (Erez, Earley, and Hulin, 1985). Most research studies employ organisational commitment as an indicator of leadership effectiveness based on the positive organisational commitment which is associated with higher employees' outcomes such as better job performance (Meyer et al., 2002; Stephens, Dawley and Stephens, 2004), customer satisfaction (Dale and Fox, 2008) and lower turnover and absenteeism (Allen and Meyer, 1996; Wasti, 2003). Thus, building committed employees can benefit both leaders and employees. As mentioned previously, the attitudinal organisational commitment is effective when leader-employee interaction is positively significant. In other words, the leadership behaviour influences more the employees' commitment to the organisation (Dale and Fox, 2008).

Based on the style of leadership and other relevant factors, the interaction between leaders and employees enhances the potential social attitudes, communication and outcome information, which gives employees' the opportunity to know about the expectations of their leaders, and the policies and procedures in the organisation (Pearce, 1981). Consequently, this leadership style, namely considerate leadership style (interpersonal leadership style), tends to be positively associated with the commitment of employees (Dale and Fox, 2008). In terms of task-oriented leadership style, the findings are inconsistent. Based on the initiating structure and the good direction of work for employees, the link of task-oriented leadership style and organisational commitment is significantly positive (e.g. Salancik, 1977; Dale and Fox, 2008). In contrast, Agarwal and Ramaswami (1993) assert that there is no significant correlation of initiating structure and organisational commitment with salespeople. It implies that the flexible and independent jobs, which salespeople have, are not consistent with the initial oriented leadership style to build organisational commitment.

Trust in leaders

Trust in leaders has been emphasised in various research studies across multiple disciplines. In line with organisational commitment, employees' trust in their leaders also has been built by leadership behaviour. The trust in leaders is referred to as the positive expectation of employees on leader's behaviour concerning the employees' intention to accept vulnerability (Rousseau et al., 1998). Moreover, in the review by Dirks and Ferrin (2002) in their meta-analysis, there are two main perspectives of trust in leaders i.e. the characteristic-based and relationship-based perspectives. In terms of the characteristic-based perspective, leader's characters influence employees' perceptions within their sense of vulnerability. Likewise, when the employees' perception is about mutual obligation, this refers to the relationship-based perspective of trust (Brower, Schoorman and Hwee Hoon, 2000). Liu, Siu and Shi (2010) assert that both perspectives of trust in leaders have the common core concept that trust in leaders is a perception or belief in willing or feeling obligated to be vulnerable to their leaders. Consequently, the model of trust in leaders in this chapter focuses on the leader-employee relationship. Moreover, this relationship has a high quality of interaction in which leaders' care and consideration are the key antecedents of trust in leaders (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). Thus, the relation-oriented behaviour associated with feminine leadership style may be appropriate to build trust toward employees' perception their leader roles.

Although the employment relationship is described as either a social or economic exchange, employee trust in their leaders views leaders beyond the standard economic contract which refers to social exchange (Liu, Siu and Shi, 2010). Trustworthiness occurs when the exchange conditions are risk and uncertainty (Molm, Takahashi and Peterson, 2000). This relates to the role of social exchange in which one

71

party offers benefit without negotiation of terms and without expectation of return from the other party. Similarly, the willingness of employees to be vulnerable and to act in a risk-taking behaviour is what is meant as the role of trust in leaders (Mayer, Davis and Schoorman, 1995). Thus, the social exchange of leaders-employees related to risk-taking behaviour is essential to develop for trust and commitment (Molm, Takahashi and Peterson, 2000). In other words, social exchange acts as an antecedent to produce stronger trust and commitment.

Likewise, the definition of organisational commitment is "a strong belief in and acceptance of organisational goals and values; willingness to exert considerable effort on behalf of the organisation and definite desire to maintain organisational membership" (Porter et al., 1974, p. 604). This can infer that the role of trust may be the main cementing factor to increase the degree of employee organisational commitment in the long-run. Additionally, there is a large literature that points out the direct relationship between trust in leaders and organisational commitment (e.g. Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Kollock 1994). From this logic, the relationship between organisational commitment and trust in leaders tends to have a direct association, and both of them are likely parallel to the antecedent of this relationship, which refers to leadership behaviour. Therefore, trust in leaders may be given as a possible mediator of the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes, particularly in terms of organisational commitment. More specifically, empirical studies mention that the relationship of leadership and organisational outcomes may have an indirect association via their relationship on the employees' trust in their leaders (e.g. Goh and Zhen-Jie, 2014; Goodwin et al., 2011; Pillai, Schriesheim and Williams, 1999; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996).

Another possibility of trust has been proposed as an alternative model of trust as a moderator. This process of moderation clarifies the boundary of the relationship of leadership, trust and organisational commitment within the different fundamental models of trust as a mediator. In this perspective, trust is a beneficial factor because it facilitates the effect of organisational commitment via the relationship of leadership behaviour/ style and organisational commitment (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). For the process of moderation, trust does not act in a direct effect on outcomes as risk-taking behaviour. Instead, trust represents the accumulated experiences from interpreting leader's roles in the past and assessing leader's behaviour in the future (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). From this perspective, it seems to reduce the conditions of risk and uncertainty. Consequently, leadership style directly provides organisational commitment whilst trust facilitates the occurrence of organisational commitment. For instance, within a high degree of trust, employees are more likely to accept their leaders' roles via their experience toward the degree of organisational commitment.

There are some studies to support the model of operating trust as a moderator. Such as Bass and Avolio (1994) propose that although trust in leaders is a factor for employees to accept their leaders' role, it is not a major factor for increasing the degree of employee outcomes. Additionally, Wallace et al. (2013) mention that the more appropriate leadership style is, the higher degree of organisational commitment exists. Likewise, trust is a condition for cooperation in the relationship (Hwang and Burgers, 1997). This can support the moderation context that leadership style directly influences organisational commitment as its main effect, and trust is driven as a facilitator in the relationship. Dirks and Ferrin (2001) mention that empirical research studies have investigated the context of the moderating role of trust but most of them address too specific theoretical issues. Therefore, trust in leaders needs to extend research study in terms of the effect of interaction of trust and leadership style on the magnitude of

organisational commitment by considering the work environment e.g. organisational culture. These are highlighted in chapter 5.

2.5.3 Leadership and employee work-related attitudes and its implications

Finding the relationship between leadership style and employee work-related attitudes in terms of job related well-being and organisational commitment of employees, which lends credence to the competence of the investigation of leadership effectiveness, might be influenced by the different organisational cultures and organisational management policies. Moreover, organisational culture tends to affect the association of leadership traits in FFM of personality and the choice of managerial jobs.

Leadership and organisational culture within sector differences

The organisational culture is one of the most popular concepts in the fields of management and organisational theory. It is a system of shared backgrounds, norms, values and beliefs among group members (Schein, 1985; Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012). Moreover, the cultural forces are an abstraction, which is powerful and created in social and organisational situations (Schein, 2010). However, there is a various idea on the cultural definition and concepts. Thus, Ogbonna and Harris (1998, 2000) conclude that the relevant main issues of the concepts of organisational culture are as followers: "(1) when preserving culture is a unitary concept, it is reduces the value of the analytic tool; (2) culture is unequal to power, policies or climate; (3) organisational culture cannot be changed easily" (p. 769). Moreover, Schein (2010) gives the definition of cultural content that "culture is constantly re-enacted and created by our

interactions with others and shaped by our own behaviour" (p.3). He also categorises

the formal structure of culture into four types, which are (1) macro cultures: nations,

ethnic and religious group, and occupations that exist globally, (2) organisational

cultures: private, public, non-profit and government organisations, (3) subcultures:

occupational groups within organisations, (4) micro cultures: microsystems within or

outside organisations. Based on organisational sectors, Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy

(2012) assert that there are the different cultures across organisations, which can also

occur among the different organisations in any of these sectors. For instance, the

members the military sector are typically different from members in the educational

sector in terms of norms, backgrounds, experiences, values and beliefs whilst the

organisational culture of the Air Force is different from the Marine Corps.

According to the study of the relationship between organisational culture and

leadership style, Schein (2010) argues that the linking of both concepts interplay and

shapes each other. In other words, the organisational culture influences the behaviour

of leaders; in turn, it is shaped by leaders. Brown (1992) also mentions that effective

leaders can change the organisational culture in the line of their vision to improve the

organisational performance. Thus, leaders are not only influenced by the organisation's

culture, but also they play an active role in changing it. Based on leadership style, Bass

(1985) shows the study of the effect of different leadership styles on an organisation's

culture and concludes that transformational leadership is more effective in changing

organisational culture than transactional leadership, related to masculine style in terms

of operating in the format direction. Specifically, the charisma of leaders, which results

in the ability to recognise the interests of employees and to communicate in a decent

and clear manner (Bennis and Nanus, 1985; Conger, 1989), is an important mechanism

of culture creation. However, the charisma does not reliably adhere to society which is

difficult to find charismatic leaders and difficult to predict the effect of leaders'

charisma (Schein, 2010). Therefore, Schein (2010) proposes that alternatively, regardless of charisma, the primary embedding mechanisms are associated with the role of leaders in order to create organisational culture. He provides the six different investigations of the primary embedding mechanisms (p. 236):

1) What leaders pay attention to, measure and control on a regular basis

2) How leaders react to critical incidents and organisational crises

3) How leaders allocate resources

4) Deliberate role modelling, teaching and coaching

5) How leaders allocate rewards and status

6) How leaders recruit, select, promote, and excommunicate

Based on the influence of the primary embedding mechanisms on organisational culture, the role of interaction between leaders and employees is likely associated with a participative and supportive leadership style. Likewise, Ogbonna and Harris (2000) propose that the impact of both the participative and supportive leadership styles is associated with innovative and competitive sectors of the organisational culture. On the other hand, there is no correlation of instrumental/task-oriented leadership style with any sectors of organisational culture. This indicates that the interaction of leader-employee is relevant to the type of organisational culture, particularly, sector differences in supporting employee and decision-making. In the same vein, Vroom and Jago (2007) mention that most research studies have obscured results to define the effective leadership because the situation is not controlled particularly organisational culture related to sector differences. This leads to unclear information about what appropriate situations meet the effectiveness. The effective leadership style is effective

in one situation and may be completely ineffective in other situations. Thus,

organisational culture related to sector differences as a strength situation is more likely

to influences the consequences of the interaction between leaders-employees.

Leadership and managerial policies

Contemporary organisations tend to support change in their leaders' role for

compatibility with the environment of today. In particular, the public and private

sectors of organisations are focused on a wide set of leadership competences as a

leadership pool to draw from to develop the role of leadership (Collinge and Gibney,

2010; Storey, 2011). Horne (2001) mentions that the quality of leadership has a higher

score rating when an organisation has explicit and systematic policies to support

leadership. Thus, the role of leadership within the policy prescriptions is emphasised by

the productivity gains, improving functionality and effectiveness of organisation.

Similarly, Bass (1990) argues that "policies, goals, task requirements and functions

constrain how directive or participative a leader can be" (p.448). He also proposes that

many of 100 companies state the policy statements in terms of the value of relations

orientation e.g. makes their employee to recognise involvement in the organisation and

encourage opening communication. From this context, it must be taken into account

that the managerial policies can define the role of leadership to the effective

performance of the organisation.

2.6 Conclusion

This chapter has sought to review critically a major model of quintessential leadership in terms of antecedents and consequences. It provides definitions, classifications, existing theories, the relevant context and measurements which focus on FFM of personality traits of leaders, the relationship of leadership style and employee work-related attitudes, and their implications in the present study. There are four main points that are concluded from the literature review as follows:

2.6.1 The perspective of leadership traits-behaviours-effectiveness

The literature on the conceptual leadership effectiveness is voluminous and covers a wide range of aspects. However, the direction of the effective leadership definition depends on the subject of the context of leadership-followers-situation. Beside this, the measurement of effective leadership has two areas of investigating i.e. assessment leadership effectiveness as a subjective measurement (e.g. individuals' rating leadership) and an objective measurement (e.g. rating leadership outcomes). In fact, the review of the literature suggests that there is no universally accepted assessment of leadership effectiveness; however, the literature review identifies the linkage of leadership effectiveness, which is the role of leadership traits and leadership behaviour. Thus, the present study needs to include various criteria and their implications for exploring the effective leadership.

The leadership traits focus on personality traits in which the strengths of personality traits can define individuals' behaviour and predict effective leadership. The FFM of personality traits, which is an indicator to investigate personality facets of individuals, is robust for finding individual differences e.g. leaders vs. non-leaders and female vs. male in managerial positions. It consists of the five-dimension personality

traits i.e. *Extraversion, Agreeableness, Openness to experience, Conscientiousness* and *Neuroticism.* Although the finding of the relationship between FFM of personality traits and leadership is still ambiguous, it depends on different contexts such as organisational type. However, empirical studies assert that there is a significant association between FFM of personality traits and leadership effectiveness. Thus, the FFM of personality traits is the most appropriate model for this study to determine the distinctive leaders concerning gender differences, organisational environment and its implications.

The views of literature on the role of leadership behaviour reveal that the leadership behaviour is more accurate and more highly correlated than leadership traits to predict the effective leadership. There are numerous research studies on the relationship between effective leadership behaviours and organisational or individual outcomes. The full range model of leadership behaviour is classified into three paradigms i.e. transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership behaviours within the concept of relational-oriented and task-oriented attributes. Moreover, the different paradigms of leadership behaviour display the separate dimensions and different degrees within the organisational context. Transformational leadership consists of idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individual consideration dimensions. Likewise, transactional leadership includes three dimensions, which are contingent reward, management by exception-active and management by exception-passive. In contrast, laissez-faire, which refers to non-leadership, is neither transformational nor transactional leadership. Although laissez-faire does not directly display the role of leaders, it is correlated with the contingent reward dimension of transactional leadership.

Alternatively, another perspective of leadership behaviour, which has been referred to in empirical research studies, is leadership styles. Leadership style is a pattern of behaviours that is classified within a set of two meta-categories i.e. task-oriented vs. interpersonal-oriented and autocratic vs. democratic leadership styles. The effect of leadership style is concerned within the gender role of leadership. Moreover, the dichotomous approaches of the set of two meta-categories of leadership style involve the distribution of power, meeting the needs of employer-employee and decision-making. The relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes is also examined in numerous research studies; however, the findings are still unclear because they depend on the context of the situation. When concerning the situation particularly gender differences, the set of two-meta categories of leadership styles, which are likely more associated with gender roles, may be more appropriate to define the effective leadership than full range of leadership behaviours. Although some studies support that the full range of leadership can indicate the leadership effectiveness, the results are somewhat different when concerning the conditions such as gender roles and organisational culture. Due to the full range of leadership behaviour focusing on a broader range of attributes, it is difficult to interpret and to distinguish taxonomies from one to another. Thus, concerning the effect of conditions such as gender differences and organisational culture on the relationship of leadership and the outcomes, the set of two meta-categories of leadership style are the most appropriate for the current study.

2.6.2 The effect of gender roles on leadership traits-behaviour-effectiveness

The literature review on the influence of socio-demographic factors, particularly the gender differences of leadership traits and behaviours, reflects on organisational and individual outcomes associated with leadership effectiveness. The gender gap on the

antecedents and consequences of leadership effectiveness is more emphasised in terms of the effect of gender discriminations and work-life balance. Prior studies attempt to define the factors of gender gap (e.g. individuals' demographic factors, personality traits) that prevent females from being promoted to higher positions. Although they acknowledge that the glass ceiling to prevent women in being promoted to higher positions still exists in organisations, there is an ambiguity with what the main factors are that impact on the gender gap. However, many studies support that leadership traits in terms of personality traits are more likely appropriate to define gender differences in leadership effectiveness than others. Presumably, defining the gender gap in managerial positions may be associated with the differences of personality traits between women and men. Particularly, when comparing women and men leaders in different sectors, the congruent personality traits may show in line with the distinctive gender gap in different sectors.

Likewise, the relationship of gender roles and leadership style is also explored in empirical studies by comparing females and males in managerial positions and their outcomes. In terms of the interaction of employers-employees, the influence of gender roles matters; however, the findings are inconsistent because of the type of study and organisational socialisation within the difference of organisational culture. The gender-leadership congruent role theory is mentioned in correlation with the feminine role related to female leaders and the masculine role related to male leaders. In other words, the influence of intensive conditions (e.g. organisational culture and social roles) on the gender-leadership congruent roles may reflect on the different magnitudes of outcomes.

2.6.3 The relationship between FFM of personality traits and managerial choices in different sectors and its implications

It is clear from the literature that there are many research studies about the relationship between the personality traits and leadership behaviour toward leadership effectiveness. Presumably, it may be concluded that the dimension of *Extraversion, Conscientiousness*, and *Openness to experience* is more likely associated with the propensity for being managers. Likewise, higher degree of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* dimensions seems to be an obstacle for individuals to move in higher positions. However, the findings are different and have contrary results based on the measurement of personality traits and the context of leadership and its implications. Previous studies support focusing on leadership related to the five dimensions of personality traits in terms of being complementary in predicting individual's career choices. The studies examine the linking of the dimension of FFM personality traits and six occupational types of Holland's model (RIASEC) i.e. Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising and Conventional types. This relationship is comprehensive in predicting the congruence of individual's personality traits and the career toward work-related performance and environments. To integrate the choice of managerial jobs and FFM of personality in different sectors, it may involve three dimensions i.e. *Extraversion, Agreeableness*, and *Openness to experience* to support in the choice of managerial jobs in different sectors. *Extraversion* is likely correlated with Social and Enterprising types; therefore, the premise is that leaders with a high degree of *Extraversion* have a propensity to be in the private sector. On the other hand, individuals who have a high degree of *Agreeableness*, relate to social interactions of a cooperative nature and *Openness to experience* dimension associates with individuals who have an intrinsic motivation and creation. These dimensions may be congruent with the public sector. However, few research studies focus on the link of FFM of

personality traits and the choice of managerial jobs in different sectors more specifically, when concerning gender differences.

2.6.4 The relationship between leadership style and employee work-related attitudes and its implications

In this part of the literature review, the employee's work-related attitude is used to explain the effective leadership, which is a voluminous and wide-ranging investigation. The particular interest in this thesis is the relationship between a set of two-meta categories of leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being. The conclusion is that employee job satisfaction and well-being are dependent on the interaction between leaders and employees in terms of the employees' expectations within the congruent gender-leadership roles. According to the gender-leadership congruent roles related to social roles, the influence of gender roles moderates the leadership style which reflects on employees' outcomes i.e. employee job satisfaction and well-being by considering sector differences. Presumably, the effect of the moderating of female managers on feminine leadership style may be correlated with employees' job satisfaction and well-being within feminine dominance.

Organisational commitment is another employee work-related attitude, which is the focus of inquiry in this thesis. Building committed employees is associated with the influence of leadership behaviour. Additionally, employee trust in leaders, which is also built by leadership behaviour, is referred to the literature review. The core idea of building employee's trust in their leaders as well as organisational commitment via the interaction of leaders and employees is to increase organisational outcomes related to leadership effectiveness. Besides this, there is a small body of literature to explore an indirect effect of employee trust in leaders as a moderator and mediator on the

relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes. More specifically, these relationships are compared within different situations. It supports a better understanding whether the role of trust is appropriate to support the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment. Likewise, the magnitude effect of organisational commitment may be different depending on the perspective of trust in leaders as a moderator or a mediator and the context of organisational culture.

Based on the inconsistency of results concerning the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes, the literature review mentions the influence of the different situations, which the organisational culture is focused on in this thesis. The formal structure of culture is categorised into four types, which are (1) macro cultures (2) organisational cultures (3) subcultures and (4) micro cultures. However, the current study is more concerned in terms of organisational culture and subcultures as the influential situations, which directly affect the antecedents of leadership effectiveness in terms of the personality leadership traits in managerial positions. Moreover, the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes related to work attitudes is also examined within the influence of organisational culture and subculture, which has had very little research in these areas. Beside this, the literature review mentions that the managerial policies, which are characterised by organisational culture, can reflect the leadership style at the organisational level. The history of managerial policies will pay a fundamental role of leadership style at the organisational level related to the influence of organisational culture. Thus, leadership style related to managerial policies may be more appropriate in this thesis to investigate the outcomes at the organisational level.

According to the review literature, this study has opened up a research avenue to explore these emerging issues concerning the quintessence of leadership in terms of

antecedents and consequences in the remainder of the dissertation. Specifically, in chapter 3, we investigate the role of personality within the Five-Factor Model, which is the most appropriate model for this study to determine the distinctive leaders concerning the influence of gender differences in managerial jobs toward sector differences and its implications. In particular, few research studies focus on the link of FFM of personality traits and the choice of managerial jobs in sector differences. In chapter 4, we examine effective leadership via employee work-related attitudes in terms of employee job-related well-being on the interaction between leaders and employees. Particularly, based on the gender-leadership congruent roles, the relationship between a set of two-meta categories of leadership style and employee outcomes is considered on the moderating effect of the gender of managers. Additionally, we further explore the influence of sector differences associated with social roles into this relationship, which needs to emphasise the organisational gender diversity based on the different outcomes and unclear results in previous studies. Finally, chapter 5 focuses on the leadership style at the organisational level to build the employee work-related attitudes i.e. employee organisational commitment. Moreover, based on organisational culture within sector differences, this chapter investigates the effect of trust in leaders as a moderator or mediator on this relationship of which there is a small body of literature to explore an indirect effect of employee trust and to compare within different sectors.

Chapter 3

Do personality traits predict the choice of managerial jobs? : Gender and sector differences

3.1 Introduction

The relationship between personality and leadership has been one of the most extensively researched topics in the existing literature. Emerging from this literature is a consensus that a systematic framing of personality traits and an insight into the mechanisms underpinning the process of personality development are both necessary for understanding leadership behaviour (Shriberg and Shriberg, 2011). Based on this premise, numerous empirical studies confirm that leaders have distinctive personalities and that personality traits such as *Extraversion, Agreeableness,* and *Openness to experience* are often strong predictors of leadership (Judge and Bono, 2000). Among these three personality traits, *Extraversion* is found to exert the strongest positive influence on leadership incidence and behaviour (Bono and Judge, 2004). Nonetheless, other studies cast doubt on the robustness of such a relationship between *Extraversion* and leadership, especially in dynamic and non-stable work environments (De Hoogh, Den Hartog, and Koopman, 2005). A similarly mixed picture emerges from empirical findings regarding the influence of the remaining big five personality traits on leadership behaviour, with *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* exerting a negative impact and traits such as *Conscientiousness* and *Openness to experience* exerting a positive impact.

Our purpose in this chapter is to reexamine the relationship between personality and leadership in the context of individuals' decision to pursue a managerial career. Although leadership and management are not necessarily the same constructs (Bass and Bass, 2009), we base our analysis on the premise that there is a significant conceptual overlap between these two constructs and that for any practical purpose they are interdependent. The boundaries between the roles of leaders and managers and any differences in observed behaviours are indeed difficult to identify, especially in professions with high qualification requirements and in positions within an organisation entailing extensive managerial duties (Burke and Day, 1986; Yukl, 1999).

In terms of establishing what are the factors that impact being in managerial positions, it involves the traits theory of leadership particularly focusing on personality which identifies managers from others toward disaggregated analysis in different variables (e.g. Eagly and Karau, 1991; Grint, 2000; Judge et al., 2002; Lord et al., 2001). However, prior findings are ambiguous and causal linkages are unclear which may relate to oversimplified stereotypes of the link of personality and leadership (Yukl, 1999). This leads to an adjustment investigation of personality traits within FFM of personality by considering the influence of appropriate variables to predict the effective leaders. Generally, numerous studies investigate the gender differences in leadership traits (personality). However, there are only a few longitudinal studies exploring the effect of personality traits on individuals in managerial positions by moderating gender and other demographics under intensive condition i.e. sector differences.

In this chapter, we focus specifically on the big five personality traits and their effect on individuals' decisions to pursue managerial careers. The empirical analysis draws upon existing theoretical explanations for the observed distribution of personality traits across demographic groups and explanations about how they evolve through

87

adulthood. Based on the biological and contextualised perspective of Sirivastava, John and Gosling's (2003) study about the development of personality throughout adulthood, we argue that the personality traits are inherit and stable in a lifespan. However, gender and other demographics, e.g. marital status, exert a strong moderating influence in the relationship between personality and the choice of managerial positions. More specifically, gender features highly among the demographic factors influencing the distribution and evolution of personality; therefore, we explore whether there are significant differences in the way the big five personality traits affect potential managers and their influence on male and female employees' decision to become managers. Additionally, there are no systematic contexts of identified organisational sectors that fit for the specific individual's personality traits in managerial positions. Thus, we further investigate whether there are any systematic patterns or differences in the relationship between personality and managerial positions across different occupations or sectors of the economy. As personality is linked to employees' values, intrinsic motivation, and pro-social behaviours, it is likely that the relationship between the big five personality traits and the probability of an individual being a manager differs across sectors depending on whether outcomes and performance are driven predominantly by intrinsic rewards or by extrinsic rewards.

We use data from the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS), a large longitudinal study that provides information on respondents' personality traits, occupational status, as well as information on a rich array of demographic and workplace characteristics, including marital status and the main sectors of the economy. Regarding longitudinal research design, the effective method in this chapter uses panel data to estimate and test hypotheses. This is to extend better understanding in terms of cause and effect relationship from previous research studies in cross-sectional design.

Yukl (2013) proposes that the most appropriate methods to explore the relational leadership are seldom used due to the fact that most studies use cross-sectional analysis which misleads in terms of understanding evolving relationships and reciprocal process of leadership research. Thus, based on exploring the influence of being in managerial positions, the interconnections of individuals' personality traits and their demographic variables are observed over a long period of time. Moreover, the study provides some of the first large-scale evidence on the extent at which personality can explain the gender gap in managerial careers. In this respect, it offers an insight into whether positive personality traits could help women overcome some of the barriers they face in advancing onto higher-level leadership and managerial roles, including career glass ceilings, workplace discrimination, and heightened work-life balance considerations. The findings could inform the design and implementation of well-targeted selection, recruitment, and career coaching strategies.

3.2 Background and hypotheses building

3.2.1 Leaders and the Five-Factor Model of personality traits

The personality traits and behaviours of leaders have been studied in the literature, mainly as paradigms for predicting leadership outcomes (Nahrgang, Morgeson, and Ilies, 2009). According to the traits theory of leadership, leaders' personality traits, and attributes are important elements of the triadic and complex *leadership traits-behaviour-effectiveness* relationship, which is often contingent upon specific sector and occupational settings (Lord et al., 2001). This type of complexity partially explains the mixed results across empirical studies, which use different

samples and methods (Judge and Bono, 2000). Because of such complexity, identifying

effective leaders cannot be reliably based on simple measurements of the leaders'

characteristics. Instead, it requires measures that account explicitly for social context as

well as for the followers' perceptions and their interpretations of contemporary social

phenomena (Grint, 2000). Although there are many methodologies available for

uncovering the link between personality and leadership, they are often resemble 'a

typology with oversimplified stereotypes', thus failing to understand how leadership is

associated with the distinct traits of leaders (Yukl, 1999).

The Five-Factor Model (FFM) is one of the most extensively used models for

exploring the role of personality traits in affecting leadership styles, behaviours, and

outcomes in a systematic way. Its popularity increased in the 1990s, when it was used

to establish the reliability and validity of socio-emotional aspects of personality.

According to Engler (2008), the FFM has been used successfully to predict with

considerable accuracy what a person will do in alternative situations. Studies offer a

further testimony of the success of the FFM, arguing that its five constituents (i.e.

Extraversion, Openness, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness, and *Neuroticism*) represent

independent categories and classifications of each personality at the broadest level of

abstraction (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Goldberg, 1990). In contrast, the FFM is

perceived as a crude measure of personality traits, which is mostly inherited and stable,

not explicitly accounting for environmental influences (Boudreau, Boswell and Judge,

2001; Digman, 1989; John, Robins and Pervin, 2010). Despite such criticism, the Five-

Factor Model has provided a valuable taxonomy, which is potentially useful in many

settings and scientific inquiries, including the study of subjective well-being, longevity

and especially the study of leadership (Judge et al., 2002). Whilst the Five-Factor

Model could make a difference in identifying successful from unsuccessful leaders,

using its global traits is also the best way for the development of theories and

explanations of managerial/leadership efficiency and outcomes (Barrick and Mount, 2005).

Our analysis is based on the premise that each individual dimension of the Five-Factor Model of personality could have a distinct influence on individuals' propensity to occupy a managerial position. Individuals scoring highly on the *Extraversion* scale are deemed efficacious, optimistic, and likely to experience positive moods and emotions (Bass and Bass, 2009). In this respect, *Extraversion* emerges as the most compatible trait with a managerial career (Judge et al., 2002) and therefore we should expect a positive correlation between levels of *Extraversion*, career success and managerial positions. *Openness to experience* is the trait of FFM associated with high levels of creativity and capturing a measurable relationship between intelligence and leadership. Individuals who are open to new experiences are characterised by a mental intrepidity, which bolsters their imagination and creative thinking whilst considering social values (De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman, 2005). In many circumstances, creative thinking is an important skill for those in managerial positions. Conscientious individuals are dependable, responsible, hardworking, persevering efficient, needing to achieve, prudent, ambitious and organised (Barrick, Mount and Strauss, 1993). *Conscientiousness* is associated with prudence, discipline, and careful planning and it is used to determine whether a person is dependable, dutiful and achievement-oriented (DeRue et al., 2011; Furnham, Crump and Whelan, 1997). Thus, *Conscientiousness* may be directly linked to leadership ability.

Compared to *Extraversion, Openness*, and *Conscientiousness*, the relationship between *Agreeableness* and leadership is less straigthforward. Individuals who are characterized by a high degree of *Agreeableness* tend to be soft-hearted, trusting, gullible and may have a tendency to follow rather than to lead (Boudreau, Boswell and

91

Judge, 2001). In contrast, individuals who are most likely to advance their careers are the 'chameleons' and 'machiavellians' (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Thus, *Agreeableness* emerges as a personality trait, which is associated with weakness in managerial/leadership positions. Individuals who score highly on the *Neuroticism* scale tend to lack self-esteem and self-confidence and they are most likely to be pessimists (McCrae and Costa, 1991). Managerial positions, on the other hand, require a high degree of self-esteem, self-confidence, and emotional stability (Judge and Bono, 2000). Therefore, *Neuroticism* is likely to impact negatively on the propensity of individuals undertaking managerial roles.

3.2.2 The personality of managers: Gender differences

Rather paradoxically, gender stereotypes are more prevalent in Western Societies with progressive ideologies about sex roles and large observed gender differences in personality (Costa, Terracciano and McCrae, 2001). In their meta-analysis of empirical studies on the predictions of gender role theory, Eagly and Karau (1991) point to the possibility that gender differences in personality may have played a role in the observed emergence of men as managers. Compared to men, women score higher in personality traits, such as *Neuroticism, Agreeableness*, Warmth, and Openness to feelings, that are negatively associated with managerial roles and they score relatively low in *Openness to experience* and Assertiveness (Costa, Terracciano and McCrae, 2001). In a study of the relationship between gender and the probability of managerial posts in the German private sector, (Fietze, Holst and Tobsch, 2011) find that personality matters among leaders and other white-collar employees, albeit its effect is quantitatively small. However, their study predicts that women could improve their opportunities to become managers by reducing the level of *Agreeableness*,

whereas men need to focus more on improvements regarding *Conscientiousness* and Emotional stability. They further find that differences in the big five personality traits between leaders and non-leaders are more prominent in the case of women than in the case of men.

3.2.3 The personality of managers: Occupation and sector differences

Studies that examine the relationship between the FFM of personality and Holland's six occupational types RIASEC (i.e., *Realistic, Investigative, Artistic, Social, Enterprising,* and *Conventional*) highlight important differences in the relationship between personality traits and career choices across sectors (Barrick, Mount and Gupta, 2003). A main conclusion from these studies is that both the FFM and RIASEC are complementary in predicting individuals' career and employment outcomes. In the same vein, a considerable volume of work suggests that vocational choices are driven by individuals' endeavour to work in a profession that fits their personalities and one that fulfils their physical and psychological needs (Dickson, Resick and Goldstein, 2008). However, we should not expect that all individuals aspire to become managers as such a career choice is not likely to suit all types of personalities nor it is likely to fulfil the physical and psychological needs of all. Instead, managerial aspirations are contingent upon specific context and circumstances, often demarcated by sector and occupation differences.

Barrick, Mount and Gupta (2003) demonstrate in their meta-analytic results that *Extraversion, Agreeableness,* and *Openness to experience* are associated with specific jobs, whereas *Conscientiousness* and stable emotions are important for engaging in tasks and for performing well in all jobs. They further point out that individuals with

high *Extraversion* are more congruent with jobs that focus on competitive demand and advancement in a hierarchy. Because extraverts are generally sociable (i.e. outgoing and gregarious), active (i.e. adventuresome and assertive), and taking the lead (i.e. dominant and ambitious), they are more likely to interact with others and to contribute in improving performance in jobs such as sales, management, and teamwork (Barrick, Mount and Judge, 2001; Judge et al., 1999). Similarly, De Fruyt and Mervielde (1999) confirm that *Extraversion* is positively correlated with Social-type and Enterprise-type jobs in the RIASEC vocational interest typology. This implies that in terms of their congruence with the work situation, extraverts could enjoy successful careers in enterprising and social preference types of jobs. Consequently, organisations operating within highly competitive environments, i.e. the private sectors, are likely to require managers with a high level of *Extraversion*. As extraverts tend to pursue material reward seeking behaviours and have a tendency towards sociability, they are particularly suited for managerial roles in such competitive work environments.

In contrast, individuals scoring highly on the *Agreeableness* dimension relate sympathetically to others and pursue social interactions of a cooperative nature. Interestingly, individuals with an extreme degree of *Agreeableness* are found to be willing to sacrifice their own success for the benefit of others (Judge et al., 1999). Thus, *Agreeableness* could relate negatively to both salary and career satisfaction among employees in people-oriented occupations (Seibert and Kraimer, 2001). Individuals with a high degree of *Openness to experience* are generally not satisfied in the conventional occupations and they are mostly attracted to investigative and artistic type of occupations or sectors (Costa, McCrae and Holland, 1984).

Sector differences in the impact of *Extraversion*, *Agreeableness*, and *Openness to experience* on career choices and outcomes are further highlighted by evidence

pointing to the existence of a sorting mechanism operating in labour markets, which

allocates employees with specific personality traits into suitable sectors and occupations

where these traits are more likely to allow them to thrive. A considerable volume of

work in the public administration literature has explored such a mechanism in the

context of individuals' intrinsic motivation and pro-social attitudes. To the extent that

pro-social motivation is linked to personality, then it is an easy intellectual leap to link

personality traits to such a sorting mechanism, allocating employees across the public

and private sectors (e.g. Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma, 2011; Nutt, 2006; Perry,

Hondeghem and Wise, 2010). In this case, we should expect that the personality-

management relationship to be also moderated by such a sorting mechanism. For

instance, whilst extraverts are likely to have an enhanced chance of becoming

managers, they are also more likely to be attracted to sectors and occupations with

predominantly material rather than intrinsic rewards, e.g. Enterprise-type jobs (De Fruyt

and Mervielde, 1999). Thus, we should expect to observe a relatively lower proportion

of highly extravert managers in public sector jobs. Public and non-profit sector

management relies predominantly on lower-powered incentive structures in order to

diminish the risk of undermining intrinsic motivation. This implies that managers in

these sectors could find it beneficial to be more flexible and open to experience, which

will allow them to understand and to be more sympathetic to employees with diverse

social values, and consequently be able to harness employees' intrinsic motivation for

improving productivity and organisational performance.

Conscientiousness is more strongly associated with performance in conventional

type jobs that involve task-oriented activities, such as the systematic manipulation of

data, filling records or reproducing materials (Barrick, Mount and Gupta, 2003; De

Fruyt and Mervielde, 1999). This strong association between *Conscientiousness* and

conventional job preferences is generally compatible with the distinguishing

characteristics of leadership insofar as it pertains to organisational stability. On the other hand, *Conscientiousness* could be of a lesser importance in highly competitive organisational sectors, e.g. the private sector.

Nevertheless, differences in the relationship between personality and managerial roles across industrial sectors are exacerbated by gender. Stronger personality traits are often helping women to overcome some of the barriers that they face in advancing their careers, especially in masculine-oriented sectors (e.g. the private sector). Indeed, female managers in the masculine-oriented sectors tend to be more conscientious, more extravert, and more open to experience than their male counterparts. Nevertheless, it is also possible that scoring highly on the *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* scales could impose a greater impediment for women, compared to men, in advancing into managerial positions within masculine-oriented sectors.

Many empirical studies assert that individuals are likely to have only one distinct dimension of personality traits. This means each dimension of the FFM of personality is independent. Therefore, in the first hypothesis, the study examines personality traits in separate dimensions i.e. *Extraversion, Openness to experience, Conscientiousness, Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism*. However, based on the mixed results in previous studies, the study needs to re-examine the conceptual personality to identify the distinct managers from others. *Extraversion, Openness to experience* and *Consciousness* dimensions are more likely to be associated with individuals in managerial positions. In contrast, the high level of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* dimensions seem to be barriers toward individuals becoming a leader. Thus, from the discussion above, we formulate the following hypotheses:

96

Hypothesis 1a: *Extraversion, Openness,* and *Conscientiousness* are positively correlated with the propensity of individuals to be managers.

Hypothesis 1b: *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* are negatively correlated with the propensity of individuals to be managers.

The second hypothesis addresses the influence of gender roles related to the prejudice of descriptive and prescriptive stereotype (Eagly and Karau, 2002) which is the glass ceiling to prevent females from obtaining high positions. Presumably, females who possess in managerial positions are required to exert more effort than males for securing their managerial positions. In this respect, females may have a higher degree of *Extraversion, Openness to experience* and Conscientiousness than males in managerial positions. On the other hand, *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* may be an obstacle for females to occupy leadership positions. Thus, we hypothesise that

Hypothesis 2a: The positive effect of *Extraversion, Openness to experience* and *Conscientiousness* on the probability of securing a managerial position is quantitatively stronger for women than in the case of men.

Hypothesis 2b: The negative effect of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* on the probability of securing a managerial position is quantitatively stronger for women than in the case of men.

The third hypothesis relates to the effect of sector differences on managers' personality traits in terms of the congruent personality traits with the work context associated with sector as an individual-job fit. Leaders in the private sector which

97

operates within a highly competitive environment may be required to have a higher degree of *Extraversion*. Likewise, in the public sector which refers to the context of intrinsic motivation and pro-social attitudes is more likely related to leaders with a higher degree of *Agreeableness* and *Openness to experience*. Regarding gender-leadership congruent role (Eagly and Karau, 2002), the influence of masculine dominance in different contexts (e.g. private sector) is associated with masculine leadership style which is more appropriate with male leaders. Thus, females who are in masculine dominate situations are more required to have a strong personality than males to overcome gender discriminations. Based on the above discussion of sector differences, we formulate the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: The effect of *Extraversion* on the probability of securing a managerial position is stronger in the private sector than in other sectors, irrespective of gender.

Hypothesis 3b: The impact of *Agreeableness* and *Openness to experience* on the probability of managerial position is larger in the public sector than in the private sector, irrespective of gender.

Hypothesis 3c: The effect of the big five personality traits on the probability of securing a managerial position is significantly stronger for women than men in the masculine-oriented sectors (e.g. the private sector).

3.3 Data and Methods

3.3.1 Sample and procedure

The empirical analysis is based on data from the British Household Panel

Survey (BHPS), covering the period 1991-2008[1]. The longitudinal structure of the

BHPS dataset allows us to track individuals over time and to record their demographic

and occupational characteristics. The first interviews were conducted in 1991 and

annually ever since, tracing about 10,300 individuals in about 5500 households. The

availability of information on the big five personality traits in 2005, i.e. wave 15, allows

us to relate these traits to the incidence of managerial positions by gender and across

different sectors of the economy. By excluding observations with missing values for

the main variables of interest, the resulting estimating sample consists of 55,225 person-

year observations. In this sample, we identify 9,084 male and 6,349 female managers

respectively.

Using the above sample, we estimate a multivariate logistic regression model of

the form:

$$\Pr(MANAGER_{it} = 1) = \beta_1 (PERSONALITY)_i + \beta_2{}' \mathbf{X}_{it} + \varepsilon_{it}, \tag{1}$$

where $\Pr(MANAGER_{it} = 1)$ is the probability that the individual i is working in a

managerial position at time t. $MANAGER$ is a dichotomous variable taking values 1 if

the individual is a manager and 0 otherwise. The vector $\mathbf{X}_{it}$ includes the control

variables that could potentially influence the propensity to be a manager, including

personal, demographic, and labour market characteristics. ε_{it} is a random error term

following the logistic distribution. β_1 and β_2 are the estimated coefficients, which

---

[1] More information on the BHPS is available at https://www.iser.essex.ac.uk/bhps/.

indicate the statistical significance and the direction of the effect of the independent variables on the probability of an individual being a manager. In order to gain a greater insight into the magnitude of these effects, and to facilitate the interpretation of the results, instead of reporting the estimated coefficients of the logistic model, we estimate the marginal effects associated with these coefficients.

3.3.2 Measures

Managerial position

In order to identify employees in managerial positions, we use participants' responses to the question '*Do you have any managerial duties or do you supervise any other employees?*'. The three possible responses were: (1) for manager; (2) for foreman/supervisor; and (3) not manager or supervisor (see also Appendix Table 3.1). In our analysis, we identify as managers only those who responded (1) to the above question. Foremen or supervisors are not included in our definition of a manager.

Personality traits

Information on respondents' personality traits is available in wave 15 of the survey. There are fifteen questions related to the Five-Factor Model (FFM), with three items measuring each of the respective dimensions of personality, i.e. *Agreeableness, Conscientiousness, Extraversion, Neuroticism,* and *Openness to experience.* Respondents rated how they saw themselves within a Likert-type 7-point scale, from 1 "Does not apply" to 7 "Applies perfectly". The fifteen items used to define the big five personality traits are as follows:

Agreeableness

'I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others'

'I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature'

'I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to almost everyone'

Conscientiousness

'I see myself as someone who does a thorough job'

'I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy'

'I see myself as someone who does things efficiently'

Extraversion

'I see myself as someone who is talkative'

'I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable'

'I see myself as someone who is reserved'

Neuroticism

'I see myself as someone who worries a lot'

'I see myself as someone who gets nervously easily'

'I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well'

Openness to experience

'I see myself as someone who is original, comes up with new ideas'

'I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences'

'I see myself as someone who has an active imagination'

Although the measurement of FFM personality traits in the BHPS is a concise inventory, previous empirical studies have asserted the validity and reliability of these measures (Gosling, Rentfrow and Swann Jr, 2003). In our analysis, we assume that personality remains unchanged during the sampling period, thus treating the personality

information in wave 15 as a fixed individual characteristic. We acknowledge, however, that whether personality is genetically predetermined or whether it changes with age and environmental influences remains a subject of debate in the literature. Judge et al. (2002) find, for example, that the FFM of personality structure is inheritable and stable over time or changes very little after age 30. Similarly, studies find that personality traits change only slightly between the ages of 20 and to 45 years (Arvey et al., 2006; Fietze, Holst and Tobsch, 2011). In contrast, Srivastava, John and Gosling (2003), studying the relationship between age, gender, and personality in adulthood find that *Neuroticism* declines for women with age but not for men, while *Conscientiousness* increases with age for both genders.

Organisation size and sector

Evidence suggests that employees working for larger organisations enjoy higher chances of promotion to higher positions (Fietze, Holst and Tobsch, 2011). In our analysis, we control for firm size by using six dummy variables defined by the number of employees in the organisation (i.e. 29-49 employees, 50-99 employees, 100-199 employees, 200-499 employees, 500-999 employees, and 1000 or more employees). As discussed above, the incidence of managerial positions by gender differs across organisational sectors. Consequently, we control for the following sectors: Private sector, Civil service-central government, Local government, NHS (National Health Service) or Higher education, and Non-profit sector.

Demographic variables

To disentangle the influence of personality traits on the propensity to hold a managerial position from the influence of individuals' personal, demographic and

102

labour market characteristics, we control for age, marital status, education, and number of children. These demographic characteristics could have an effect on individuals' preferences for managerial type of careers, which could be influenced by their preferences and priorities for a better work-life balance. We expect that age should have a positive effect on the probability of securing a managerial post. This effect could be stronger if age is a good proxy for labour market experience, which is likely to be the case when individuals have accrued an uninterrupted employment history since leaving full-time education, without any intervening spells of unemployment or career breaks for family care.

Promotion to management positions is affected by marital status and children. Being single, married without children, having older children or being divorced are all associated with a higher probability of promotion into managerial posts (Karkoulian and Halawi, 2007). In contrast, family-oriented women executives and young mothers are limited in their opportunities for advancement and they are often face significant obstacles in their career advancement (Guillaume and Pochic, 2009). Education is expected to be positively associated with the propensity to securing a managerial position. By and large, higher level managerial posts require university degree or higher educational qualifications. It is also possible that education increases individuals' chances of promotion to managerial roles because of its potential correlation with certain relevant personality traits. Education is also found to be positively correlated with *Openness to experience* and negatively correlated with *Conscientiousness* (Vassend and Skrondal, 1995). This leaves the possibility open that individuals with higher educational qualifications are likely to be in managerial positions because they tend to score higher in terms of *Openness to experience*. We consider this possibility in our empirical analysis. Other controls include health, working hours, earnings and household income.

3.4 Results

Descriptive statistics

We precede the discussion of the multivariate logistic results with a discussion of a bivariate, descriptive analysis in order to identify the main characteristics of managers in our sample. As Table 3.1a shows, on average, men in managerial positions are 42 years old, which slightly older than the mean age of women. In terms of educational qualifications both men and women managers are equally likely to have a first (university) or a higher (graduate school) degree. Noticeably, the proportion of women managers with a teaching or a nursing qualification is slightly higher than that of men. Gender differences in marital status and among managers are particularly salient. About 75 percent of men in managerial positions are married and about 76 percent have children less than 16 years of age. In contrast, only about 57 percent of women managers are married and they are more likely, compared to men, to be single/never married (26 percent) or divorced (13 percent). The corresponding percentages for men are 18 percent and 5 percent. These numbers are suggestive of marital status and work-family considerations being important factors influencing women's decisions to pursue managerial careers.

On average, male managers are less likely than women to have health problems, they work longer hours, they earn higher wages, and they report higher annual incomes. The data also shows that male managers are more likely to be in the private sector (77 percent), with only about 9 percent working in the local government sector. In comparisons, only about 50 percent of female managers are working in the private sector, while a sizeable percentage (about 22 percent) working in local government. This distribution of male and female managers across sectors is suggestive of a

dichotomy between sector specific requirements for feminine vs. masculine leadership styles.

Table 3.1a: The characteristics of managers

	Male	Female	Total
Age	42.35	41.21	41.90
Higher degree	.09	.08	.08
First degree	.23	.23	.23
Teaching QF	.02	.05	.03
Other higher QF	.37	.28	.34
Nursing QF	.00	.03	.02
GCE A levels	.12	.10	.11
GCE O levels /other (reference category)	.09	.15	.12
Number of Children under 16	.76	.49	.65
Married	.75	.57	.68
Separated	.02	.02	.02
Divorced	.05	.13	.08
Widowed	.01	.02	.01
Never married (Reference category)	.18	.26	.21
Health-excellent	.34	.29	.32
Health-good	.51	.52	.52
Health-fair/poor/very poor	.15	.18	.16
Annual household	46217.76	41993.27	44536.96
Length (days) current job	1794.5	1664.07	1742.62
No. of hours normally worked	4.51	35.61	38.55
Usual gross pay	2685.43	186.1	2357.06
Wage	15.77	12.3	14.38
Annual income	32055.38	22286.46	28168.64
Private firm/company	.77	.51	.67
Civil Service/Central Government	.04	.06	.05
Local Government/Town hall	.09	.22	.14
NHS (National Health Service) or higher education	.04	.12	.07
Non-profit orgs	.03	.08	.05
Other (Reference category)	.01	.01	.01
Size 25 - 49	.43	.52	.46
Size 50 - 99	.12	.13	.12
Size100 - 199	.10	.10	.10
Size200 - 499	.15	.09	.13
Size500 - 999	.08	.06	.07
Size1000 or more (Reference category)	.12	.11	.11

Table 3.1b summarises managers and non-managers' mean personality traits. Largely, managers are characterised by a lower degree of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism*, and a higher degree of *Conscientiousness, Extraversion*, and *Openness to experience*, in comparison with non-managers. This remains true even when splitting the sample by gender, although the differences are sharper in the case of females. The proportion of female managers reporting high levels of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* (41 percent and 49 percent respectively) is much higher than the corresponding proportion of male managers (29 percent and 33 percent). Generally, women tend to have stronger personalities than men do.

Table 3.1b: The personality characteristics of managers

	Male	Female	Total
MANAGERS			
Agreeableness	.29	.41	.34
Conscientiousness	.49	.61	.54
Extraversion	.48	.63	.54
Neuroticism	.33	.49	.39
Openness to experience	.63	.65	.64
NON-MANAGERS			
Agreeableness	.33	.47	.41
Conscientiousness	.46	.54	.50
Extraversion	.48	.56	.52
Neuroticism	.36	.55	.46
Openness to experience	.54	.51	.52

Multivariate analysis-hypotheses testing

Table 3.2 summarises the multivariate analysis results of how personality traits influence individuals' propensity to be in a managerial position, after controlling for demographic and job characteristics. Column 1 summarises the estimated marginal effects of the logistic regression based on the full sample, whilst columns 2 and 3 present the estimated marginal effects based on separate samples of male and female employees. As the estimated marginal effects suggest, marital status is a statistically significant predictor of managerial position, with married men having a 9 percent higher chance of being managers than single/never-married men. Compared to single men, separated men are also 10 percent more likely to be managers. Interestingly, married women have a 2 percent less chance of having managerial responsibilities than single women. Having children reduces women's chance of a managerial position by almost 4 percent.

As expected, higher educational qualifications improve individuals' likelihood of becoming managers. Having a higher degree increases the probability of men and women becoming managers by 40 percent and 28 percent respectively, compared to having no qualifications. A first degree, teaching, nursing and other qualifications have a similarly positive and significant effect on the probability of occupying a managerial position. Thus, education emerges as one of the strongest predictors of individuals' decision to become managers. The results in Table 3.2 further highlight sector differences in terms of individuals' propensity to undertake managerial responsibilities. Men in the private sector have a 6 percent chance of becoming managers, whilst the corresponding percentage for females is 8 percent. Notably, women in the civil service-central government sector are much more likely to be managers compared to men, with an estimated marginal effect of 11.4 percent. The probability of men becoming

managers in the Non-profit sector is about 9 percent, while the corresponding probability for women is 12 percent.

Turning our attention to the link between personality and the choice of managerial position, the results in Table 3.2 suggest that the effect of personality traits on the probability of undertaking managerial responsibilities is consistent with the effect highlighted in the bivariate analysis above. *Conscientiousness, Extraversion* and *Openness to experience* exert a positive and statistically significant effect on the probability of managerial responsibility, for both males and females. In contrast, the *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* traits exert a negative and statistically significant effect.

Table 3.2: The effect of personality traits managerial responsibilities

	All	Males	Females
Agreeableness	-.060**	-.051**	-.050**
Conscientiousness	.020**	.011+	.040**
Extraversion	.025**	.027**	.033**
Neuroticism	-.032**	-.024**	-.016**
Openness	.048**	.037**	.048**
Age	.035**	.037**	.032**
(Age)2	-.037**	-.040**	-.036**
Number of own children	-.012**	.003	-.038**
Married	.034**	.090**	-.018*
Separated	.025+	.102**	-.010
Divorced	.014+	.030*	.012
Widowed	-.017	.050	-.036*
Higher degree	.368**	.406**	.283**
First degree	.264**	.295**	.195**
Teaching qualification	.162**	.218**	.127**
Other higher qualification	.161**	.180**	.108**
Nursing qualification	.193**	.329**	.183**
GSE A-levels	.142**	.155**	.106**

Table 3.2: The effect of personality traits managerial responsibilities (continue)

	All	Males	Females
Good health	-.034**	-.039**	-.024**
Poor health	-.069**	-.091**	-.045**
Length (days) current employment spell	-.000**	-.000**	-.000
Private firm	.063**	.060**	.081**
Civil service-central government	.041**	-.006	.114**
Local government	-.016	.002	.041+
NIIS or higher education	-.018	.007	.045+
Non-profit organisation	.074**	.090**	.120**
25-49 employees	.013*	.033**	.028**
50-49 employees	-.015*	-.021+	.009
100-199 employees	-.015+	-.020+	.003
200-499 employees	-.013+	-.013	-.006
500-999 employees	.006	.002	.021+
N	55,225	26,298	28,927

$+ p<.1; * p<.05; ** p<.01$

However, gender differences in terms of the size of the estimated marginal effects of personality on the propensity to occupy managerial positions are notable. The marginal effects of *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Openness to experience* based on the female sample are about 4.0, 3.3, and 4.8 percentage points respectively. This implies that female employees who are highly conscientious have a 4 percent higher chance of becoming managers than females who score low in the *Conscientiousness* scale. Similarly, females who score highly on the *Extraversion* and the *Openness to experience* scales are respectively 3.3 and 4.8 percent more likely to becoming managers than females who are not highly extravert or open to experiences. In comparison, for male employees, *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Openness to experience* improve their chances of occupying managerial position by only 1.1, 2.7,

and 3.7 percent. Taken together, these findings lend support for hypotheses 1a, 1b, 2a, and 2b.

In Table 3.3, we explore whether there are any significant differences in the relationship between the five-dimension personality traits and the choice of management positions across the main sectors of the economy. As the estimated marginal effects indicate, *Openness to experience* exerts a positive and statistically significant influence on the probability of managerial position for both males and females across all sectors. In contrast, consistent with *Hypothesis 3a, Extraversion* is important for both genders only in the private sector. In the central government sector, *Extraversion* improves the chances of a managerial position only for men, whilst it increases the chances of women for securing a managerial post in the local government sector. Interestingly, *Extraversion* has a negative impact on women's chances of a managerial position in the non-profit sector. *Conscientiousness* affects positively women's prospects of a managerial position in the private, central government, and local government sectors. *Neuroticism* turns out to be a negative personality trait for securing a managerial position in the private sector. Notably, male managers in the NHS and higher education sectors increase the chances of becoming managers by scoring high on the *Neuroticism* scale. These results support hypothesis II3a and lend some partial support for hypotheses II3b and II3c.

Table 3.3: Personality traits and selection to a managerial position - Sector differences

| | Private sector | | Central government | | Local government | | NHS, Higher education | | Non-profit organisations | |
	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females	Males	Females
Agreeableness	-.049**	-.057**	.017	-.068*	-.024	-.039**	-.225**	-.021	-.024	-.075**
Conscientiousness	.010	.055**	-.022	.078**	.017	.042**	.065	-.024+	.017	.043
Extraversion	.025**	.039**	.070**	.032	-.034+	.055**	-.011	-.006	.047	-.064*
Neuroticism	-.027**	-.028**	-.004	.006	-.016	.014	.098**	.009	.090+	-.048+
Openness	.030**	.036**	.133**	.060*	.047*	.048**	.138**	.085**	.239**	.093**
N	20,589	16,661	1,152	1,232	2,472	5,842	816	3,348	515	1,395

+ $p<.1$; * $p<.05$; ** $p<.01$; Other controls as in Table

3.5 Discussion and implications

This study explored the relationship between the big-five personality traits and the propensity of employees to become managers, paying particular attention to identifying potential gender and sector differences moderating this relationship. Based on British longitudinal data, we confirm that such a relationship is more complex than previously thought in that the way personality influences the choice of managerial careers is contingent upon specific context and circumstances. Using large-scale data and controlling for a rich set of demographic characteristics, our findings confirm the gender differences are indeed prevalent in influencing how personality traits affect individuals' decision to become managers. Among the demographic controls, marital status and the presence of children emerge as strong predictors of the gender leadership/management gap, highlighting the importance of work-life balance considerations influencing the decision to pursue managerial careers. In general, educational qualifications are one of requirements for being promoted to a managerial position. Although the chance of being managers regarding education is more likely to be higher for men than women, both genders have the chance in the same direction which refers to the higher education they have, the more chance they occupy in managerial positions. On the other hand, when considering the marital status and having children, the chance for being a manager goes in a different direction for men and women. Our findings are the same as Guillaume and Pochic's (2009) study; family-oriented women and young mothers are less likely to be in executive and high-level positions. Women in such positions are most likely to be single with no children. The possible explanation of lower chance for women with marital status and having children for being promoted to higher positions associates with working time arrangements. Fietze, Holst and Tobsch (2011) mention that women are willing to

112

work part time due to being family-oriented and having children. Moreover, they lack a continuous working history based on child-caring and maternity leave which leads to having less work experience. Therefore, the working time arrangement may be the one of obstacles for women to achieve managerial positions.

Sector differences are also evident, with a greater incidence of females in managerial positions in the local government and the NHS/Higher education sectors compared to men, whilst managerial roles in the private sector are mostly male dominated. Regarding the personality dimensions considered, the evidence shows that women in managerial vs. non-managerial positions are highly affected compared with men in these positions. This asserts that personality traits influence women's opportunities in managerial positions. In other words, women who need to achieve in higher positions confront the pressure of adapting in their personality traits.

By and large, we find that personality traits are influential antecedents of managerial jobs. As our findings suggest, positive personality traits increase the propensity to secure a managerial position by anything between 3 and 13 percent, depending on gender and sector. By comparing managerial positions across gender lines, we find that female managers are more likely than males to score highly in all dimensions of personality traits. Alternatively, the perspective of personality traits relates to the forming of two high-order factors by abstracting out of the common-factors of the Big Five. McIntyre (2010) proposes that the high-order factors of personality are the optimal trait patterns from social and evolutionary aspects. These refer to the Alpha factor (the loading of *Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism* dimensions related to socialisation) and the Beta factor (the loading of *Extraversion and Openness to experience dimensions* related to personal growth and flexibility) (Digman, 1997). The Alpha factor indicates the parent-child relations and

113

the shared familial environment as a socialisation factor. Likewise, the enlargement of self with the opening to all experiences or the actualisation of self refers to the Beta factor. Moreover, Digman (1997) asserts that the high-level factors reflect the broad theoretical constructs which are the robustness of correlation and descriptive theoretical systems of personality. In the same vein, De Young, Peterson and Higgins (2002) mention a similar two-factor structure as the high-order factors of the Big Five namely Stability and Plasticity related to the correlations with conformity. The Stability factor (i.e. *Agreeableness, Conscientiousness and Neuroticism*) reflects the tendency of an individual to maintain emotional, social and motivational domains, whilst both an individual's behaviour and cognition (e.g. ability and engaging new experiences) are related to the Plasticity (i.e. *Extraversion and Openness to experience*). Thus, the two high-order factors link between the Big Five model and traditional and contemporary theories of personality (Digman, 1997).

Similarly, our findings in terms of gender differences related to the high-order factor of personality support that *Extraversion* and *Openness to experience* as the Beta factor (the Plasticity) exert a quantitatively stronger impact on the propensity of female employees to become managers than that of male employees. This could be partially attributed to the need for females to exhibit stronger personality characteristics in order to overcome the barriers in the workplace posed by gender discrimination (Costa, Terracciano, and McCrae, 2001). The gender role theory offers further support for this argument, by positing that personality traits have more influence on females than males particularly in being promoted to a higher position (Eagly and Karau, 1991). It implies that the Beta factor (the Plasticity) seems to play a particularly important role in the inhibition of advancing into higher-level positions for females rather than for males.

As Costa, Terracciano and McCrae (2001) point out, females have a high
degree of *Conscientiousness, Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* which refers to the high-
order of the Alpha factor (the Stability) as the socialisation factor. It is confirmed by
the descriptive analysis in this study. Interestingly, a high degree of *Conscientiousness*
is more highly associated with the chance of females being in leadership positions. This
means females are required to be more hardworking, preserving and efficient than
males to possess managerial positions. However, *Agreeableness and Neuroticism* exert
generally a significant negative effect on the probability of possessing a managerial
role. This suggests that the gender gap for women's career advancement may be mainly
caused by both dimensions of personality traits. Therefore, the possibility of apparent
chances for females to reach managerial positions can be increased through having less
of a degree of *Agreeableness and Neuroticism.*

Our study contributes to the existing literature by highlighting the complex
interaction between gender, industrial sector, personality, and managerial roles.
Females who score highly on *Agreeableness* are 5.7 percent less likely to be managers
in the private sectors, 7 percent less likely in central government, 4 percent in local
government, and almost 7.5 percent less likely in non-profit sectors. *Agreeableness*
turns out not to be an important personality traits for men with the exception of the NIIS
and high education sectors where *Agreeableness* reduces the probability of managerial
posts about 23 percent. *Neuroticism* reduces the probability of a managerial position in
the private sector by 3 percent for both men and women, but interestingly it increases
the probability of being a manager for men in the NIIS/Higher education. Moreover,
the results suggest that the feminine oriented organisational sectors (e.g. service sectors)
are likely to be dominated by female managers. This is also true for sectors where
intrinsic motivation and pro-social behaviours are more prevalent, including the public
sector, which is consistent with the predictions of congruent role theory predicting that

feminine leadership styles are more effective in feminine organisational sectors

(Johnson et al., 2008). In masculine-oriented organisational sectors, female managers

score higher than men in the positive personality traits scale (*Conscientiousness*,

Extraversion, and *Openness*), which raises the question of whether strong personalities

are compensating for the various obstacles that women face in career advancement

towards higher-level managerial roles. To the extent that personality is a productive

characteristic, such differences in the required level of desirable personality traits

between men and women raise the question whether this is another manifestation of

workplace prejudice or discrimination.

A practical implication of these findings is that individuals who aspire to

managerial positions need to have a greater self-awareness of their personality traits,

which although tend to be inherited and are stable overtime, they can still be developed

by appropriate training and experiences (Costa and McCrae, 1988; Digman, 1989). As

the findings suggest, female employees need to be aware of the negative impact of

Agreeableness and *Neuroticism* on the chances of becoming managers. Likewise, male

employees could further develop their leadership skills and behaviour by improving the

Openness to experience dimension of their personality. To the extent that masculine

rather than feminine leadership styles are more suitable in certain sectors and

organisations than in others, employees who aspire to leadership roles need to adapt

their leadership styles and behaviours accordingly. Interestingly, *Conscientiousness*

emerges as one of the main personality trait responsible for the increasing trend in the

proportion for female managers across organisational sectors, suggesting perhaps that

this is a personality trait that male managers could further develop. By and large, the

fact that personality explains a significant part of individuals' propensity to be in a

managerial/leadership role provides further credence to existing recruiting strategies

aiming at matching individuals with specific personality traits to specific leadership roles.

A limitation of the study is that it is based on the assumption of personality traits remaining stable throughout the sampling period. Although there is some theoretical and empirical support for this assumption in the existing literature, suggesting that the FFM of personality structure is inheritable and stable over time or that it only changes very little between the ages of 20 and 45, there is also evidence that personality could change. We aim to dispel this criticism in future work by utilising more detailed personality data, measured at different points in time.

Chapter 4

Does gender diversity moderate the relationship between leadership style and employee job-related well-being?

4.1 Introduction

In recent years, the proportion of women in both managerial and non-managerial positions has increased. Gender diversity plays an important role in the interaction between leaders and employees (Giuliano, Leonard and Levine, 2006). As Drucker (2003) mentions, the nature of interaction between leaders and employees can determine employee's outcomes in terms of job satisfaction and well-being. Various studies examine the leader roles and employee outcomes by focusing on several dimensions of employees' perceptions at work. In particular, there is a sizable literature that investigates the relationship of leadership behaviour with job satisfaction and well-being. For instance, previous studies demonstrate that managerial roles, specifically participative management and decision-making, are associated with employee's mental health and job satisfaction (e.g. Judge, Piccolo and Ilies, 2004; Miller and Monge, 1986; Spreitzer, Kizilos and Nason, 1997).

However, the effect of gender role, particularly gender diversity of managers, on the relationship between leadership and employee outcomes in terms of job satisfaction and well-being at organisational level has received little attention in the previous studies. Based on the increasing number of female leaders and the diversity of workforce, the leader roles are more emphasised and need to be changed. Changing

management style will support the demands of organisations today, which tend to

reduce hierarchy and to have more flexibility in organisational management. In fact,

women managers are still a minority (Hansen, 2009; Hoyt et al., 2009, 2010). This

implies that gender diversity of managers may have been impacted by gender

discrimination in the workplace.

Previous empirical studies investigate the relationship between leadership style

and employment outcomes by using direct approaches (i.e. self-reported, peers and

followers-reported data), and they generally produce rather mixed results. Elsesser and

Lever (2011) mention that the design of gender-leadership studies lead to more gender

stereotypes, particularly in laboratory and assessment studies rather than organisational

studies. However, the results are not immediately reflected in the day-to-day running of

actual organisations. Organisations are indeed influenced by stereotype answering

when employees rate their leaders directly. Specifically, gender-leadership roles are

still subject to negative perception of congruence toward female leaders (Eagly and

Karau, 2002). To avoid the problem of stereotype answering, Melero (2004) suggests

using the indirect approach to examine leadership styles i.e. decoding management

policies to define leadership style at the organisational aspect. This indirect approach

not only eliminates the stereotype answering problems, but also indicates the role of

management policies in terms of controlling the leadership style at the organisational

level. The study of the relationship of leadership-employee rarely employs the indirect

approach to define leadership style. It may be another alternative to investigating

leadership style in the organisation-level. Likewise, there are different definition of

'leaders vs. managers' and 'leadership vs. managing'; however, Yukl (2010) mentions

that most studies do not debate about the ideal of these definitions because they focus

on the process which is not biased by definitions (e.g. Bass, 1990; Hickman, 1990;

Kotter, 1999). Additionally, both the capacities of managers and leaders are always

interdependent (Burke and Day, 1986). Therefore, we use the terms of leaders and managers interchangeably throughout the chapter.

The analysis in this chapter opens a new avenue for exploring whether the interaction between gender diversity of managers and leadership style at the organisational level reflects on any employee's job satisfaction and well-being. In particular, we emphasise in terms of the proportion of female managers as the gender diversity of managers and the feminine leadership style considering the influence of the congruence of gender leadership role. Thus, this study contributes to the literature in two points, which the previous studies have not done before. Firstly, two components of feminine leadership style i.e. the democratic and interpersonal components are defined from managerial policies as an indirect approach. Additionally, a second contribution is to compare the effect of the two components of feminine leadership style on employee outcomes i.e. job satisfaction and well-being, as moderated by the proportion of female managers in particular, a proxy for manager gender diversity. Thus, this study addresses three research questions as follows:

(i) Is the relationship between both components of feminine leadership style (i.e. the democratic and the interpersonal leadership components) at organisational level and employee job satisfaction and well-being empirically distinct?

(ii) What is the effective relationship between both components of leadership style and employee outcomes when the gender diversity of managers is used as a moderator?

(iii) Which component of leadership style (i.e. the democratic component vs. the interpersonal component) is more important in predicting employee outcomes (i.e. job satisfaction vs. well-being) when gender diversity of managers is employed as a moderator concerning organisational gender diversity?

To answer these questions, the study uses the theoretical foundation in which the original models of leadership style have the potential to provide guidance about which component of leadership is important to achieve employee outcomes. However, often there is little room to explain the relationship of each component of leadership and employee outcomes. This is especially the case when some of these outcomes are less relevant when the moderating impact of managerial gender diversity is explained by workplace discrimination. The empirical analysis in this chapter is based on data from the UK Workplace Employment Relations Survey 2004 (WERS2004), which is a large cross-sectional dataset matching manager and employee questionnaires in a large number of UK establishments.

4.2 Background and hypotheses building

4.2.1 The relationship of leadership and employee job satisfaction related to well-being

In this section, we explore the theoretical explanations of why leadership style has a direct effect on employee job satisfaction related well-being. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) propose that the role of effective leaders is to motivate their employees to perform at a high level as well as to maintain a high degree of employee job satisfaction. Moreover, House (1981) confirms that a leader dramatically influences the way employees' feel about their work and themselves. Indeed, the characterising of the leader-employee relationship refers to the level of leadership support and quality of communication, which reflect on employee job satisfaction and well-being. In the same vein, Bradbury and Lichtenstein (2000) and Liu, Siu and Shi (2010) relate social well-being to the interpersonal and social interaction at workplace. Likewise, Eby et al.

121

(1999) assert that individuals' perception of empowerment and fair-treatment affects reactions toward their work and decreases turnover and absenteeism rates. In line with the relationship of leadership-employee outcomes in terms of job satisfaction and well-being, it not only directly supports the organisational performance but also involves the effects of mental (e.g. frustration, depression, anxiety) and physical (e.g. high blood and cardiovascular) problems on employees (Danna and Griffin, 1999; Sui, Lu and Spector, 2007). Consequently, the relationship of leadership and employee's outcomes (i.e. job satisfaction and well-being) reflects on the level of employee's absenteeism and turnover (Haile, 2012; Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012; Tett and Meyer, 1993). Thus, one of the leading challenges in management studies is to increase employee job satisfaction and well-being, which leads to an improvement in the organisation's performance and the employee's work-life.

Focusing on job satisfaction and well-being is essential at work due to the impact of stress at work, which extends to general health and work-family conflicts (Wood and Menezes, 2011). Warr (1990) argues that work-related satisfaction and well-being is associated with individuals' demographics and occupational attributes by measuring the job anxiety-contentment and job depression-enthusiasm. Particularly, he asserts that job depression-enthusiasm could be predicted by employee skills and tasks. Employee skills and specific tasks that employees perform, dictated by job design, are associated with job satisfaction, whilst heavy workloads and uncertainty cause anxiety and have a negative impact on employee well-being. Likewise, Haile (2012) mentions that there are multidimensional aspects of an employee's job satisfaction related to well-being in which job satisfaction is a powerful predictor of employee turnover and absenteeism. Naturally, in this case, job satisfaction may reflect directly to organisation's performance.

Various studies indicate that leadership style is one facet that is associated with job satisfaction and well-being; however, the findings of studies are also mixed. For example, Judge, Piccolo and Ilies (2004) demonstrate that leadership behaviour in terms of consideration and initiating structure, displays a positive reciprocal relations with the follower's job satisfaction. In contrast, Pool (1997) proposes that the leadership style within consideration of behaviour has a significantly positive effect on job satisfaction whilst the initiating structure of leadership style has a negative effect. Likewise, Hampton, Dubinsky and Skinner (1986) could not find a relationship between leadership behaviour and employee job satisfaction. However, leadership with a more controlling and less supportive style as well as having a lack of clarifying responsibilities associates with a lower level of employee well-being (e.g. Sosilk and Godshalk, 2000). A supportive relationship of leader-employee has a positive effect on employee outcomes (e.g. Cohen and Wills, 1985).

Several empirical studies have examined the relationship of leadership style with employee outcomes in which there is more concern in terms of the components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour than gender-leadership role. Additionally, these relationships relate to different dimensions of employee outcomes in terms of an individual form of job satisfaction or well-being. Therefore, the employee outcomes in this chapter focus on the employee job satisfaction related to well-being, which indicates both the physical and mental aspects of employees about how they view their job (Haile, 2012). Moreover, the present study predicts whether the leadership style-related the role of gender associates with employee's job satisfaction and well-being (job anxiety-contentment).

Furthermore, most studies examine leadership behaviours by analysing individual data i.e. provided by their bosses, subordinates, peers or the individuals

themselves, which may be impacted by gender stereotypes within their attitudes (Haile, 2012). To eliminate the problems of stereotype answering, Melero (2004) demonstrates that analysing management policies among firms is another alternative as an indirect approach to investigate leadership styles. He claims that this approach is less problematic in gender stereotype answering than at the individual level. Therefore, the present study defines leadership style by extracting management policies at actual organisations as a proxy of leadership style to eliminate gender stereotype answering. Beside this, we aim to explore the potential managerial policies related to leadership style for predicting whether leadership style at organisational level influences employee outcomes. Based on the theoretical arguments and the research gap presented above, the next two sections will explain the impact of the gender-leadership role concerning gender discrimination on both of the two components of leadership style (i.e. the relations and decision-making) and the moderating effects of managers' gender diversity.

4.2.2 The gender-leadership style and employee job satisfaction related to well-being

The behaviours exhibited in a leadership style attract a strong continuing interest within a context of interaction between leaders and followers (Northouse, 2010). There is a variety of paradigms of leadership style to predict organisational performance and effectiveness. Two widely used paradigms include the considerate-people oriented and an initiating structure-task oriented model (Bass, 1991; Judge and Piccolo, 2004), and transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership model (Bass and Avolio,1994; Van Eeden, Cilliers and Van Deventer, 2008). Likewise, Eagly and Johnson (1990) demonstrate their meta-analysis on gender-role toward leadership

behaviour and conclude that there are two major orientations, which are often labelled in gender research as feminine and masculine styles, expressive and instrumental styles, and communal and agential styles.

The gender-leadership styles in terms of feminine and masculine leadership have different effects on employee outcomes based on the component of leadership e.g. the relations component (i.e. interpersonal-oriented vs. task-oriented) and decision-making components (i.e. democratic vs. autocratic). The definitions of interpersonal-relations leadership style, which is concerned with the well-being and satisfaction of subordinates, and the task-based leadership style, which mainly involves achieving the task, are likely related to gender roles (Eagly and Johnson, 1990). Similarly, Korte and Wynne (1996) mention that in terms of the relations component of leadership, when interpersonal interaction between managers and employees is reduced, it results in the negative job satisfaction. This leads to the increase of employee's turnover. Furthermore, Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) propose that both democratic (participative) and autocratic (directive) styles are narrow aspects of leadership behaviour in terms of the degree of the subordinates' participation in decision-making and are relevant to gender roles. Besides this, one component of communal norms, often linked to female leadership roles, is associated with democratic (participative) style. On the other hand, the autocratic (directive) style highly relates to the dominant and controlling male role of agentic behaviour (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001). Therefore, based on previous studies in gender-leadership styles, the feminine leadership style refers to expressive, communal, interpersonal-oriented, democratic, participative, and transformational leadership styles. In contrast, instrumental, agentic, task-oriented, autocratic, directive, and transactional leadership style characterise in large part the masculine leadership style (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Eagly

and Johnson, 1990; Gardiner and Tiggemann, 1999; Klenke, 1996; Van Engen, Van der Leeden and Willemsen, 2001).

Because of the inconsistent results of gender-leadership studies as the aforementioned pervious sector, Johnson et al. (2008) propose that it is necessary to emphasise the framework of gender-leadership research. Nevertheless, Cuadrado et al. (2012) mention that the gender of managers matters in terms of democratic and autocratic leadership styles within all types of studies. Additionally, Moskowitz, Suh and Desaulniers (1994) show that agentic behaviour is driven by managers' relative status whilst communal behaviour is influenced by the gender of participants. They point out that regardless of participants' status, women behave more communally than men do particularly when they interact with other women. Donaldson-Feilder, Munir and Lewis (2013) mention that the leadership style is one of the causes of employee's stress at work and affective well-being as the leaders influence the psychological perspective of employees at the workplace. This implies that the relationship between the role of gender and the interpersonal leadership style, which is more concerned with the mental and emotional state of employees, may be more effective in promoting employee job satisfaction and well-being than the democratic leadership style.

According to the leader traits paradigm related to leadership effectiveness, Yukl (2013) mentions that although leadership traits specifically gender is not in particular relevant for predicting the leadership effectiveness in managerial positions, gender differences turn to be an important factor when the tasks focus on specific skills. Similarly, Eagly, Karau and Makhijani (1995) propose in their meta-analysis of gender and effectiveness that there are no overall gender differences in leadership effectiveness. However, in terms of requiring gender stereotypical differences, female managers are more effective than male managers when the positions require strong

interpersonal skills whilst males in managerial positions are more effective in the positions that focus on task skills. Thus, female leaders are more likely effective in the alignment of feminine contexts. It might be possible that employees may increase in more favour of female leaders. In this chapter, however, the effectiveness is considered in terms of an objective leadership criteria i.e. employee job satisfaction and well-being which relate to interpersonal attributes. Whilst the interpersonal attributes and task competence is defined by gender role which refers to the congruent gender-leadership role theory. From this logic, female leaders are more associated with communication and support their employees. Thus, when female leaders occupy a leadership role in line with feminine attributes, this may reflect a higher level of employee job satisfaction and well-being than males.

4.2.3 Gender diversity as a moderator in leadership-employee relationship

In recent years, female labour force participation has increased significantly; for example, in Britain women have increased in the workforce from 37.1% to 45.8% during the period 1971-2005 (ONS, 2006). Melero (2004) refers to the National Management Salary Survey in the United Kingdom that the increasing percentage of women in managerial positions increased about from 15% to 30% during the period of the early 1980's to 2003. This implies that gender diversity in the workplace is likely to continue to increase. Interestingly, in terms of the leader group, women in all management positions show efficacy in organisation about at 50.3%; however, their representations have held merely 5.2% of top earners, 14.7% of the board members, 7.9% of the highest titles, and less than 2% of the CEOs (Hoyt, Simon and Reid, 2009). Summerfield and Babb (2003) mention demographics in the United Kingdom in the spring of 2002 that only 9% of women

employees were in managerial positions, whilst men leaders were up to18% of

employees in managerial positions. Moreover, Office for National Statistics (2013)

reveals from demographics in October to December of 2012 that the percentage of

women managers in the United Kingdom was slightly higher than the European

Union; however, only 34.8 % of women employees were in managerial positions.

This implies that although the representation of women in high managerial positions

is increasing, women leaders still receive unequal treatment in organisations, which

is referred to as the emergent discrimination (Ellemers et al., 2012). McEldowney,

Bobrowski, and Gramberg (2009) point out that all the factors are subparts of

discrimination, which are divided into two categories: antecedent (e.g. prejudice,

biasness, stereotyping) and consequences (e.g. non-acceptance, disrespect, social

issues). They propose that male domination is not directly related to discrimination

but it is a major consequence to cause in females concerning their leadership roles a

sense of insecurity and uncertainty in their position. Also, it induces female's low

self-esteem and to be less respected by others. Therefore, female leaders have to

confront a double bind of discrimination (i.e. antecedences and consequence), as

highlighted by the congruent role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Johnson et al.,

2008).

According to antecedent discrimination in terms of the congruent gender-leader

role theory, people develop expectations on their beliefs about the appropriate leader,

which arises from normative expectations in being a good leader, usually associated

with the characteristics of the male leaders (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001;

Elsesser and Lever, 2011; Schein, 1975). Thus, individuals forming these expectations

are likely to have a negative attitude towards females in promoting managerial

positions. Moreover, Ellemers et al. (2012) and Heilman (2001) claim that people with

these expectations are seeking out information of what they want to see. Specifically, in terms of leadership beliefs, people intend to find effective leaders who behave in line with gender expectations. Likewise, Eagly and Karau (2002) propose that leaders who act differently from their expected gender role, particularly female leaders tend to be devalued. Therefore, based on the consequent discrimination in terms of congruent gender-leadership role theory, people react negatively to female leaders who adopt an autocratic and directive attributes related to the masculine style (Eagly, Makhijani, and Klonsky, 1992; Heilman and Okimoto, 2007; Lyness and Heilman, 2006).

The congruent role theory focuses on female managers in which discrimination could have an adverse effect on employee outcomes in that subordinates are reluctant to have women leaders, specifically within masculine dominated organisations. Additionally, employees' expectation is that the leadership qualities of women are likely lacking more than those of men. Interestingly, Powell (1999) demonstrates that when male leaders behave the same way as females, the evaluations of both leaders are different. Although male managers act with an incongruent leadership behaviour i.e. feminine leadership style, they will be evaluated more positively than their female counterparts. Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt (2001) assert that with female leaders the impact of leadership is considered more than with male leaders because males have long occupied leadership roles. As a result, individuals have become familiar with male leaders and have similar beliefs concerning men being leaders whilst they have different beliefs about women in leadership positions. Therefore, gender-leadership roles, when leaders and their behaviour have gender-norm requirements, females in managerial positions are more concerned based on the congruent role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Johnson et al., 2008). In contrast, male managers and their behaviour are not as expected in the gender role, which refers to gender-incongruent role (Powell, 1999).

Leonard and Levine (2006) argue that diverse groups make communication more difficult. However, Haile (2012) asserts that an increasing proportion of women make the workforce more heterogeneous allowing for more flexibility in management and organisation development in line with demographic changes, tight labour market conditions and regulatory measures. Specifically, in terms of the leadership-employee role, Giuliano, Leonard, and Levine (2006) demonstrate that demographic differences of employer-employee have statistically significant effects on employment outcomes. There are various empirical studies investigating gender diversity in the workplace. For instance on employee satisfaction (Peccei and Lee, 2005; Fields and Blum, 1997; Haile, 2012), on turnover and promotion (Giuliano, Levine and Leonard, 2006; Leonard and Levine, 2006) and on payment (Pudney and Shields, 2000). However, there is no linkage between the influence of gender diversity of managers to the relationship between leadership style and employee job related to well-being in previous studies. As the aforementioned arguments of gender differences and discrimination in social roles, these are taken more into account the more gender diversity there is and the less widespread discrimination at work. This may support the advent of increasing female managers toward achieving better employee outcomes.

As noted above, the social role related to gender discrimination declines within the congruent gender-leadership roles; therefore, female leaders are rated to being more in favour in their feminine leadership style (Eagly and Karau, 2002). Similarly, Mohr and Wolfram (2008) propose that female leaders who are in line with the expectation of gender stereotypes could be rewarded. Consequently, employee outcomes i.e. job satisfaction and well-being trend to increase. In other words, the effect of gender congruent roles (e.g. female leaders) moderates the leadership style (e.g. feminine leadership style) which reflects on the magnitude of employee outcomes (e.g. employee job satisfaction and well-being).

However, in terms of comparing competency of gender-leadership congruent roles on employee job satisfaction vs. employee well-being, it remains a relatively untouched area. Although both employee outcomes which are an object of leadership effectiveness, are more likely associated with the relation-oriented attribute as the theme of feminine style, there are some differences. Warr (1990) found that employees with high-level jobs have a positive association with job satisfaction (depression-enthusiasm) but have negatively related to well-being (anxiety-contentment). Based on the defining of employee job satisfaction vs. well-being, the depression-enthusiasm (job satisfaction) can be predicted by variables in terms of skill use and task variety, whilst the anxiety-contentment (well-being) is indicated from a function of workload and uncertainty (Warr, 1990). Presumably, for linking the concept of employee job satisfaction vs. well-being to gender-leadership congruent role, employee job satisfaction is more likely to involve task-oriented leadership behaviour. Likewise, employee well-being which requires more communication and support is likely valued in relation-oriented leadership behaviour. Thus, employee well-being more than employee job satisfaction may be considered in the feminine leadership style. More specifically, these findings point to the need for further research to examine that the increasing proportion of female mangers may affect the magnitude of employees perceived their leaders which reflect on their outcomes at organisational level. Therefore, the interaction between increasing proportion of female leaders and feminine leadership style may facilitate a higher magnitude of effect on employee well-being than job satisfaction.

4.2.4 The influence of organisational gender diversity in leadership-employee relationship

Gender inequality in the workplace facilitates the elucidation of discrimination against women in advancing their careers by undertaking leadership and managerial roles. Empirical studies of leadership style depict primarily gender stereotypical differences in masculine and feminine terms among leaders at work (e.g. Eagly and Johnson, 1990; Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Powell, Butterfield and Parent, 2002). However, the results have been different from study to study (e.g. De Hoogh, Den Hartog and Koopman, 2005; Judge and Bono, 2000; Van Eeden, Cilliers and Van Deventer, 2008) because of the inconsistent context and the different facets they focus on. Such facets include, among others, social values, the culture of organisations, the nature of the task, and the characteristics of the followers. For instance, previous studies based on different methodologies (i.e. laboratory, assessment, and organisational studies), uncover salient differences in the relationship between gender and leadership style. In some empirical studies of actual managers, there is no gender difference in leadership role such as the rating of leadership effectiveness (Eagly, Karau and Makhijani, 1995), satisfaction with manager and persuasiveness and supportiveness of managers (Byron, 2007). However, the devaluation of female leaders is stronger when the organisations are dominated by male roles and the evaluators are males than in other situations. For example, the study of Eagly, Karau, and Makhijani (1995) support that male leaders have more effectiveness in the military than their female counterparts. Consequently, organisational culture within different level of employees' gender diversity may be biased in the treatment on gender in managerial positions, which often reflects on employee outcomes. In other words, the congruent gender-leadership role not only focuses on gender of leaders and their management style, but also considers the influence of gender diversity of organisations. More specifically, female managers are

more concerned with masculine-oriented organisations (e.g. military organisation) which are related to the masculine leadership style.

Along with the theories to predict leadership effectiveness in terms of gender differences, there is a social role theory (Eagly, 1987) about employees' expectation their leader within organisation culturally defined gender roles. In other words, society influences individuals to favour leaders' gender role with consistent behaviour (Eagly, Karau and Makhijani (1995). This becomes a subject of gender discrimination for female leaders; males are more likely than females to be in quality managerial positions (Eagly and Karau, 2002). This may reflect on employee outcomes such as work performance and leader satisfaction. Interestingly, Gardiner and Tiggemann (1999) found that there are no leader gender differences in the interpersonal-oriented attribute within masculine dominance but female leaders have a higher level of interpersonal-oriented attribute than males within feminine dominance. Regarding leadership effectiveness, however, female leaders are less effective when there are an increasing number of male employees (Eagly, Makhijani and Klonsky, 1992). To integrate social roles and the gender-leadership congruent role theory, the roles conflict issue related to gender discrimination may be minimized if the gender roles are associated with certain condition such as type of organisations (e.g. military and nursing) and type of gender dominance in organisations (i.e. feminine and masculine dominances). Thus, we assume that the congruent gender-leader role is of greater importance in feminine dominance at workplaces rather than other situations of organisational gender diversity.

The present study needs to further investigate whether increasing female leaders as leader gender diversity moderates the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being by considering organisational gender diversity. Based on a display of social role-congruent behaviour, employees are more

inclined to perceive in terms of the appropriate leaders' gender roles related to their behaviours (Avolio et al., 2009). Then employees' perceptions of their leader have an effect on employee outcomes (e.g. employee job satisfaction and well-being). Therefore, based on matching gender-leadership roles, the increasing proportion of female leaders interacted with feminine leadership style are likely to have more employee perceptions toward employee job satisfaction and well-being. More specifically, the employee perceptions may relate to a higher positive magnitude effect of employee outcomes within feminine dominance than other organisational circumstances. In contrast, the negative effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being may exist when there is a mismatch between gender-leadership roles and the workplace particularly within masculine dominance.

By and large, previous studies have concentrated largely on the direct relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes e.g. employee job satisfaction and well-being. Specifically, the vast majority of previous empirical studies have investigated these relationships in terms of the components of transformational and transactional leadership behaviour rather than the gender-leadership role. Besides this, as mentioned earlier, the results are inconsistent about these relationships due to the overlapping full range of leadership behaviours. Additionally, the influence of managers' gender diversity as a moderator on the gender-leadership roles by concerning organisational gender diversity has not been taken into account. There appears to be a gap in the investigating. According to the gender-leadership congruent role concerning social gender roles, this study focuses on comparing two gender components of feminine leadership style in terms of the democratic and interpersonal leadership at the organisational level and employee job satisfaction and well-being.

For the first hypothesis, this study revisits a comprehensive review of effective leadership roles literature regarding the gender-leadership congruent role, by comparing the influence of interpersonal vs. democratic leadership styles on employee outcomes. The assumption in line with the congruent gender-leadership roles theory is that the feminine leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic dimensions) is more likely associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being. Although both dimensions of feminine leadership style are similar in terms of employer-employee relation, the democratic leadership seems to have a more narrow perspective and slightly focuses on the task-oriented attribute in terms of employee participative decision-making. Likewise, the interpersonal dimension of leadership style, which is more concerned with interaction and supporting employees, may be more associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being than democratic leadership. Additionally, when comparing the effective gender-leadership roles in promoting employee job satisfaction vs. well-being, employee job satisfaction, which is likely more concerned about tasks and skills, slightly skews in task-oriented attributes. Likewise, employee well-being which involves communication is more related to relation-oriented attributes. Based on this study's investigating the effective of gender-leadership congruent role in perspective organisational level, the proportion of female managers as a proxy of feminine leader diversity at organisational level may be congruently associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being. Therefore, the literature review leads to the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: The feminine leadership style in terms of interpersonal and democratic components at the organisational level is directly positive associated with the employee's job satisfaction and well-being.

Hypothesis 1b: *The magnitude effect of the interpersonal leadership style at the organisational level has a higher positive association with the employee job satisfaction and well-being than the democratic leadership style.*

Hypothesis 1c: *The proportion of female managers directly positively affects the employee's job satisfaction and well-being.*

The second hypothesis addresses comparing the two dimensions of feminine leadership style within different magnitude effects on employee job satisfaction and well-being. In particular, these relationships have a specific focus on the moderating leader gender diversity. The assumption related to congruent gender-leadership roles theory is the association of female leaders and feminine leadership style. Specifically, the reflecting of employee outcomes has a different magnitude depending on the context of the outcomes (i.e. job satisfaction vs. well-being) and whether they are more related to feminine leadership style. Indeed, the proportion of female managers, as a proxy of managerial gender diversity in this chapter, tends to affect positively employee well-being than just job satisfaction within feminine leadership style. Thus,

Hypothesis 2a: *The proportion of female managers moderates interpersonal leadership style at the organisational level that has a stronger positive effect on employee well-being than employee job satisfaction.*

Hypothesis 2b: *The proportion of female managers moderates democratic leadership style at the organisational level that has a lower positive effect on employee well-being than employee job satisfaction.*

The third hypothesis considers the influence of organisational gender diversity on the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes. The assumption related to the social roles within congruent gender-leadership roles theory is that the more employees' perceptions in their gender-leadership roles, the more reflecting on their outcomes. The potential effect of leadership style on employee outcomes is not only related to the congruent gender-leadership role but also gender-dominated in the organisation; particularly feminine-dominated organisations may be higher positively associated with feminine leadership style which reflects on employee outcomes i.e. job satisfaction and well-being. More specifically, when employing the proportion of female managers as a moderator into this relationship, the magnitude effect of employee outcomes may be highly positive in feminine dominance but has a negative effect on masculine dominance. Thus, the study predicts the following hypotheses:

Hypothesis 3a: The direct effect of the proportion of female managers on the interpersonal and democratic leadership styles at the organisational level has a stronger association with employee job satisfaction and well-being in feminine dominance than in masculine dominance and heterogeneity within the organisational sector.

Hypothesis 3b: The proportion of female managers moderates interpersonal and democratic leadership styles at the organisational level, which has a positive effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being in feminine dominance and a negative effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being in masculine dominance.

The relationship of leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being considering leader gender diversity and gender-dominated in organisation is shown in Figure 4.1.

Figure 4.1: The relation of leadership style and employee job related well-being

The quintessence of leadership in terms of employee outcomes

Gender diversity:
The proportion of female managers

Organisational policies

Extract

Gender leadership style:

*Decision-making component: Democratic leadership style

*Relations component: Interpersonal leadership

H_2&H_3

H_1

Employee outcomes:
Job-related well-being in different sectors

Employee Job satisfaction

Employee well-being
(Anxiety-contentment)

4.3 Data and methods

The British 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS 2004) is employed in this chapter in order to investigate the influence of gender diversity on the relationship of leadership style-employee job related well-being. The WERS 2004, funded by the UK's Department of Trade and Industry, Economic and Social Research Council, Policy Studies Institute and Advisory, Conciliation and Arbitration Service, provides a large number of the nationally representative linking of employer-employee data from various workplaces across Britain (Kersley et al., 2006). The WERS 2004 Cross-section conducts fieldwork outcomes, which are linked from surveys of managers, employee representatives, employees, and financial performance to integrate the view of employment relations. Moreover, the WERS 2004 survey provides information on managers and employee representatives in 2,295 workplaces and has 22,451 employees.[2] This study also employs both management and employee survey data, which have complete information on all variables of interest in this chapter. Particularly, there is a great deal of variability in the management policies to investigate leadership style at organisation-level. However, the estimation of the sample is only respondents with complete the reported leadership style, employee job satisfaction and well-being, and a range of control variables which are in the dataset of 1,723 workplaces and 15,061 employees.

---

[2] More information on the WERS2004 is available at
http://www.wers2004.info/wers2004/crosssection.php.

4.3.1 Definition of variables

Outcomes variables

Employee's job satisfaction: The sources of WERS2004 are composed of employees' satisfaction in their job which have seven-item variables i.e. employees are satisfied with (1) the sense of achievement they get from their work, (2) the scope for using their own initiative, (3) the amount of influence they have over their job, (4) the training they receive, (5) the amount of pay they receive, (6) their job security, and (7) the work itself. Employees were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (very dissatisfied) to 5 (very satisfied) (see also Appendix Table 4.1). According to the regression analysis, an individual scale score is combined on the basis of mean score of each item of job satisfaction to form the employee overall job satisfaction construct (Schyns, Van Veldhoven and Wood, 2009). The seven-item variables of employee job satisfaction are identified a single total score of variable which the Cronbach's alpha is 0.829.

Employee well-being: Another source comes from monitoring employee's anxiety-contentment which consists of six-item variables i.e. how they felt in their job over the past few weeks (1) tense, (2) calm, (3) relaxed, (4) worried, (5) uneasy, and (6) content. The survey asked employees to rate on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (never) to 5 (all of the time). We compute the basic of mean score of each item of employee well-being as an individual scale score of overall employee well-being which the items of (1) tense, (4) worried and (5) uneasy were re-coded to be 1(all of the time) to 5(never). We also assess a summated scale that the six-item of employee well-being are summed to a total score for a construct with the Cronbach's alpha of employee well-being is a strong coefficient of 0.826.

Independent variables

To define leadership style in the indirect approach, the management policies are used to extract the style among firms. Although, the management policies are not able to measure completely and clearly an objective at the individual-level, they can eliminate the problem of stereotype answering (Melero, 2004). Moreover, the management policies are practical regulations of leadership roles at the organisational level that relatively supports managers to lead their subordinates within appropriate behaviour. Therefore, we employ them as a proxy of leadership style in terms of the relations component as to whether managers use them to address the actions of subordinate components in an interpersonal or task-oriented style and as to whether managers make decisions in a democratic or autocratic style.

The interpersonal component of feminine leadership style: According to the leadership style, WERS2004 provides extensive data on management practices and policies in which the managers were asked to rate management policies at their organisations on a five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The item was chosen from management policies as the pertained relations component in terms of interpersonal leadership style –managers do not introduce any changes without first discussing the implications with employees.

The democratic component of feminine leadership style: The decision-making component was measured with the item- most decisions at this workplace are made without consulting employees. Thus, for changing item in the meaning of democratic leadership style i.e. - most decisions at this workplace are made with consulting employees, the item scale is inverted i.e. 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree).

The moderator variable

Gender diversity of managers: The study focuses on managers who are position in manager and senior official in each workplace. Based on the congruent theory and gender discriminations are more attention in the female leaders and their leadership style, whilst the trends of female managers at workplace are increasing. Thus, in this chapter, the gender diversity of managers is represented by the proportion of female managers at the organisational level. Particularly, the proportion of female managers is worthwhile to present the specific influence of gender diversity in the view of whether the proportion of female managers affects the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being.

Other relevant variables

1) The workplace level

Gender diversity of employees: The effect of gender diversity of employees on the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being are examined in this chapter. Defining the relative number of the proportion of the gender employees is addressed understanding the interactions between each group within various proportions of the gender employees in different organisational sectors. Similarly, Kanter (1977) proposes that the proportion of interacting social types matters in terms of an impact on social behaviour. Additionally, he identifies the numerically dominant type which controls the group and its culture within a labelled dominant group at a typological ratio of about 80:20. The purpose of this study focuses on comparing the effect of feminine-dominated vs. masculine-dominated work environment on the relationship. Therefore, we define gender diversity of employees of

organisational sectors into three categories which are the female-dominated (i.e.

proportion of female employees greater than, or equal 80 percentage points), the

masculine-dominated (i.e. proportion of female employees less than or equal 20

percentage points) and the heterogeneity (i.e. proportion of female employees less than

80 and more than 20 percentage points). Thus, all three categories of employee gender

diversity in organisational sectors are investigated in terms of the interaction of leader-

employee.

The organisational sectors: They are categorised in the twelve different sectors of the

Standard Industrial Classification (2003) which reflect the different organisational

cultures. This may influence the relationship of managerial policies in terms of

leadership style and the gender diversity of managers by reflecting on employee

outcomes. Thus, we additionally investigate whether the different organisational

sectors impact on the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes.

2) The individual level

The age of employee: The employees should be treated fairly and equally to ensure that

organisation does not treat the employees differently because of their age (i.e. youngest

and oldest). Furthermore, based on a national default retirement at the age of 65 and the

other statutory requirements (e.g. employees under 18 are not allowed to sell alcohol)

(Metcalf and Meadows, 2010), this study includes only those employees who are

between the age of 18 to 64 years old.

The organisational tenure of employee and working contact: The variables are

selected in which the tenure of the employee is more than one year within the

permanent contacts. Because of the concern about employee's security in their job,

which may impact upon employee job satisfaction and well-being, we investigate only

employees who have permanent contracts. Likewise, the organisational tenure of the employee (at least one year) relies on the relationship of employer-employee in terms of the assessment period and the organisational policies (e.g. received training and payment).

4.3.2 Methods

This chapter uses the gender-social role and congruent role theories to formulate a theoretical model that will test the relationship between leadership style and the employee's job satisfaction and well-being. Moreover, gender diversity in terms of managers and employees are also investigated as interactive effects in this relationship. The moderated multiple regression analysis is utilized to analyse this chapter. The hypotheses are examined by evaluating the regression coefficient and the standardised coefficient that reflect the change of the relationship (Hair et al., 2003, 2010). In the multivariate model, the study enters two components i.e. democratic and interpersonal leadership style as a group-level variable. Likewise, employee job satisfaction and employee well-being which are a nested structure are tested as an averaged level i.e. employee overall-job satisfaction and employee overall-well-being and are entered as an individual level. In order to test the hypotheses, we rely on the typical model used for estimating both employee job satisfaction and well-being, which take the form:

$$JS_i = I_i + \beta_1(\text{Interpersonal})_i + \beta_2(\text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \beta_3(\text{Interpersonal} \times \text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (1)$$

$$JS_i = I_i + \beta_1(\text{Democratic})_i + \beta_2(\text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \beta_3(\text{Democratic} \times \text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (2)$$

$$W_i = I_i + \beta_1(\text{Interpersonal})_i + \beta_2(\text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \beta_3(\text{Interpersonal} \times \text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (3)$$

$$W_i = I_i + \beta_1(\text{Democratic})_i + \beta_2(\text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \beta_3(\text{Democratic} \times \text{ProporfemaleMNG})_i + \varepsilon_i \quad (4)$$

where JS_i is employee job satisfaction and W_i is employee well-being which is reported by individual i as a proxy for the overall individual's job satisfaction and well-being. I_i is the regression constant. The vector $(Interpersonal)_i$, $(Democratic)_i$ and $(ProporfemaleMNG)_i$ are independent variables in terms of both dimensions of feminine leadership style and proportion of female managers respectively. Likewise, the interaction between both components of feminine leadership style and the proportion of female managers indicates in terms of $Interpersonal \times ProporfemaleMNG)_i$ and $(Democratic \times ProporfemaleMNG)_i$. β_1, β_2, and β_3 are the estimated coefficients, which indicate the statistical significance and the direction of the effect of the independent variables on the probability of employee job satisfaction and well-being. ϵ_i is the error estimation of the regression distribution.

4.4 Results

Means, standard deviations, and correlations of all relevant study variables are presented in Table 4.1. Based on the correlation statistics, the results of the correlations indicate that the employee job satisfaction is positively related to all components of the feminine leadership style i.e. interpersonal leadership $(r=.039)$ and democratic leadership $(r=.035)$ which is statistically significant at the $p<0.01$ level. The employee's well-being is also highly associated with the feminine leadership style in the interpersonal leadership component $(r= .032, p< 0.01)$ whilst democratic component is correlated by $r= .019$, $p< 0.05$. Moreover, both the employee's job satisfaction and well-being are positively associated with the proportion of female managers. Interestingly, the correlation results indicate that employee job satisfaction is higher than employee well-being related to the proportion of female managers $(r_{satisfaction}= .082,$

145

p<0.01 and $r_{well-being}$= .020, p< 0.05). Nevertheless, it should be noted that the correlation coefficients are indeed small in most cases; therefore we should use caution in the interpretation.

We follow James, Demaree and Wolf (1984) suggestion to assess agreement among the judgments for a single group of judges on a single variable. They mention that the assumptions of the estimates of reliability for judgments of a single target are "(1) the item (s) have been shown to have acceptable psychometric properties (e.g. construct validity, internal consistency in the case of multiple items)... (2) the alternatives on an item's measurement scale are approximately equally spaced (i.e. an approximately interval response scale...)" (p.85). Moreover, they note that the interrater reliability refers to the interchangeableness in the degree of judgments. In other words, the raters provide the same rating for reflecting the degree of agreement. Thus, r_{wg} is a technique for assessing the concept of within-group interrater consensus (i.e. agreement) and within-group interrater consistency (i.e. reliability) (James, Demaree, and Wolf, 1993).

In this chapter, the interpersonal and democratic leadership styles are considered by the influence of gender diversity of organisations (i.e. feminine dominance, masculine dominance and heterogeneous groups). We first assess within-group agreement using the r_{wg} statistic. In terms of interpersonal leadership style, the range of each group's r_{wg} is .54 -.57 and the mean r_{wg} is .55. For the democratic leadership style, the range of each group's r_{wg} is .54-.60 and the mean r_{wg} is .57. The r_{wg} statistics suggest the moderate within-group agreement for both interpersonal and democratic leadership styles which are expected. In this chapter, we extracted the management policies to define the leadership styles in terms of interpersonal and democratic leadership styles as a single item. Likewise, Melero (2004) asserts that extracting

management policies at actual organisations as the proxy of leadership styles to eliminate response bias of defining leadership styles is an alternative for leadership research. Moreover, based on prior studies, we employ the large dataset (WERS2004) which provide the robust construct validity and reliability with known measurement qualities. However, the management policies in each workplace are related to the influence of organisational culture. This may impact on the degree of estimating interrater reliability of leadership style.

Table 4.1: Means, Standard deviations and Pearson Correlations between study variables

	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4	5
1. Overall employee's job satisfaction[1]	3.50(.695)	-				
2. Overall employee's job well-being[1]	2.98(.729)	.452**	-			
3. Interpersonal leadership style	3.89(.942)	.039**	.032**	-		
4. Democratic Leadership style	3.87(.907)	.035**	.019*	.453**	-	
5. Proportion of female managers	0.34(.313)	.082**	.020*	.059**	.129**	-

Note: * p< .05, ** p< .01 N=15,061

[1] Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

Table 4.2 and 4.3 present the relationship between both components of feminine leadership style (i.e. the interpersonal and democratic leadership style) at the organisational level and the employee's job satisfaction (Table 4.2 in Model 1-2) and well-being (Table 4.3 in Model 3-4) that are entered into the regression model as shown in Model 1-4. Because of possible multicollinearity, all independent variables were centred before using the moderated multiple regression analysis. The results in Table 4.2, which address the baseline of the relationship between the feminine leadership style

and employee's job satisfaction, have statistically positively effects within both the interpersonal (Model 1.1) and the democratic (Model 2.1) components at the organisational level. Similarly, both components of feminine leadership style are significantly positive associated with employee well-being (Model 3.1 and 4.1 in Table 4.3). However, the magnitude correlation of interpersonal leadership style is significantly higher than democratic leadership style in both employee job satisfaction and well-being ($\beta_{interpersonal\_job\ satisfaction}$=.034 vs. $\beta_{democratic\_job\ satisfaction}$ =.025 and $\beta_{interpersonal\_well-being}$=.031 vs. $\beta_{democratic\_well-being}$ =.017). These results are accepted in hypotheses H_{1a} and H_{1b}. Additionally, the direct effects of the proportion of female managers on the relationship between both interpersonal and democratic leadership styles and employee job satisfaction and well-being have significantly positive associations. Thus, the study also supports the hypothesis H_{1c}.

Model 1.1 and Model 3.1 show the results of the moderating effect of the proportion of female managers on the relationship between the interpersonal leadership style and the employee's job satisfaction and well-being which have significantly positive effects (i.e. $\beta_{Job\ satisfaction}$ = .019, p< 0.05 and $\beta_{well-being}$ =.022, p< 0.01). Model 2.1 and Model 4.1 indicate the proportion of female managers, which interacts with the democratic leadership style reflecting on the employee's job satisfaction and well-being are not significant. The results provide support for the hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2b}.

Furthermore, the study further investigates the influence of gender diversity of employees at the workplace, which reflects on the degree of interaction between the proportion of female managers and two components of feminine leadership style. The results demonstrate, as was expected, that only the feminine dominance in organisations has a positive direct effect of the proportion of female managers on employee well-being (Model 3.2 and 4.2). However, it is not significantly related to employee job

satisfaction (Model 1.2 and 2.2). On the other hand, the coefficient for the direct effect of proportion of female managers on the employee job satisfaction and well-being has an insignificant association in both the masculine dominance and heterogeneity of organisations. Hence, the hypothesis H_{3a} is partially supported based on the insignificance of the direct effect of the proportion of female managers on employee job satisfaction in feminine-dominated organisations.

Interestingly, when the proportion of female managers interacts with feminine leadership style, the results are different. The results show that only the interactive effect between the proportion of female managers and the interpersonal leadership on employee well-being in feminine-dominated organisations has the significant predicted direction ($\beta_{well-being}$= .093, p<0.01 in Model 3.2). Whilst the proportion of female managers which moderates the democratic leadership style at organisational level has a negative effect on employee job satisfaction in both masculine dominance and heterogeneous organisations which are $\beta_{Job\ satisfaction\_masculine}$ = -.088 and $\beta_{Job\ satisfaction\_hetero}$ = -.026. Thus, the study partially accepts the hypothesis H_{3b}.

Table 4.2: Moderated regressions on employee job satisfaction

	Model 1: employee job satisfaction (β)					Model 2: employee job satisfaction (β)			
	Model 1.1 Overall	Model 1.2 Feminine	Model 1.3 Masculine	Model 1.4 Heterogeneity		Model 2.1 Overall	Model 2.2 Feminine	Model 2.3 Masculine	Model 2.4 Heterogeneity
Step 1					Step 1				
Interpersonal leadership (IL)	.034***	.087***	-.003	.033**	Democratic leadership (DL)	.025**	.041*	-.014	.026*
Proportion of female managers (ProFeMNG)	.080***	.016	-.018	-.007	Proportion of female managers (ProFeMNG)	.078***	.020	-.017	-.007
ΔR^2	.008***	.008*	.000	.001	ΔR^2	.007*	.002	.001	.001*
Step 2					Step 2				
IL × ProFeMNG	.019*	.024	-.038	-.008	DL × ProFeMNG	.004	.032	-.088*	-.026*
ΔR^2	.000*	.000	.000	.000	ΔR^2	.000	.000	.001*	.001**
R^2	.008	.008	.001	.001	R^2	.007	.002	.002	.002
N	15,061	2,724	3,603	8,734	N	15,061	2,724	3,603	8,734

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

Table 4.3: Moderated regressions on employee well-being

	Model 3: employee well-being (β)					Model 4: employee well-being (β)			
	Model 3.1 Overall	Model 3.2 Feminine	Model3.3 Masculine	Model 3.4 Heterogeneity		Model 4.1 Overall	Model 4.2 Feminine	Model 4.3 Masculine	Model 4.4 Heterogeneity
Step 1					Step 1				
Interpersonal leadership (IL)	.031***	.065***	-.001	.031**	Democratic leadership (DL)	.017*	.020	.000	.023*
Proportion of female managers (ProFeMNG)	.018*	.051**	-.002	-.015	Proportion of female managers (ProFeMNG)	.018*	.053*	-.002	-.015
ΔR^2	.001***	.007***	.000	.001**	ΔR^2	.001**	.003*	.000	.001*
Step 2					Step 2				
IL × ProFeMNG	.022**	.093**	-.037	-.009	DL × ProFeMNG	.009	.044	-.020	-.013
ΔR^2	.000**	.003**	.000	.000	ΔR^2	.000	.001	.000	.000
R^2	.002	.010	.000	.001	R^2	.001	.004	.000	.001
N	15,061	2,724	3,603	8,734	N	15,061	2,724	3,603	8,734

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$

Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

151

4.5 Discussion and implications

The study uncovers the baseline of the relationship between leadership style at the organisational level in both the interpersonal and democratic components and the employee's job satisfaction and well-being before the moderating influence of the proportion of female managers. The results show that both types of feminine leadership style influence the relationship between leadership and employee's well-being. This offers support of Korte and Wynne's (1996) managerial approach toward employee outcomes (e.g. employee's job satisfaction and well-being). Additionally, based on reducing hierarchy and having more flexibility in organisational management, the masculine style, i.e. command and control, is not always appropriate in organisations today. It is likely less effective than the feminine leadership style, i.e. interactive and communal component (Rosener, 1990). Indeed, the magnitude of the coefficient of the interpersonal leadership style related to employee job satisfaction and well-being is higher than the coefficient of the democratic leadership style. This result can be explained that the interpersonal component of the feminine leadership style i.e. assisting and encouraging employees (Eagly and Johnson, 1990) may more directly and broadly impact on employee outcomes. On the other hand, the democratic leadership style is about focusing on particular aspects of participation in leader-employee decision-making (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001), which may have a limited effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being.

Cuadrado et al. (2012) point out that the role of gender managers matters in terms of decision-making within all types of studies. Likewise, we assume that the interpersonal component of leadership style should be in line with the decision-making dimension of leadership style i.e. democratic leadership style. Therefore, the study investigates the influence of the proportion of female managers on whether the

relationship of both components (i.e. democratic and interpersonal leadership) reflects on employee job satisfaction and well-being. As the results in this chapter show, the effect of the proportion of female managers is directly and positively associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being. These results are consistent with the findings by Cuadrado et al. (2012). Regarding the gender role of leadership, female managers are likely to have the potential feminine leadership style at the organisational level as the congruent role theory suggests (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Johnson et al., 2008). Moreover, the present study asserts that the gender of managers is likely to affect the leadership role in two components, i.e. the democratic and the interpersonal leadership, and therefore a positive effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being. This finding is also consistent with those in previous studies (Cuadrado et al., 2012; Moskowitz, Suh, and Desaulniers, 1994).

Although Wang et al. (2013) argue that it is not suitable to predict the relationship between leadership style (e.g. benevolent style) and employee performance when using the role of leader gender as a moderator, the results in this chapter point to an opposite hypothesis. The findings suggest that the interaction between the proportion of female managers and interpersonal leadership style has an effect on both employee job satisfaction and well-being. In contrast, there is no significant effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being when the interaction between the proportion of female managers and the democratic leadership style is examined. This means that the congruent theory will be vindicated, particularly when the proportion of female managers interacts with only the interpersonal leadership style but not the democratic leadership style toward employee outcomes. Additionally, a study by Korte and Wynne (1996) found that the stronger the interaction between manager and employee, the more the employee job satisfaction and well-being has improved. However, employee well-being is more strongly associated than employee

job satisfaction when interaction effects are included in the analysis. This can explain why interpersonal leadership is about leaders who pay more attention, understand employees' needs, and concerned about the interaction between leader-employee. This is in line with explanations that link employee well-being to emotion in the workplace, e.g. job anxiety-contentment of workload and uncertainty functions (Warr, 1990). Likewise, employee job satisfaction is more closely linked to job depression-enthusiasm, driven by employee's skills and tasks.

In terms of the influence of employee gender diversity at the workplace, the results support the view that the gender role of leader-employee matters and reflects on employee job satisfaction and well-being, particularly in feminine-dominated organisations. The effect of feminine-dominated organisations on the proportion of female managers has a direct positive association with employee well-being, which supports the gender congruent theory within feminine leadership style. However, when employing the proportion of female managers as a moderator into the relationship between feminine leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being, the results show the negative effect of interaction between the proportion of female managers and the democratic leadership style in masculine-dominated and heterogeneous organisations. The results reveal causal connections that explain how gender discrimination in leadership tends to decrease with the increase of female employees in the workplace. In contrast, although the relationship of the gender role of managers does not directly affect employee job satisfaction and well-being, gender discrimination still matters when interacting the proportion of female managers and the democratic leadership style. In other words, gender discrimination is likely to decrease when the role of female manager is matched with a feminine leadership style in a feminine dominant workplace.

Schein (2010) proposes that the organisational culture and leadership behaviour are the critical factors in the organisation's effectiveness, which may reflect on employee job satisfaction and well-being. Thus, this study furthers our understanding of the implications of gender diversity of managers within the different organisational cultures toward employee outcomes. Based on a gender-heterogeneous group of managers, which is likely to be observed in the education sector (mean $_{proportion\ of\ female}$ $_{manager}$ = .5206, see also Appendix Table 4.2), the feminine leadership style in terms of both democratic and interpersonal components have a positive and significant on job satisfaction as shown in Appendix Table 4.3. Likewise, the proportion of female managers has a direct positive effect on employee job satisfaction as in the congruent theory of gender leadership role. However, the feminine leadership style in both components has a non-significant direct association with employee's well-being, but the interaction between the proportion of female managers and the interpersonal leadership is positively significantly related to employee's well-being (Appendix Table 4.4). Despite the fact that in terms of the education's culture, an education sector is about creating and sharing knowledge (Omerzel, Biloslavo and Trnavcevic, 2011). However, academic employees work flexibly and independently under the umbrella of organisational policies. In this case, leadership style directly impacts upon employee job satisfaction rather than well-being at the workplace. Indeed, when the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes is examined, academic employees prefer the feminine leadership style within their female managers rather than masculine leadership style.

According to the psychological fit between an organisation's culture and leadership style (Burns, Kotrba and Denison, 2013), the findings in this chapter show that the organisational culture impact on the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being, particularly in terms of using the proportion

of female managers as a moderator. For instance, based on the construction sector, unlike hypothesis 1, the leadership style is associated with the masculine leadership style in terms of autocratic component, which affects on employee job satisfaction. Moreover, there is also evidence of a negative interactive effect of the proportion of female managers and the democratic leadership style on employee job satisfaction. This also supports that gender discrimination still influences outcomes in masculine organisational culture. On the other hand, in the public administration sector, the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction is positive and significant in terms of democratic component of feminine leadership style. However, this relationship directly impacts on the male managers.

There are several points of strength in this chapter that should be noted. The study provides the large size and statistical power of gender diversity of managers and employees at workplace on all variables of interest, including having a sufficient variety of industrial sectors. The sample of this chapter includes a sufficient number of industrial sectors to capture the variability of feminine dominance, masculine dominance and heterogeneous sectors, which are all meaningful in the analysis of gender diversity. Moreover, unlike previous empirical studies that investigate leadership style in individual-level study from supervisors, peers, subordinates and self-report data which leads to stereotype problems, our study use information on management policies at the organisational level and relates them to a leadership style. We define the leadership style at organisational level within two components i.e. the relations component (i.e. interpersonal leadership style) and the decision-making (i.e. democratic leadership style) as an indirect approach. Therefore, the approach in this chapter is able to eliminate the stereotype problems and the problem of selected female managers who are in specialise positions (Melero, 2004).

Nevertheless, there are limitations to the current study. Although leadership style is defined based on management policies at the organisational level, which can eliminate the problem of stereotype answering, this approach does not capture leadership style at the individual managerial level. Therefore, the results are not generalised to individuals with their leadership behaviours that relate to employee's job satisfaction and well-being. Moreover, this study interprets the leadership style in two components i.e. decision-making and the relations components as a single-item measure of key variables whereas Milgrom and Roberts (1991) mention that the practical management policies are performed in a set of policies rather than in a single policy. However, we aim to focus on specific management policies in terms of the role of gender. Finally, the evidence in this chapter provides the linked employer-employee data representative at the workplace allowing control on a set of employee and workplace-level attributes. However, the dataset does not account for the characteristics of managers. Thus, it is unable to extend on the observable influence of the different characteristics of managers and employees within the controlling measured at the workplace-level.

Implications

This study supports that the feminine leadership style in terms of interpersonal and democratic components associates with employee's job satisfaction and well-being in organisations. The feminine leadership style is likely appropriate for contemporary organisations which tend to reduce in hierarchy and increase the leadership role in coaching employees. It is likely female managers have more advantages in their leadership behaviour to meet the needs of organisations than male managers. According to the congruent role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Johnson et al., 2008), female managers are confirmed to the feminine leadership style; in this chapter, the

results indicate that there is more associating with female managers when there is more emphasis on the interpersonal component within the feminine managerial role, rather than more emphasis on the democratic component. Thus, the influence of gender manager matters on both the direct association and interaction with the interpersonal leadership style, which positively reflects on employee job satisfaction and well-being. Additionally, Elsesser and Lever (2011) conclude that if the management role becomes more of a communal approach, there will be a greater acceptance between the gender role and leadership role and will reduce gender discriminations toward female managers in the future. To increase employee outcomes, therefore, female managers should keep their roles in the line of the interpersonal component of leadership. Likewise, we suggest that male managers should behave more in assisting and treating employees for adapting themselves in order to compatibility with the contemporary organisations today.

Nevertheless, female managers are still in the minority group at workplace according to the impact of discriminative on their leader role. Both evidence of antecedent discrimination, concerning stereotypical judgments, and consequent discrimination, relating to gender behaviour, are found in this chapter. Thus, it is important for organisations to recognise and to foster gender equality, considering the potential of female managers and supporting the opportunities to develop them, in particular, when they manage or lead a masculine dominated workforce.

To support the increase in female managers, Eagly and Carli (2003) propose that the organisation should have the approaches to change leadership roles both at the theoretical and practical levels. The gender role can be diminished or even eliminated by formal managerial roles or by other roles in organisational settings as the management policies, which are regulated within the relatively appropriated behaviour.

We support the primary tenet of leadership style within the gender-equality management policies as a guideline for managers at the organisational level. Gender discrimination may be eliminated by the practical gender equality policies, which allow female managers to occupy more managerial positions.

Chapter 5

Is trust in leaders a moderator or a mediator of the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment?

5.1. Introduction

During the past decades, a growing interest in leadership effectiveness has resulted in a voluminous body of work focusing on the link between leadership and organisational outcomes. Most of this work draws upon a variety of antecedents and facets of leadership, including individual traits, leader behaviour, interaction patterns, role relationships, follower perceptions, influence over followers, and organisational culture (Yukl, 2010). What underpins such work is the premise that the relationship between leadership behaviour and employees' perceptions about their leaders reflects on individual and organisational outcomes. For instance, evidence suggests that leadership has a positive effect on employees' organisational commitment and organisational performance (Arnold, Barling and Kelloway, 2001; Barling, Weber and Kelloway, 1996; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996). However, there is relatively little that we know about the mechanisms and processes though which leadership behaviours affect followers' motivation and performance (e.g. Avolio et al., 2004; Bass, 1999b; Bono and Judge, 2003; Lord, Brown and Feiberg, 1999; Yukl, 2010). This gap in our knowledge has led to calls for a better understanding of leadership behaviour and of the mechanisms and processes through which it influences specific worked-related attitudes.

Avolio et al. (2004) highlight specifically the need for furthering our understanding of the leadership transmission mechanism influencing employee organisational commitment. The emphasis on employee commitment is well placed, given that it has been linked to a large array of organisational outcomes, including job satisfaction (Bateman and Stasser, 1984; Johnston et al., 1990), attendance (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990), and lower turnover (Cohen, 1993). Because of the importance of employee commitment for organisational performance, numerous empirical studies have explored whether leadership styles and behaviours, especially transformational leadership, could improve employee commitment (Goodwin et al., 2011; Keller, 1992; Podsakoff, MacKenzie and Bommer, 1996; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). Nevertheless, in tandem with Avolio et al. (2004), Lines and Selart (2013) also point to a lack of sufficient theoretical explanation for the documented link between leadership and employee commitment in empirical work.

Only few studies have attempted to fill this void by investigating the process of how leadership style and behaviour at the organisational level influence relevant variables that are enhancing the level of employee commitment. Employee trust in their leaders has been one of these intermediate variables, interacting with leadership style and organisational commitment (Cullen, Johnson and Sakano, 2000). Nyhan (1999), for example, finds that interpersonal trust in the employer-employee relationship has a strong influence on organisational commitment. In the same vein, Yukl (1989) points out that, in the context of transformational leadership in particular, the followers' trust in their leaders motivates them do more than expected, i.e. to 'go the extra mile', with significant beneficial effects on productivity and organisational performance. Nevertheless, whilst evidence confirms that employee trust facilitates the process though which leaders' behaviours and initiatives at the organisational level enhance

employee commitment, the question arises whether employee trust in their leaders acts as a moderator or a mediator in this process.

Our aim in this chapter is to provide some answers to the above question, by investigating the moderating or mediating role of employee trust in the relationship between leadership styles and employee organisational commitment. Adopting a sufficiently flexible theoretical model that captures both the moderating and mediating effects of employee trust in their leaders, we test whether trust moderates or mediates the effectiveness of management policies at the organisational level, in improving the organisational commitment of employees.

This empirical analysis is based on data from the Work and Employment Relations Survey (WERS2004) data, which is a large survey of nationally representative linked employer-employee data across Britain. This dataset allows us to control for various workplace and demographic characteristics that are likely to exert an observable influence on the relationship of leadership-commitment at the organisational level. Thus, the study is more comprehensive than previous studies in the literature that are based predominantly on small samples drawn from individual organisations. A main advantage of the WERS2004 data is that allows to link information at the organisational level with information at the employee level. The richness of the WERS data allows us to explore the potential moderating or mediating role of trust in the relationship between leadership style and employee organisational commitment in sufficient detail and level of disaggregation. What is of particular interest is that whether trust acts a moderator or a mediator in this relationship is contingent upon the specific organisational culture across the various sectors of the economy. We test this conjecture in the analysis that follows.

5.2 Background and hypotheses building

5.2.1 The relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment

There is ample evidence in the extant literature suggesting that leadership behaviour is often associated with work attitudes and behaviours of followers in both at an individual and at an organisational level (Avolio et al., 2004; Dumdum, Lowe and Avolio, 2002; Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996). A lot of work is also devoted, both at the theoretical and empirical level, to identifying the organisational factors that could help to boost organisational productivity and performance (Dale and Fox, 2008), to resolve organisational problems, and to eliminate impediments to growth and profitability (Scott-Ladd, Travaglione and Marshall, 2006). One of the most commonly researched such factors is employee commitment, which is often refers to employees' identification with and involvement in an organisation (Mowday, Porter and Streers, 1982; Kleine and Weißenberger, 2014). Employees with a high level of organisational commitment are more likely to interact with the organisation, sharing and contributing their thoughts, beliefs, and feelings. Moreover, individuals' commitment reflects on their active role in terms of the contribution of the organisational goals and overall welfare (Jaworski and Young, 1992; Kleine and Weißenberger, 2014). Thus, committed employees are likely to support organisational outcomes, to play a positive role toward improving organisational performance, and to interact with colleagues to facilitate the work environment (King and Grace, 2008).

Existing studies attempt to understand how a leader's behaviour influences the employees' commitment to the organisation. Particularly, Wallace, De Chernatony, and Buil (2013) argue that more appropriate leadership styles indicate more employee

commitment. Furthermore, prior research points out that the leaders who encourage

employees in decision-making (Rhodes and Steers, 1981) and are supportive and

concerned about the employees' development (Allen and Meyer, 1996) reflect on the

high level of committed employees (Avolio et al., 2004; Mowday, Porter and Streers,

1982). Thus, leadership is a key determinant of employees' work-related attitudes and

especially organisational commitment.

The organisational commitment has been defined and categorised in several

ways. In their meta-analysis of employee commitment, Mathieu and Zajac (1990)

propose that the most common types of organisational commitment are attitudinal

commitment and calculated commitment. Attitudinal commitment entails: (1) a belief

in and acceptance of the organisational goals and values; (2) a willingness to put the

effort in as a representative organisation; and (3) a high demand to maintain as an

organisational member (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990; Mowday, Porter and Streers, 1982).

Likewise, calculated commitment is referred to as a phenomenon whereby individuals

have invested in their organisation (e.g., seniority, health insurance benefits, pension

plan) which they are not able to afford to break away themselves from (Mathieu and

Zajac, 1990). However, both types of commitment are more closely linked over time,

which cannot entirely distinguish their concepts. Alternatively, Meyer and Allen (1991)

use a taxonomy that distinguishes between affective commitment, continuance

commitment, and normative commitment. Affective commitment refers to the

emotional attachment, identification, and involvement of individuals to the organisation.

Likewise, continuance commitment is the employee's intention to remain a member of

organisation due to the awareness of costs of leaving and rewards for staying, whilst

normative commitment is associated with the employee's feeling of obligation to

continue employment. However, Eagly and Chaiken (1993) argue that in terms of

general organisational commitment, the best proxy is affective commitment, whereas

the specific forms of the continuance and normative commitment are mostly associated with predicting turnover.

There is a somewhat divergent view in the literature in terms of the relationship between leadership behaviour and the types of organisational commitment. Wallace, Chernatony, and Buil (2013) find that considerate leadership is more likely suitable to encourage the affective and normative commitment; in contrast, it reduces the continuance commitment within the banking sector. Likewise, Strauss, Griffin, and Rafferty (2009) propose that supportive team leadership behaviour has a positive association with employee's affective commitment. However, Price (1997) argues that identifying the different types of organisational commitment by Meyer and Allen (1991) may not have demonstrated clearly all the patterns of convergent and discriminated validity. It implies that the commitment may have multiple forms (Mowday, 1998), which are difficult to categorise clearly from each other. Additionally, by investigating leadership styles at the organisational level, this study focuses on the potential of the management policies to contribute to the commitment of employees. Consequently, the focus of our study is on overall organisational commitment vis-a-vis leadership styles, rather than on examining the different forms of employee commitment.

The influence of leadership behaviour on organisational commitment is a key factor in enhancing or detracting from organisational performance. However, leadership behaviour has been classified into different categories based on different criteria, such as whether leadership is relationship-oriented or task-oriented, supportive or instrumental, and people-centred or job-centred. Several empirical studies have examined organisational commitment as an outcome of transformational leadership. Avolio et al. (2004) assert that transformational leadership is positively associated with

organisational commitment across different organisations and cultures (e.g. Bono and Judge, 2003; Dumdum et al., 2002; Koh, Streers, and Terborg, 1995; Lowe, Kroeck and Sivasubramaniam, 1996; Walumbwa and Lawler, 2003). Although transformational leadership behaviour has focused on the link of organisational commitment in much of the research over the last several years, it may be worthwhile to explore the particular components of leadership style such as the relation-oriented and decision-making components of leadership. Moreover, Bass and Steidlmeier (1999) mention that most leaders recognise the value of transformational leadership so they attempt to behave as transformation leaders but they are not. For example, the motivation of leaders is not as pure as it may seem and their ethics are often unclear. Therefore, to eliminate this problem and to define more broadly the leadership model at an organisational level, we examine the component of leadership style in the context of management policies. Additionally, the evaluative rating of leadership style by self-ratings and other ratings could be biased compared to using management policies. Eagly and Carli (2003) also propose that any ratings of participants are generally the moderator when analysing effect sizes. Therefore, for our analysis in this chapter, we map management policies at the organisational level into the following two components of leadership styles: (i) interpersonal leadership style; and (ii) democratic leadership style.

The study of leadership behaviour always emphasises two different types of behaviour linked to the accomplishment of the task and the interpersonal relations (Tolbert and Hall, 2009). The interpersonal leadership style defines leaders who show care, concern, and compassion for others, and who value their relationship with others (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012). Moreover, the personal interaction of a leader influences the behaviour of followers (Melero, 2004), so that the behaviour employees could reveal valuable information about the leadership style in the organisation. It implies that leaders who have the interpersonal behaviour enhance the work

environment that is likely to increase the level of employees' commitment to the organisation. Alternatively, the democratic leadership style is associated with the consultation activities and decision-making with the agreement of the employees (Melero, 2004). The findings on which of the two leadership styles (i.e., interpersonal or democratic) is more effective in promoting employee organisational commitment are inconclusive. Coyle-Shapiro (1999) finds in their longitudinal study of total quality management that there is no significant association between democratic leadership and organisational commitment. In contrast, Mathieu and Zajac (1990) and Shadur, Kienzle and Rodwell (1999) find a strong positive correlation.

5.2.2 Organisational culture and the relationship of leadership style and organisational commitment

Organisational culture is usually defined as a system of shared values and beliefs among members of a group (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012; Yukl, 2010). It is obviously performed and created by the interaction among people and shaped by people's behaviour (Schein, 2004). Specifically, the influence of organisational culture is able to affect leadership and management practices in terms of the values, beliefs and behaviours (Yukl, 2010), which reflect on organisational outcomes. Thus, the congruent leadership behaviour may be relevant to a particular type of organisational culture. Schein (2004) argues that different industrial sectors have different structures and organisational cultures within a spectrum of very formal structures (e.g. the health sector) to a very flexible structure (e.g. the business sector). Moreover, leadership behaviour is affected by other situational variables related to organisational culture, such as the type of organisation (e.g. profit vs. non-profit, and public corporation vs.

private ownership) and the type of industry sectors (e.g. manufacturing, wholesale and retail, and public administration) (Bass, 1990; House et al, 1997, 2004; Yukl, 2010).

Thus, it is not surprising that employee commitment varies across the different industrial sectors and across organisations. Mowday (1998) points out that employee commitment to an organisation plays a more important role in sectors characterised by a highly competitive environment than in more stable industrial sectors, with a less competitive environment. Additionally, it is likely that the commitment to an organisation reflects on the greater outcomes such as employees' productivity, quality and financial success within the business sector more than in the manufacturing sector (Mowday, 1998). For instance, the business sector confronts increasing competitiveness; therefore, it needs to build a strategy of developing committed and loyal employees to retain the promise of superior financial returns. This implies that the different organisational cultures across industrial sectors may affect the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment. Larger organisations tend to support initiatives to improve levels of employee organisational commitment, by offering more opportunities for career progression and promotion and enhanced opportunities for interpersonal interactions (Mathieu and Zajac, 1990).

5.2.3 The role of trust in leaders and organisational outcomes

Trust is defined as "the willingness of a party to be vulnerable to the actions of another party based on the expectation that the other party will perform a particular action important to the trustor irrespective of the ability to monitor or control that other party" (Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman, 1995, p.712). By and large, there seems to be uncertainty in building trust as one party has to behave appropriately to be recognised as trustworthy by another party. However, Mayer, Davis, and Schoorman (1995) mention

168

that the degree of vulnerability may increase when both parties are in a situation of close interdependence.

The significance of trust in leadership is emphasised in numerous literatures. For instance, empirical studies find that the role of the employees' trust in leaders is associated with a high level of commitment to authority and organisational goals, job satisfaction and improving performance, whereas it is related to a lower degree to turnover (e.g. Dirks and Ferrin, 2001; Pillai, Schriesheim and Williams, 1999; Whitener et al, 1998). Although this approach is somewhat different across disciplines, such as organisational psychology, management, organisational communication, and education, Podsakoff et al. (1990) conclude that the common underpinning theme driving the research in all disciplines is the willingness of followers to perform beyond the minimum level of organisational expectation. Moreover, trust not only contributes to individual and organisational effectiveness, it is also important to the relationships and influences of each party toward the other (Robinson, 1996; Goodwin et al., 2011). As Yukl (1989) asserts, employees who trust and respect their leader have an incentive to work more than they are expected. On the other hand, if trust in leaders is broken due to a lack of candour, hidden agendas or dysfunctional organisational policies (Covey and Merrill, 2008), the relationships within the organisation are severely affected (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002). The main idea of trust in leaders is built on leadership behaviour that emphasises how employees perceive their leaders behaviour and how this process reflects on organisational outcomes. Thus, employees' trust in their leaders is likely to be one of the key factors to improve leadership effectiveness.

Dirks and Ferrin (2002) argue that the theoretical link between trust in leadership and other organisational constructs might show different relationships based on the conceptual benchmark of leadership and the definition of trust. For example,

they propose that transformational leadership, based on leader's concern and respect for their followers, is positively related to trust in the relationship-based perspective. However, when transactional leadership adopts a character-based perspective, focusing on ensuring of employees' rewards are fair (contingent reward), dependable, and having integrity, there is little impact on trust.

Whereas many empirical studies support that transformational leadership is the effective leadership behaviour which can build trust, this does not reflect a universally accepted viewpoint. In the transformational leadership model conceptualised by Bass and Avolio (1993), there are four primary dimensions, which include charisma or idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation, and individualised consideration. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) mention that some charismatic leaders are more concerned about their public image so that they do not take credit for what is beyond their expertise. This type of risk-averse attitude could have a detrimental effect upon the level of employee's trust in these leaders. Moreover, intellectual stimulation is negatively associated with trust because it is based on challenging innovation and encouraging dissent, which can lead to conflict, ambiguity and stress in workplace. However, this dimension may become positively associated with trust in leaders in the longer-term (Goodwill et al. 2011). Therefore, it is important to investigate individual components of leadership, which may reduce the conflicts between dimensions of overall leadership behaviour perspective and their relationship. There is a consensus of the literature that the influence of the components of leadership behaviour/style contributes to the trust in leader. Guest et al. (2008) demonstrate that the direct forms of participation are positively correlated with trust in management whereas the initiative type causes conflict and a low level of trust. Likewise, Morgan and Zeffane (2003) propose that the mutual trust in management is consistently best achieved by participation, consultation, and empowerment. Thus, it may be more

obvious to investigate the typical leadership styles i.e. interpersonal-oriented vs. task-oriented and democratic vs. autocratic leadership style which relate to the relationship-based perspective of trust.

By and large, we should expect that the role of trust in leaders is not only directly related to leadership style and employee organisational commitment, but also it has an indirect effect on the relationship between leadership style and employee organisational commitment (Dirks and Ferrin, 2002; Timming, 2012; Goodwin et al, 2011; Pillai, Schriesheim and Willams, 1999). In this chapter, we argue that the direct relationship of leadership style and organisational commitment is likely to be moderated by employees' trust in their leaders.

5.2.4 Leadership style and organisational commitment relationship: Trust in leaders as a moderator or mediator

As mentioned earlier, the literature provides several possibilities that the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment may have an indirect influence on the role of trust in leaders. Previous research has shown the employees' trust in their leaders is directly affected by leadership behaviour such as transformational leadership, people-oriented, and decentralised decision-making (Frazier, Tix and Barron, 2004; Pillai, Schriesheim and Williams, 1999). Likewise, the employees' trust in leaders is also directly associated with employee outcomes e.g. employee performance, job satisfaction and commitment (Goodwin et al., 2011). According to the definition of trust, trust is a manifest of social exchange whilst social exchange underpins the expression of mutual loyal, goodwill and support (Aryee, Budhwar and Xiong Chen, 2002). Albrecht and Travaglione (2003) examined the

171

antecedent influence of trust in senior management and how trust influences the consequences in the public sector. They found that the social exchange as an antecedent of trust can predict the level of trust in leaders and the consequence, which is influenced by trust in senior management, is significantly associated with outcomes such as organisational commitment. Indeed, a high level of trust in leaders reflects on employees to display risk-taking behaviour to their leaders. This leads to positive outcomes (Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). Therefore, the conditions of uncertainty or risk implicate trust toward the relationship between leaders and employees as employees' perception of their leaders' behaviour. Likewise, organisational commitment is significantly associated with the interaction between leaders and employees. As a result, the relationship of trust and organisational commitment, which both are related to leadership behaviours, may have an indirect effect. Therefore, the role of trust could be viewed as a mediator in the relationship of employer-employee by reflecting on organisational outcomes.

Beside this, a number of studies support the mediating role of trust in leaders. Lau and Moser (2008) confirm that employees' trust in their leader is a key mediator of the actions of leaders and the commitment in an organisation. They find a strong, positive correlation between trust in leaders and organisational commitment when employees form perceptions about the behaviour of leaders. Moreover, Connell, Ferres, and Travaglione (2003) show that trusting leaders plays an important mediating role in the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention and organisational commitment. In the same vein, Whitener (1997) mentions that the level of employees trust increases when their supervisors build the relational contracts and perform well in the employees' perception of the organisational obligations. It seems to confirm that the role of trust in leaders mediates in many facets of leadership behaviour and its outcomes. However, the mediating effect of trust on the relationship between

leadership behaviour/style and organisational outcomes is inconsistence (see Dirks and Ferrin, 2001). Particularly, some empirical studies find that employees' trust in their leaders is a partial mediator in the relationship between leadership and its outcomes (e.g. Goh and Zhen-Jie, 2014; Aryee, Budhwar and Xiong Chen, 2002). Hayes (2013) claims that the partial mediation is an effect of a misspecified model. He attributes the finding of partial mediation to an omitted variable bias, that is, attributed to important factors such as other relevant mediators or a statistically significant direct effect, which are not included in the model. Thus, we need more emphasis in the investigation of this relationship by considering other contexts i.e. sector differences.

Although there is evidence of mediating trust in leaders on the relationship between leadership behaviour and organisational outcomes, it has the potential to be further investigated in that the employees' trust in their leaders may be indicated as a moderator. As trust is a key factor in terms of employees' acceptance of leader's behaviour (Goodwin et al., 2011), the degree of employees' trust in their leaders may moderate the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes in both organisational procedures and practice. Previous studies attempt to find the main effect of trust in leaders on work-related attitudes, behaviour and performance outcomes, however, the results are inconsistent. These inconsistent results may be related to mixed evidences and contexts of trust in research studies. For instance, Hwang and Burger (1997) assert that trust is only a part of supporting cooperation. This implies that trust impacts on cooperation but its effect is a not major cause on cooperation. This perspective can be explained by Dirks and Ferrin (2001) that trust in leaders may not have a direct effect on other determinants which particularly refer to attitudinal, perceptual, behaviour and performance outcomes. As in the aforementioned moderating explanation, trust in leaders may be implicated in the experience of employees in assessing leader roles from the past to the future. Thus, the model that

trust operates as a moderator may facilitate on the relationship between leadership behaviour/style and organisational outcomes.

Likewise, Bass and Avolio (1994) propose that trust in leaders, as a potential moderator, is associated with the transformational leadership paradigm. Mathieu and Zajac (1990) find on their meta-analysis that the initiating structure and the consideration of leadership behaviour have moderately positive relationship with organisational commitment. However, the study of the moderating role of trust in leaders on the relationship of leadership and organisational outcomes is still ambiguous. For example, Otken and Cenkei (2012) point out that the followers who have a high level of trust in their leader show a strong sense of responsibility and care to the community, customers and others in the organisation. In contrast, Goodwin et al. (2011) explore the role of trust as a moderator in the transformational leadership paradigm. They show that there is no support for affecting the role of trust as a moderator on the relationship between transformational leadership and follower outcomes. Nevertheless, a small number of empirical studies investigate the impact of moderating trust in leader on the relationship between leadership style and organisational outcomes. Exploring trust in leaders as a moderator in the relationship of leadership style and employee organisational commitment remains a worthwhile pursuit, especially when taking into account the effect of different industrial sectors on the relationship.

From this brief review of the literature, it emerges that both the moderating and the mediating role of employee trust in their leader in the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment needs to be explored in a systematic way. Although previous studies investigate the direct relationship between transformational leadership style and organisational outcomes, there are no studies

using management policies as a latent leadership variable. To the best of our knowledge, there are no previous studies either that explore how the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment may be affected by the different types of industrial sectors.

Our aim in this chapter is to close this gap in the literature by exploring the role of trust in leaders as both a moderator and a mediator of the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment. We further account for the two components of leadership, i.e. the interpersonal and democratic leadership style, based on management policies at the organisational level and for potential differences across industrial sectors. The theoretical models in this chapter are as shown in Figure 5.1 and 5.2.

Figure 5.1: Model 1 - The relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment: Trust as a moderator

(1) Interpersonal leadership style
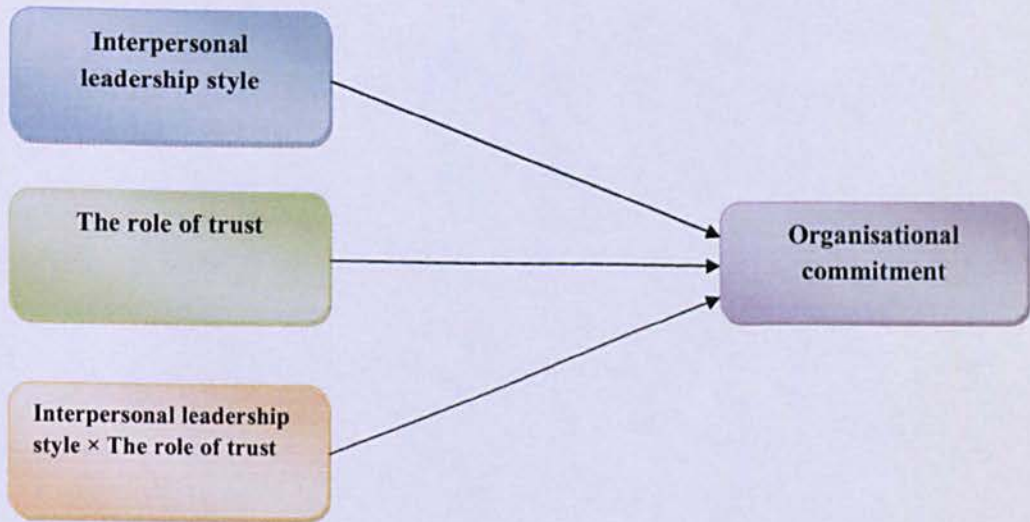
(2) Democratic leadership style
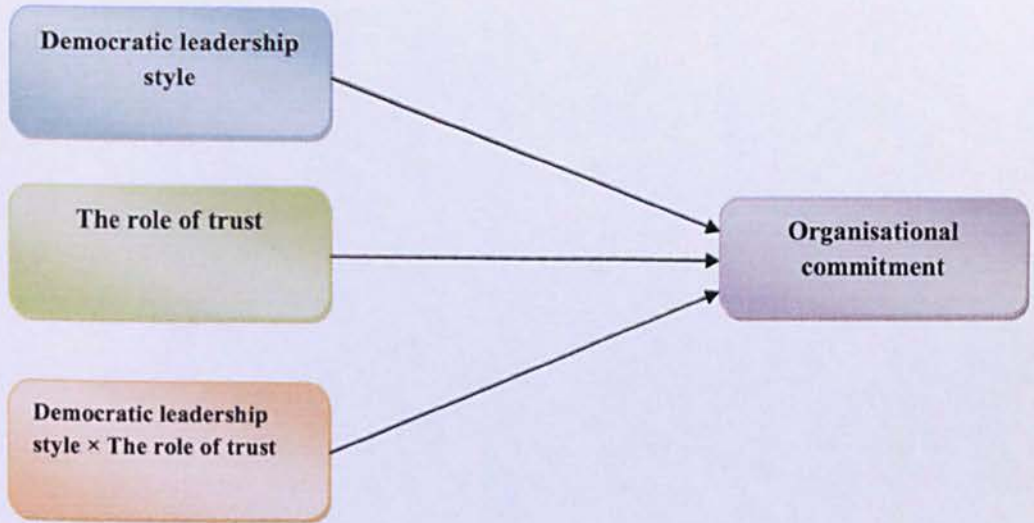
Figure 5.2: Model 2 - The relationship between leadership style and organisational

commitment: Trust as a mediator

(1) Interpersonal leadership style
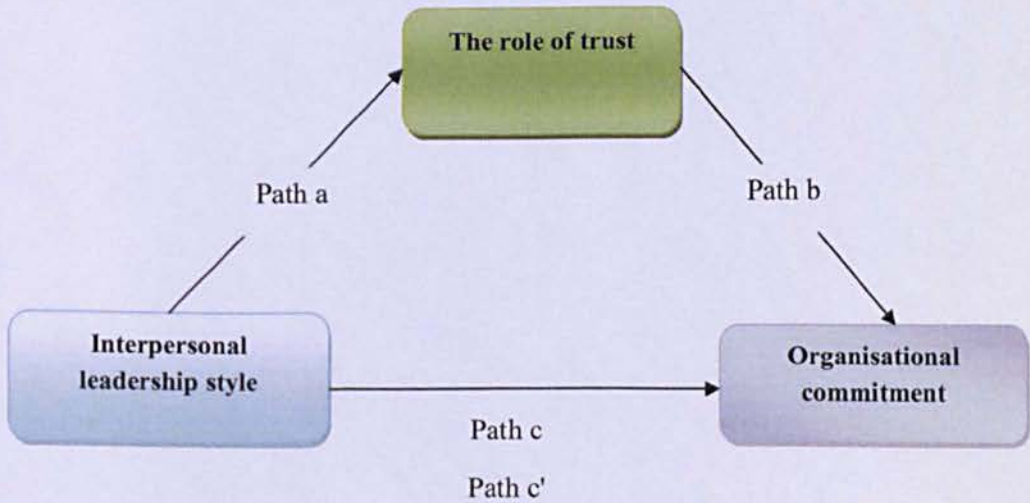
(2) Democratic leadership style
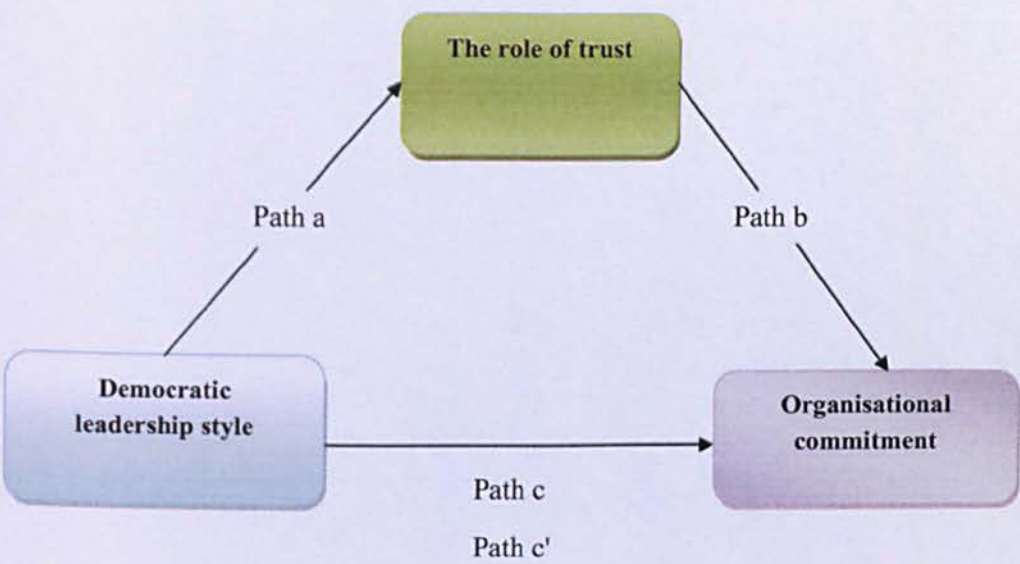
Our main objective in this chapter is to test the validity of the two models (Figure 5.1 and 5.2) regarding the moderating and/or mediating role of trust in leaders in the relationship between leadership and employee commitment, accounting for potential differences across sectors. We argue that the degree of trust in leaders may interact with two components of leadership style within the managerial policies at organisational level, which reflects on the organisational commitment. Likewise, in terms of a mediator, the role of trust in leaders may intervene in the relationship of leadership and outcomes. Thus, we formulate the following testable hypotheses:

Hypothesis 1a: The relationship between both components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components) and organisational commitment is moderated by trust in leaders.

Hypothesis 1b: The relationship between both components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components) and organisational commitment is mediated by trust in leaders.

Hypothesis 2a: The moderating role of trust in leaders in the relationship between both components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components) and organisational commitment differs across industrial sectors.

Hypothesis 2b: The mediating role of trust in leaders in the relationship between both components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components) and organisational commitment differs across industrial sectors.

5.3 Data and methods

The study uses data from The British 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey (WERS 2004). It is a cross-sectional dataset which is funded by the UK's department of trade and industry, economic and social research council, policy studies institute, and advisory conciliation and arbitration service (David, Bryson and Forth, 2007; Timming, 2012). The WERS 2004 provides five separate surveys that could be matched, i.e. the management survey, the employees' survey, the employee representatives' survey, the financial performance survey, and the 1998-2004 panel survey within 22,451 employees and 2,295 workplaces across the UK.[3] Timming (2012) points out that the WERS dataset is 'the most extensive single-country source', which is comprised of the quantitative data source from industrial and workplace

---

[3] More information on the WERS2004 is available at
http://www.wers2004.info/wers2004/crosssection.php

relations. For testing the hypotheses, we employ both the management survey and employees' survey. Moreover, we are able to match individual-level information with organisational-level information on managerial policies. Respondents were asked a series questions about the characteristics of their job and workplaces, attitudes toward their work, employee representative arrangement and their demographics (employee's self-completed questionnaires). Likewise, the management survey contains information on the structure and size of the workforce and managerial policies adopted by the organisation. Such information is available for 16,293 employees in 1,732 workplaces.

5.3.1 Definition of variables

Outcomes variables: Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment is measured using three items, based on responses to the question: *'what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements (1) I share many of the values of my organisation, (2) I feel loyal to my organisation, and (3) I am proud to tell people who I work for.'* The survey uses a 5-point Likert scale to measure them from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree) (see also Appendix Table 5.1).

Independent variables: the interpersonal and democratic leadership style

We use management policies at the organisational level as a latent variable for organisational leadership style. This measure captures the components of interpersonal and democratic leadership style, based on the study of Melero (2004). There are two items of the managerial policies, which are employed to explore the two components of leadership style.

179

The interpersonal component of feminine leadership style: According to this leadership style, WERS2004 provides extensive data on management practices and policies in which the managers were asked to rate management policies at their organisations on a five-point scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The item was chosen from management policies as the pertained relations component in terms of interpersonal leadership style – (1) managers do not introduce any changes without first discussing the implications with employees.

The democratic component of feminine leadership style: The decision-making component was measured with the item – (1) most decisions at this workplace are made without consulting employees, the item scale is inverted i.e. 1 (strongly agree) to 5 (strongly disagree). Thus, changing the item to fit the meaning of democratic leadership style i.e. – (1) most decisions at this workplace are made with consulting employees, the item scale is inverted i.e. 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree).

Moderator/ Mediator: trust in leaders

Trust in leaders is measured using three items derived from the responses to the question: *'thinking about managers at this workplace, to what extent to you agree or disagree with the following: (1) managers here can be relied upon to keep their promises, (2) managers here are sincere in attempting to understand employees' views, and (3) managers here deal with employees honestly.'* Employees were asked to rate on a five-point Likert scale from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). In further analysis of using trust in leaders as a moderator and a mediator variable, a summated scale is used to represent trust in leaders, which is formed by calculating the three-item scores of trust in leaders to the average score.

Other variables

The age of employee: The employees should be treated fairly and equally to ensure that organisation does not treat the employees differently because of their age (i.e. youngest and oldest). Furthermore, based on a national default retirement at the age of 65 and the other statutory requirements (e.g. employees under 18 are not allowed to sell alcohol) (Metcalf and Meadows, 2010). Therefore, this study includes only those employees who are between 18 and 64 years old.

The organisational tenure of employee and working contact: The variables are controlled in which the tenure of the employee is more than one year for those on permanent contacts. Because of the concern about employee's job security, this study investigates only employees who have permanent contracts. Likewise, the organisational tenure of the employee relies on the relationship of employer-employee that may build an employee's psychological devotion to an organisation.

The organisational sectors: They are categorised in the twelve different sectors of the Standard Industrial Classification 2003, which reflect the different organisational cultures. This may influence the relationship of managerial policies in terms of leadership style and employees' trust in their leaders and their organisational commitment. Thus, this study investigates whether the influence of the organisational culture within the different organisational sectors influence the relationship between leadership style and employee commitment.

5.3.2 Methods

In order to test the hypotheses, the study employs the Ordinary Least Squares (OLS) regression in terms of moderation and mediation analyses, available in the

181

PROCESS's Hayes (2013) of the SPSS version[4]. First, the means, standard deviations, and Pearson correlations between four main variables are examined. In the second stage (Model 1), the study evaluates the first hypothesised model by assessing the moderation process. The moderation analysis is conducted by testing for the interaction between the variable of trust in leaders and two components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal leadership variable and democratic leadership variable) in a model of organisational commitment. The evaluating regression coefficient and the standardised coefficient, which reflect the change of the relationship, are explained (Hair et al., 2010). Moreover, the moderation analysis controls for 12 industrial sectors. In the last stage (Model 2), mediation analysis is performed. To test the hypothesis, the mediating effect of trust in leaders in the relationship between two components of leadership style and organisational commitment is assessed by the conditions of a completely mediated model (Baron and Kenny, 1986). Additionally, this model also examines the influence of organisational culture by controlling the different industrial sectors. The results are shown in the next section.

5.4 Results

Prior to testing the hypotheses, the means, standard deviations, and correlations of all relevant study variables were examined as shown in Table 5.1. The results are as expected in that trust in leaders is positively associated with both components of leadership i.e. the interpersonal and democratic leadership style whilst both components of leadership and trust in leaders are all positively correlated with organisational

---

[4] More information on the PROCESS's Hayes (2013) is available at http://www.afhayes.com

commitment as an outcome. In particular, trust in leaders has the strongest correlations with organisational commitment (r= 0.581; p< 0.01).

The first hypothesis (H_{1a}) addresses the moderating employees' trust in their leaders on the relationship between both components of leadership and organisational commitment. The multiple linear regression analyses are conducted. This procedure is built on a bivariate (each component of leadership style-organisational commitment) regression and then adds trust in leaders and the interaction term (each component of leadership style ×Trust in leaders) to the regression model. Based on the multicollinearity problem, the centring data are required to all predictor variables in order to test an interaction between those variables in a regression model (Hayes, 2013). For centring the data, each variable is transformed into deviation around a fixed point typically using a mean, and then the mean is subtracted from each score (Field, 2011).

Table 5.1: Means, Standard deviations and Pearson Correlations between study variables

	Mean(SD)	1	2	3	4
1. Organisational commitment[1]	3.64(.843)	-			
2. Interpersonal Leadership style	3.88(.949)	.048**	-		
3. Democratic leadership style	3.87(.910)	.071**	.470**	-	
4. Overall employee's Trust in leaders	3.28(.986)	.584**	.039**	.042**	-

Note: * p< .05, ** p<.01 N=16,293
[1] Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

The next testing process of the moderating relationship is to determine whether trust in leaders is a moderator between two components of leadership and organisational commitment as shown in Table 5.2. The findings indicate that the main effects of both

183

components i.e. interpersonal and democratic leadership style on organisational commitment are positively significant ($B_{interpersonal}$ = .023, p < .001; $B_{democratic}$ = .043, p < .001). Additionally, the role of trust in leaders is highly positive correlated to organisational commitment (B_{Trust} = .498, p< .001). However, the moderating effect of trust in leaders on the relationship between the two components of leadership and organisational commitment are not significant. Thus, there is no support for II_{1a}. It implies that the role of trust in leader is not a moderator of both components of leadership and organisational commitment. In other words, with interpersonal and democratic components of leadership styles and employees' trust in their leaders have the direct association with organisational commitment regardless of the interaction of trust in their leaders.

Table 5.2: Moderated regressions on organisational commitment: Trust in leaders as a moderator

	Organisational commitment[1]				Organisational commitment[1]		
Variable	B	SE B	β	Variable	B	SE B	β
1. Interpersonal leadership	.023***	.006	.026	1. Democratic leadership	.043***	.006	.046
2. Trust in leaders	.498***	.005	.583	2. Trust in leaders	.497***	.005	.582
1×2	-.006	.006	-.006	1 ×2	-.011	.006	-.012
R^2	.341			R^2	.343		

Note: * p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001 N=16,293

[1] Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

To examine whether trust in leaders as a mediator intervenes in the relationship between both components (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components) of leadership style and organisational commitment in II_{1b}, the regression analysis is utilised. Baron and Kenny (1986) mention that the mediation occurred when it meets the following

184

conditions: (1) the independent variable is significantly affected on the presumed mediating variables (i.e. Path a), (2) the variable as a mediator is significantly affected on the dependent variables (i.e. Path b) and (3) the direct relationship between independent variable and dependent variable is no longer significant when the mediator is entered into the model (i.e. Path c') as shown in Figure 5.2.

Table 5.3 illustrates the results of the analysis and shows that the first two conditions of the mediation (i.e. Path a and Path b) are met. According to Path a, the relationship of both components of leadership and trust in leaders is directly positive significant ($B_{interpersonal}$ = .040; $B_{democratic}$ = .046, p < .001). Likewise, trust in leaders as a mediator is highly significant correlated to organisational commitment (Path b; $B_{trust\ within\ interpersonal}$ = .498; $B_{trust\ within\ democratic}$ = .497, p< .001). In terms of the third condition, the findings show that both components of leadership style are still significantly associated with organisational commitment (Path c': $B_{interpersonal}$ = .023; $B_{democratic}$ = .043, p < .001) when trust in leaders is entered as a mediator. However, the predictive powers of the relationship between both components of leadership and organisational commitment are weakened from the direct effect (Path C: $B_{interpersonal}$ = .043; $B_{democratic}$ = .065, p < .001). It indicates that trust in leaders does not fully mediate the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment (see also Appendix Figure 5.1). The partial mediation refers to the intervention of the variable that does not completely explain the relationship whilst the complete mediation implies that the mediating variable entirely explains the indirect relationship (Hayes, 2013).

Table 5.3: Mediated regressions on organisational commitment: Trust in leaders as a mediator

Model 1	Trust in leaders (B)	Organisational commitment (B)		Model 2	Trust in leaders (B)	Organisational commitment (B)	
	Direct	Direct	Indirect		Direct	Direct	Indirect
Interpersonal leadership style	.040***	.043***	.023***	Democratic leadership style	.046***	.065***	.043***
Trust in leaders			.498***	Trust in leaders			.497***
R^2			.341	R^2			.343

Note: * p< .05, ** p< .01, *** p< .001 N=16,293

[1] Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

As Baron and Kenny (1986) explain, the strongest demonstration of mediation occurs when the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment is non-significant when trust in leaders is entered into the model as mediator. Likewise, if this relationship remains significant but weakens the predictive power, it indicates the operation of multiple mediating factors. Therefore, H_{1b} is rejected based on trust in leaders as a partial mediating factor.

Testing hypotheses H_{2a} and H_{2b}, Table 5.4 shows the effect of trust in leaders as a moderator on the relationship of both components of leadership style and organisational commitment across industrial sectors. The coefficients for the direct relationship between trust in leaders and organisational commitment have strong positive significance in all industrial sectors. For the role of the moderating effect as mentioned earlier, trust moderates the relationship between leadership style and organisational commitment by interpreting the assessment of the potential leader's roles. Particularly, the moderating effect is considered by industrial sector differences.

Table 5.4: Moderated regressions on organisational commitment: Trust in leaders as a moderator in the industrial sectors

1. Manufacturing N= 2,613				2. Electricity, gas, and water N= 354				3. Construction N= 760			
Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.037**	1.Democratic leadership style	.051**	1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.014	1.Democratic leadership style	-.034	1. Interpersonal leadership style	.009	1.Democratic leadership style	.073**
2.Trust in leaders	.574***	2.Trust in leaders	.574***	2.Trust in leaders	.508***	2.Trust in leaders	.510***	2.Trust in leaders	.519***	2.Trust in leaders	.522***
3. 1× 2	-.039**	3. 1× 2	-.053**	3. 1× 2	-.058	3. 1× 2	.044	3. 1× 2	-.017	3. 1× 2	.016
R^2	.407	R^2	.410	R^2	.343	R^2	.348	R^2	.375	R^2	.385

4. Wholesale and retail N= 1,517				5. Hotels and restaurants N= 328				6. Transport and communication N= 1,093			
Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.020	1.Democratic leadership style	.061***	1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.016	1.Democratic leadership style	-.002	1. Interpersonal leadership style	.002	1.Democratic leadership style	.040
2.Trust in leaders	.414***	2.Trust in leaders	.414***	2.Trust in leaders	.458***	2.Trust in leaders	.445***	2.Trust in leaders	.485***	2.Trust in leaders	.487***
3. 1× 2	.026	3. 1× 2	-.002	3. 1× 2	-.016	3. 1× 2	-.030	3. 1× 2	-.005	3. 1× 2	.030
R^2	.271	R^2	.273	R^2	.307	R^2	.302	R^2	.309	R^2	.312

7. Financial services N= 1,074				8. Other business service N= 1,713				9. Public administration N= 1,463			
Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.052**	1.Democratic leadership style	.058*	1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.008	1.Democratic leadership style	.012	1. Interpersonal leadership style	.042*	1.Democratic leadership style	.071*
2.Trust in leaders	.466***	2.Trust in leaders	.464***	2.Trust in leaders	.511***	2.Trust in leaders	.509***	2.Trust in leaders	.451***	2.Trust in leaders	.451***
3. 1× 2	.002	3. 1× 2	-.032	3. 1× 2	-.012	3. 1× 2	-.022	3. 1× 2	.048	3. 1× 2	.045
R^2	.250	R^2	.249	R^2	.350	R^2	.350	R^2	.267	R^2	.265

10. Education N= 1,899				11. Health N= 2,560				12. Other community services N= 919			
Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)				Dependent variable: Organisational commitment (B)			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.008	1.Democratic leadership style	.005	1.Interpersonal leadership style	.003	1.Democratic leadership style	.005	1. Interpersonal leadership style	-.053	1.Democratic leadership style	.007
2.Trust in leaders	.487***	2.Trust in leaders	.487***	2.Trust in leaders	.470***	2.Trust in leaders	.457***	2.Trust in leaders	.428***	2.Trust in leaders	.422***
3. 1× 2	.008	3. 1× 2	.008	3. 1× 2	.003	3. 1× 2	-.013	3. 1× 2	-.075	3. 1× 2	.008
R^2	.374	R^2	.374	R^2	.334	R^2	.334	R^2	.261	R^2	.251

Note: * $p< .05$, ** $p<.01$, ***$p<.001$; Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

This means trust affects employees' interpretation of their leader's behaviours which reflects on organisational commitment. Similarly, Berscheid (1994) mentions that the level of trust is different based on individual's understanding of the relationship with the other party. However, the degree of organisational commitment may be different depending on the level of trust within organisational culture conditions. Thus, the influence of organisational culture may cause the differences of the employees' interpretation.

Interestingly, the findings indicate that the moderating trust in leaders on both components of leadership style, which reflects on organisational commitment, is significantly affected only in the manufacturing sector. Regarding the organisational culture of the different industrial sectors, the interaction between both components of leadership style and trust in leaders has a negative significance ($B_{interpersonal \times Trust} = -.039$ and $B_{democratic \times Trust} = -.053$, $p < .01$). Thus, H_{2a} is partially supported only for the manufacturing sector.

Another perspective of trust in leaders is a mediator which refers to the role of social exchange in terms of employees' risk-taking behaviour to their leaders. H_{2b} predicts that trust in leaders mediates the relationship between both components of leadership and organisational commitment specifically, based on the influence of organisational culture in the different industrial sectors. The mediating conditions of linear regression analysis (Baron and Kenny, 1986), Table 5.5 illustrates the results of these analyses that trust in leaders is not significantly associated with both components of leadership style in most industrial sectors. However, there are only three industrial sectors i.e. the education, other business services, and health sectors that all mediating conditions are met. The correlation between trust in leaders and both components of leadership is positively significant. In terms of the education sector, both components

Table 5.5: Mediated regressions on organisational commitment: Trust in leaders as a mediator in the industrial sectors

1. Manufacturing	Trust in leaders(B) Direct	Organisational commitment(B) Direct	Indirect	2. Electricity, gas, and water	Trust in leaders(B) Direct	Organisational commitment(B) Direct	Indirect	3. Construction	Trust in leaders(B) Direct	Organisational commitment(B) Direct	Indirect
Interpersonal leadership style	-.014	.029	.037*	Interpersonal leadership style	.052	.013	-.014	Interpersonal leadership style	.023	.020	.009
Trust in leaders			.574*	Trust in leaders			.508***	Trust in leaders			.519***
R^2			.405	R^2			.346	R^2			.377
Democratic leadership style	-.004	.049**	.054***	Democratic leadership style	.089	.011	-.034	Democratic leadership style	-.030	.058	.073**
Trust in leaders			.574***	Trust in leaders			.510***	Trust in leaders			.522***
R^2			.406	R^2			.347	R^2			.385
N= 2,613				N= 354				N= 760			

4. Wholesale and retail	Trust in leaders Direct	Organisational commitment Direct	Indirect	5. Hotels and restaurants	Trust in leaders Direct	Organisational commitment Direct	Indirect	6. Transport and communication	Trust in leaders Direct	Organisational commitment Direct	Indirect
Interpersonal leadership style	.011	.025	.020	Interpersonal leadership style	.207***	.079	-.016	Interpersonal leadership style	-.016	-.006	.002
Trust in leaders			.414***	Trust in leaders			.458***	Trust in leaders			.485***
R^2			.270	R^2			.307	R^2			.309
Democratic leadership style	.012	.066**	.061***	Democratic leadership style	.128*	.056	-.002	Democratic leadership style	-.076*	.003	.040
Trust in leaders			.414***	Trust in leaders			.455***	Trust in leaders			.487***
R^2			.274	R^2			.307	R^2			.311
N= 1,517				N= 328				N= 1,093			

Table 5.5: Mediated regression on organisational commitment: Trust in leaders as a mediator in the industrial sectors (Continue)

7. Financial services	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment		8. Other business service	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment		9. Public administration	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment	
	Direct	Direct	Indirect		Direct	Direct	Indirect		Direct	Direct	Indirect
Interpersonal leadership style	.001	.053*	.052**	Interpersonal leadership style	.088***	.037	-.008	Interpersonal leadership style	.006	.049*	.047*
Trust in leaders			.466***	Trust in leaders			.511***	Trust in leaders			.452***
R^2			.250	R^2			.350	R^2			.265
Democratic leadership style	.032	.073*	.058*	Democratic leadership style	.092***	.059**	.012	Democratic leadership style	.028	.083*	.071*
Trust in leaders			.464***	Trust in leaders			.509***	Trust in leaders			.451***
R^2			.249	R^2			.350	R^2			.265
N= 1,074				N= 1,713				N= 1,463			

10. Education	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment		11. Health	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment		12. Other community services	Trust in leaders	Organisational commitment	
	Direct	Direct	Indirect		Direct	Direct	Indirect		Direct	Direct	Indirect
Interpersonal leadership style	.104***	.058**	.008	Interpersonal leadership style	.083***	.042*	.003	Interpersonal leadership style	.092*	-.012	-.051
Trust in leaders			.487***	Trust in leaders			.470***	Trust in leaders			.426***
R^2			.374	R^2			.334	R^2			.256
Democratic leadership style	.154***	.079**	.005	Democratic leadership style	.071**	.038	.005	Democratic leadership style	.112**	.054	.007
Trust in leaders			.487***	Trust in leaders			.047***	Trust in leaders			.422***
R^2			.374	R^2			.334	R^2			.253
N= 1,899				N= 2,560				N= 919			

Note: * p< .05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001; Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

of leadership and organisational commitment is positively significant (i.e. in education sector: $B_{interpersonal} = .058$, $p < .01$; $B_{democratic} = .079$, $p < .01$) and when trust in leaders is entered into the relationship, it becomes non-significant.

Interestingly, in the health sector, only the interpersonal component of leadership style significantly predict organisational commitment ($B_{interpersonal} = .042$, $p < .05$). Likewise, in the other business service, the mediating effect of trust in leaders on only the democratic leadership style is significantly associated with organisational commitment ($B_{democratic} = .059$, $p < .01$). In the same vein, when entering employee trust in leaders as a mediator to these relationship, the relationship between interpersonal (in health) and democratic (in other business service) components and organisational commitment are not significant.

This implies that these relationships provide strong evidence for a single dominant mediator, which is the role of trust in leaders in the other business service, education, and health sectors. Thus, H_{2b} is partially supported in terms of the other business services, education, and health sectors.

5.5 Discussion and implications

The purpose of this chapter was to explore the effect of trust in leaders as a moderator and as a mediator of the relationship between two components (i.e. the interpersonal and democratic components) of leadership style and organisational commitment. The results of correlation analyses reveal the two component of leadership to be interrelated constructs. This means that the two components of leadership style at organisational level influence organisational commitment but their effectiveness is affected by employee trust in their leaders.

191

The findings further reveal that the interaction between both components of leadership at the organisational level and trust in leaders, which affect on organisational commitment is not uniformly significant across all industrial sectors. Specifically, the results reveal that the moderating effect of trust in leaders on both components of leadership is negative and statistically significant in the manufacturing sector. This finding is contrary to the original hypothesis and contradicts the previous research that has examined the moderating trust in leaders on the leadership style and organisational commitment (e.g. Bass and Avolio, 1994; Goodwin et al., 2011; Otken and Cenkei, 2012). Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) and Schein (2004) propose that the members of different organisational cultures across sectors typically have different norms, background experiences, values, and beliefs. Thus, the organisational culture influences the interaction of people; clearly, it is highly displayed in the particular sectors i.e. manufacturing sector.

Quinn and Rohrbaugh (1981) highlight four forms that identify the organisational culture: markets cultures (control systems based on finance), hierarchical culture (individual roles and limits of authority), clan culture (shared values and beliefs), and adhocracy culture (dynamic and creative). Likewise, Bates et al. (1995) reveal that the manufacturing sector is more likely to be characterised by a strong hierarchical culture. Organisations with a hierarchical culture operate with formalised rules within a highly structured workplace and people within the organisation tend to interact with each other as part of an internal operation. Generally, this structure is found in traditional large manufacturing companies (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012). Regarding the theoretical content, leadership within a hierarchical culture is more concerned about the management of information and monitoring the detail operations to achieve the reliable operation as task-oriented behaviour. Although the findings show that the direct relationship between both components (i.e. interpersonal and democratic) leadership

style and organisational commitment has a positively significant association, the result shows the negative effect on organisational commitment when using trust as a moderator on the main relationship. Dirks and Ferrin (2001) suggest that even though there are two models (i.e. the main effect and moderation effect) which are valid, one model will better describe than the other when giving a particular situation. For instance, the influence of the situation (e.g. organisational culture) has a strong effect on the model, consequently the outcomes show the particular way of moderation effect (e.g. House, Shane and Herold, 1996).

According to the influence of the manufacturing culture, the degree of trust declines due to the employees' interpretation of relationship with their leaders. These are two components of leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic) related to the employees' cultural norms (i.e. task-oriented). In the role of two components of leadership style, employees are required to challenge innovation and encouraged to dissent in their work, which they may have high levels of role conflict, ambiguity, and stress in the workplace. Consequently, the degree of employee's trust in their leaders decreases which facilitates the decline in relationship between leaders and employees. As a result, it reflects negatively on organisational commitment. Thus, the leaders should be concerned with the extensive use of a participative approach, specifically with the blue-collar employees in the manufacturing culture who may be not familiar with participation in decision-making. On the other hand, considering other organisational culture related to sectors, the results show non-significant effects of the moderation between trust and two components of leadership style on organisational commitment. This can be explained by the study of Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) that mostly there are no single types of organisational culture that can be determined. In other words, the organisations are complex and need to survive, so they may require a combination of the four types of organisational culture to enhance

organisational value. Thus, when employing trust as a moderator in a weak or mixed condition, the main relationship is likely more significant. Additionally, the main relationship of two components of leadership style and organisational commitment has a positively and significant association. Based on defining leadership style by extracted management policies, the influence of management policies may play a main role in changing the organisational culture in terms of the interaction between leader and employee particularly toward the work-related attitude i.e. organisational commitment.

In terms of the mediation analysis, the study examines the potential mediating effect of the trust in leaders on the relationship between the two components of leadership style and organisational commitment. The findings demonstrate that the role of trust in leaders as a partial mediator. Although trust in leaders partially mediates both components of leadership and organisational commitment, we are cautious to claim that trust in leaders is the main, most important factor influencing the effectiveness of leadership in promoting employee organisational commitment. As Hayes (2013) argues, partial mediation calls for the need to identify 'other mechanisms'. Moreover, the direct relationship remains efficient in the mediation analysis. Therefore, partial mediation is an ineffective explanation the phenomenon. This implies that the management policies in terms of leadership style facilitate the organisational commitment not only via trust in leaders but also directly affect the organisational commitment.

However, when we consider the influence of industrial sectors into the mediation analysis, the results indicate the effective mediation of trust in leaders in the particular industrial sectors i.e. the education, health and other business service. Based on the organisational culture, the education sector is relevant to communication and service processes, which are positively associated with the two components of

leadership style. The culture of the educational sector is about creating and sharing knowledge (Omerzel, Biloslavo and Trnavcevic, 2011), which involves interaction and effective communication. Moreover, the values and beliefs are influenced by the decision-making processes. This implies that the more the organisational culture in industrial sector is related to both components of leadership style, the more trust in leadership increases. As predicted, the findings demonstrate trust in leaders to be a primary source of the relationship of the two components of leadership and organisational commitment. However, in the health sector, the mediating effect of trust in leaders is only confirmed for the interpersonal leadership style. Indeed, the health sector has multiple organisations, which have two aspects to shape organisational culture and inspire loyalty to the organisation i.e. transformational leadership and autonomy decision-making (Franco, Bennett and Kanfer, 2002). It implies that the organisational culture in the health sector tend to focus on autocratic decision-making rather than democratic decision-making. Likewise, the business sector is concerned outcomes and performance which are driven predominantly by extrinsic reward (Georgellis, Iossa and Tabvuma, 2011). It is more likely related to task-oriented than interpersonal-oriented attributes. Additionally, employees' trust in their leaders is required to achieve organisational goals such as the participation in leader-employee decision-making. Thus, the findings show trust in leaders mediates only democratic component which positively reflects on organisational commitment.

By and large, the primary purpose of this study is to explore two alternative models (i.e. moderation and mediation models) of trust which interact with the relationship between the two components of leadership style and organisational commitment. The results extend understanding the role of trust in leaders which shows different impacting outcomes (i.e. organisational commitment) depending on the conditions, particularly with organisational culture. As Dirks and Ferrin (2001) and

195

House, Shane and Herold (1996) point out that the influence of the strength of conditions can provide a strong effect on employees to interpret events (e.g. leaders roles) in a different way. Regardless of organisational culture, the findings in this chapter found that trust in leaders does not provide clear guidance to the relationship between the two components of leadership style and organisational commitment. However, when considering the condition of organisational culture, the results of this chapter suggest that trust plays a potential moderating role in this relationship, by changing it strength and even possibly its direction within the strength of the organisational culture i.e. manufacturing sector. Likewise, trust can completely mediate the relationship of leadership style and organisational commitment depending on the context of the organisational culture which is more associated with the relational-oriented leadership style i.e. education, other business service and health sectors.

The generalisability of the results needs to be considered in light of the limitations of the study. First, the subject of this study is to examine the potential linkage of the practical management policies to employee outcomes in terms of leadership style. However, management policies are the latent variables of leadership style, which are extracted by the definition of two components of leadership. This may not generalise to individuals with leadership behaviours that relate to employees' organisational commitment. Moreover, this study interprets the leadership style in two components i.e. interpersonal and democratic leadership style as a single-item measure of key variables in the management policies; whereas Milgrom and Roberts (1995) mention that the practical management policies are performed in a set of policies rather than in a single policy. Thus, future research should place more emphasis on the set of leadership policies rather than considering the direct policies in terms of dichotomous leadership style (i.e. feminine vs. masculine leadership style). Second, the survey tends to minimise social desirability by assuring anonymity. However, the data still show

some social bias or a tendency in terms of the favourable view of participants' responding (Nederhof, 1985). In this chapter, social desirability bias may contain trust in leaders and organisational commitment, which are viewed favourably by employees. Finally, this chapter is cross-sectional study and data is employed in both surveys i.e. the management and employee survey. In terms of the management survey, the measurement is based on the report of one management respondent. This evidence provides the link of leader-follower at organisational level, but the dataset does not offer the leader's characteristics. Thus, the study needs to be concerned with the interpretation of the findings because of the inability to extend on the observation of leader-follower characteristics in terms of control variables.

Implications

The chapter investigates the practical management policies by focusing on leadership style toward the employee work-related attitudes. Both components (i.e. interpersonal and democratic) of leadership style within the management policies are effectively related to the employees' organisational commitment. This implies that managers need to consider how their behaviour affects the effectiveness of management policies in terms of enhancing employee commitment. In doing so, management policies in practice need to be embedded into the realm of leaders' behaviour and leadership style. Consequently, managerial policies can support the managers who may have little experience and an incongruent type of behaviour at the workplace to build the employee work-related attitudes.

From a management policies perspective, we also suggest that priority should be given to interpersonal and democratic components of leadership style, which play an important role in employees' trust in their leaders and reflect on organisational

commitment in the particular industrial sectors. However, regardless of industrial sectors, the overall results are not significant in terms of the moderating and the partial mediating trust in leaders. Future study should also explore the operation of other possible conditional process analysis. The integration of moderation and mediation analysis in empirical work could be a promising way forward. Moreover, Hayes (2013) supports that the complete mediator is more desirable than the partial mediation, which relates to the sample size. He claims that the small sample size is the best for investigating the mediation based on the sufficiency to prevent the direct effect. It is recommended that in future research the sample size should be controlled for when comparing the influence of organisational culture in the different industrial sectors. Furthermore, research needs to scrutinise differences in organisational cultures at the micro-level, across groups, teams, and departments in contemporary organisations for a more disaggregated level of mediation analysis.

Chapter 6

Conclusion and implications of research findings

6.1 Introduction

This thesis explored the quintessence of leadership in terms of its antecedents and consequences, in the context of specific traits and behaviour of leaders. In terms of the antecedents of leadership, the thesis focused on the big-five personality traits as important defining characteristics of leaders. Moreover, the study emphasised the moderating influence of demographic factors, with gender being a central theme throughout the analysis. To identify the most influential and distinguishing personality traits of managers, we used data on personality, demographic and labour market characteristics from the British Household Panel Survey (BHPS) for the period 1991 to 2008. The longitudinal nature of the data and the large sample sizes (55,225 person year observations) that it allowed us to utilise offer further credence to the statistical significance and reliability of our findings.

In terms of the consequences of leadership, the study explored how alternative leadership styles impact upon employee attitudes in the workplace, their job satisfaction, their well-being at work and their organisational commitment, all of which could be considered as standard measures of leadership effectiveness. For this part of the investigation, we use data from the Workplace and Employment Relations Survey (WERS 2004), a large survey of about 15,000 individuals in 1,700 establishments, which allows using information at the organisational level (managers' questionnaire) and at the individual level (employee questionnaire). Throughout our analysis, we

define leadership styles at the organisational level by identifying managerial policies in place to support employee work-related attitudes and well-being. Particular emphasis is placed on the importance of gender diversity of managers in order to explore the effect of gender roles on leadership styles, which in turn reflect on employee outcomes. Our analysis identifies four distinct leadership styles demarcated along gender lines: (i) task-oriented; (ii) interpersonal-oriented; (iii) autocratic; and (iv) democratic. Using the WERS data, we offer some answers to the question of which one of these styles is the most effective in improving employee well-being and organisational commitment. A related question is whether employees' trust in their leaders is an important moderator or a mediator in this relationship.

6.2 A summary of research findings

6.2.1 Do personality traits predict the choice of managerial jobs? : Gender and sector differences

This research question is evaluated in the broader context of the antecedents of incidence of leadership and managerial roles across gender and sector lines. By and large, the findings suggest that in the big five personality traits matter for individuals aspiring to a managerial position. We have addressed this question in chapter 3, with the following main findings emerging from our analysis:

1. The personality traits predict whether individuals become managers

The investigation of the FFM of personality traits shows that individuals in managerial positions have a higher degree of *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Openness to experience* and a lower degree of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* than non-managers. Furthermore, exploring gender differences in managerial positions shows that female managers score higher than males in all five-dimensions of the big five personality traits.

The most significant demographic characteristic that defines and underscores the observed gender differences in managerial roles is marital status. The results suggest that females more than males in managerial positions are single, whilst male managers are more likely to be married and having children. Additionally, the influence of other demographic and workplace factors such as health, length of work hours, and annual incomes is more salient for male than for female managers. The educational level of females and males in managerial positions is similar on average.

2. Gender moderates the effect of personality on the probability of becoming a manager

The estimated marginal effects of the probability of securing a managerial position reveal that *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Openness to experience* have a stronger positive effect in the case of females than in the case of males. On the other hand, the probability effect of *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* dimensions for male managers is negative and quantitatively stronger than for females in managerial positions.

Further investigation of the influence of demographic factors on the probability of a managerial position, highlights important gender differences. Interestingly, such differences are linked to differences in marital status. The results show that for female employees there is a negative and significant correlation between the probability of being a manager and being married with children. In contrast, for men in managerial positions there is a positive probability effect of being married, while there is association of managerial position and having children.

3. The influence of sector differences on the relationship between personality and managerial positions

Comparing the marginal effects of organisational sectors between females and males in managerial positions, the most significant findings relate to the private firms and non-profit organisational sectors. The marginal effects of organisational sectors show that compared to men, women have a higher probability of being managers in both private firms and non-profit organisational sectors. This finding is further supported by the results of the multivariate regression analysis.

The study investigates the influence of sector differences focusing on two main perspectives i.e. the gender role perspective (feminine oriented and masculine oriented sectors) and the intrinsic motivation perspective (public and private sectors). Within this framework, the influence of the three personality traits (i.e. *Conscientiousness*, *Extraversion* and *Openness to experience*), which are positively associated with managerial positions, is explored separately for each of the main organisational sectors.

In terms of the gender role approach concerning sector differences, the results show that *Conscientiousness* increases the probability of a managerial role for females

mostly in masculine oriented sectors (i.e. Private, central government and local government sectors). This probability is lower and statistically insignificant in feminine oriented sectors (i.e. NHS, higher education, and non-profit organisational sectors). On the other hand, there is no significant effect of *Conscientiousness* on males in managerial positions in any organisational sector.

Openness to experience is positively associated with both females and males in managerial positions. However, when comparing the magnitude of marginal effects between females and males, the results of *Openness to experience* within the influence of feminine oriented sectors are stronger for males than females in managerial positions. Likewise, *Extraversion* is significant for female than male managers in masculine oriented sectors but not significant in feminine oriented sectors. Additionally, the distinct finding within the influence of sector differences relates to the role of the *Agreeableness* dimension of personality. Female managers score lower in *Agreeableness* in masculine oriented sectors. Likewise, male managers are less Agreeable in feminine oriented sectors (i.e. NHS and higher education sectors). Exploring sector differences in terms of intrinsic motivation, the results show that in the private sector, the positive effect of *Conscientiousness*, *Extraversion* and *Openness to experience* on female managers is stronger than that for males.

6.2.2 Does gender diversity moderate the relationship between leadership style and employee job satisfaction related well-being?

This question, introduced in chapter 4, addresses the consequences of leadership in terms of specific employee outcomes, i.e. employee job satisfaction and well-being. Moreover, in the present study, we consider how leadership style is related to managerial policies and whether a clear dichotomy exists along gender lines. Our

results generally support the relationship between the two components of feminine leadership style i.e. interpersonal and democratic leadership and employee job satisfaction and well-being at the organisational level. More importantly, the study also shows the effect of managers' gender diversity (the proportion of female managers) as a moderator of the interaction between leaders and employees. The analysis and findings in Chapter 4 offers some valuable insight regarding the following three points:

1. The empirical distinction of the relationship between feminine leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being

The interaction between leaders and employees is affected by managers' leadership style, with a direct effect on employee outcomes i.e. job satisfaction and well-being. The results show that the managerial approach toward employee outcomes is more likely to be in line with a feminine leadership style in the workplace. In this chapter, we claim that although both dimensions i.e. interpersonal and democratic leadership styles are positively associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being, the interpersonal leadership style has a stronger direct effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being.

2. The effective relationship between feminine leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being by using the gender diversity of managers as a moderator

In this part of the investigation, the purpose was to assess the influence of managers' gender diversity on employee outcomes as a potential moderator of the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes. The results suggest that

in terms of the direct effect of the proportion of female managers (gender diversity) on both components of feminine leadership style is positively associated with employee job satisfaction and well-being. However, when using the proportion of female managers as a moderator into the relationship between leadership style and employee outcomes, the results change. Only the proportion of female managers turns out to have a moderating effect on how interpersonal leadership style influences employee job satisfaction and well-being. The findings emerging from this study suggest that the democratic leadership style is less relevant in terms of managers' gender role than the interpersonal leadership style.

3. Comparing the democratic and the interpersonal leadership styles to predict employee job satisfaction and well-being: Does gender diversity of managers moderate this relationship?

The study has established that the interaction between the gender diversity of managers and leadership style reflects on employee outcomes. The influence of a homogeneous female workforce further interacts with the proportion of female of managers to affect only employee well-being, but not employee job satisfaction specifically. On the other hand, the influence of a homogeneous male workforce does not interact with the proportion of female managers on employee outcomes. Thus, the gender diversity of managers matters as a moderating force of how both feminine leadership style impact upon employee job satisfaction and well-being.

6.2.3 Is trust in leaders a moderator or mediator of the relationship between leadership style and employee organisational commitment?

A key finding of the thesis is about the role that employee trust in their leaders plays in influencing leadership effectiveness focusing on employee organisational commitment as the main outcome. The findings, in Chapter 5, show that both components of feminine leadership style (i.e. interpersonal and democratic leadership style) are positively associated with employee commitment. However, the findings also show that the effect of trust in leaders matters as a mediator and/or a moderator in the case of both components of feminine leadership styles as determinants of employee organisational commitment. Interestingly, whether trust is a moderator or a mediator is contingent upon the specific industrial sector that the organisation operates. To explain these findings, we argue that leadership style is related to specific managerial policies that enhance employee commitment. Such policies could only be effective within an appropriate organisational culture, which apparently differ across the various sectors of the economy. As a result, trust in leaders turns out to operate as a moderator of how leadership affects employee commitment in more specific sectors, whilst in other sectors it operates a mediator.

6.3 Contributions of research

The present study confirms previous findings and contributes additional evidence on the quintessence of leadership effectiveness in terms of antecedents and consequences. Moreover, the study enhances our understanding of gender differences in managerial positions, as underpinned by differences in personality traits and

leadership styles across organisational sectors. More specifically, the thesis contributes to the existing literature in the following ways.

The thesis explores gender differences in personality and managerial roles using a large-scale, longitudinal data set (i.e. the BHPS), not commonly utilized in previous studies. The large samples and the availability of a large number of demographic and personal characteristics to use as controls in the multivariate analyses offer some reassurance about the statistical accuracy of the estimated effects. Estimating marginal effects rather than just reporting the statistical significance of the coefficients adds an additional methodological advantage that allows us to assess the magnitude and the quantitative significance of the relevant effects. The present study confirms previous findings that gender in managerial positions differs and contributes additional evidence in terms of the gender gap in managerial positions. The FFM of personality traits, which this study has identified therefore assists in the understanding of the gender difference in managerial positions. Females in managerial positions not only have more distinctive personality traits, but there is also a hint that they face more pressure than male managers to perform. This is true to the extent at which female managers need to score higher in *Conscientiousness, Extraversion,* and *Openness to experience* as a way of breaking the career barriers they face in the workplace. Nevertheless, *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* dimensions of females are higher than males in managerial positions. These findings also make a noteworthy contribution to both dimensions (i.e. *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism*) of personality traits that can be a barrier to promote females in managerial positions. In terms of the influence of demographics on gender gap in managerial positions, the study supports the previous literature that the number of family-oriented women executives and young mothers is limited in high positions (Guillaume and Pochic, 2009).

To date, there is only sparse evidence on the link between personality and leadership/managerial roles that accounts for sector differences. The thesis offers a unifying empirical framework that investigates the complex interaction between the big five personality traits, gender, organisational sector, leadership, and leadership outcomes. This unifying empirical framework allows us to test and confirm the prediction of the congruent role theory (Eagly and Karau, 2002; Johnson et al., 2008) that female managers who are in masculine oriented sectors have stronger personalities than their peer male managers do.

The thesis offers one of the first analyses of how gender diversity in management interacts with gender diversity in the workforce to moderate the effect of leadership style on employee outcomes, including well-being and job satisfaction. Such an analysis was only made possible by utilising a large-scale, matched employee-employer data set (i.e. the WERS 2004). The findings support previous findings by Korte and Wynne (1996) that the managerial approach toward employee outcomes is more likely in line with a feminine leadership style. Moreover, the findings add to a growing body of literature on comparing the two components of feminine leadership style in employee job satisfaction and well-being. This study demonstrates, for the first time, that interpersonal leadership style has a stronger direct effect on employee job satisfaction and well-being than the democratic leadership style. This can explain that leaders who have a role of interpersonal leadership style are more concerned with employees' interaction by assisting and encouraging employees (Eagly and Johnson, 1990) which meets the employees' needs toward increasing their job satisfaction and well-being. Whilst, the democratic leadership style is about employees, it makes a particular emphasis on decision-making at work (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001) which may be too narrow for the interaction between leaders and employees. Likewise, some blue-collar employees may need to be supervised and paid attention by their

leaders rather than involved in participation or decision-making. Therefore, the magnitude of association between the democartic leadership style and employee job satisfaction and well-being is slightly lower than interpersonal leadership style.

The present study also explores the gender diversity of managers to enhance understanding of the congruent gender role theory (Eagly and Johannesen-Schmidt, 2001; Elsesser and Lever, 2011; Schein, 1975) within the influence of organisational gender diversity. By doing this, we investigate the interaction between the proportion of female managers and feminine leadership style reflects on employee job satisfaction and well-being considering organisational gender diversity. The results show that the gender role of leader-employee matters, which reflects on employee job satisfaction and well-being particularly for a feminine homogeneous workforce.

A large body of literature claims that the interaction between leaders and employees pays an important role in building employee organisational commitment (e.g. Allen and Meyer, 1996; Avolio et al., 2004; Mowday, Porter and Streers, 1982; Rhodes and Steers, 1981; Wallace, Chernatony and Buil; 2013). However, the previous findings are still ambiguous about which leadership style in terms of the gender oriented approach is more appropriate to build employee organisational commitment. Additionally, there is no empirical study based on such a large dataset (WERS2004) that supports the role of trust in leaders as a moderator and mediator in the relationship between leadership style and employee organisational commitment, especially taking into account organisational cultural differences across sectors. The current study confirms previous findings that the two components of leadership style at the organisational level (i.e. interpersonal and democratic components), which are extracted from the management policies in this chapter, influence the organisational commitment and have the association with the employees' role of trust in their leaders. Our findings

offer valuable insight on the role of employee trust in leaders as a moderator and/or mediator of this relationship. Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy (2012) and Schein (2004) propose that the organisational culture influences the interaction of people, which is clearly displayed in specific sectors. For example, the manufacturing sector is characterised by a hierarchical culture, which can be explained by the lack of ambiguity and less stress in the workplace as employees (Hughes, Ginnett and Curphy, 2012). The disaggregated analysis by industrial sectors, offers some of the first evidence that trust in leaders could only be a partial mediator in certain sectors and under certain circumstances. Yet, the results show that there is effective mediation of the role of trust in leaders within both the education and other business service sectors, which rely on similar organisational culture. Both sectors are relevant to the communication and service processes, which involve the interaction and the effectiveness of the communication (Omerzel, Biloslavo, and Trnavcevic, 2011). It implies that the more the organisational culture in industrial sectors is related to both components of leadership style i.e. interpersonal and communication oriented approach, the more the trust in leaders increases as an indirect approach to build employee organisational commitment.

6.4 Implications of research

The findings of this study have a number of important practical implications. Throughout the study, there are two levels for discussion i.e. the implication of research for organisations and for individuals concerning managerial positions.

6.4.1 The implication of research for individuals concerning managerial positions

According to the antecedents of leaders, the findings of FFM of personality traits suggest that individuals need to be self-aware of their personalities as well as the influence of demographics before they aspire to pursue leadership/managerial careers. Based on the well-documented gender gap in managerial positions, the FFM of personality traits matters more for females rather than males in managerial positions. Particularly, females should be concerned with the *Agreeableness* and *Neuroticism* dimensions of their personality, which could pose a serious obstacle to being promoted to managerial positions. In contrast, the *Conscientiousness* dimension is likely to be a primary asset for females in managerial positions. In contemporary organisations with less hierarchical structures, the need for high levels of *Conscientiousness* becomes more important. DeRue et al. (2011) argue that leaders, who score highly in *Conscientiousness*, tend to improve the overall performance of their teams as refered to the effective leaders. Thus, males should be more concerned with in developing to be high potential leaders in terms of the *Conscientiousness* dimension. However, because personality traits are stable and inherited, personality traits are more suitable to be changed and developed by the time a person reaches adulthood. Thus, both the family and the education sectors should participate in developing the personality traits in childhood, particularly in females for overcoming the barriers of the gender gap for entry into managerial positions. Due to the obstacle of being managers for women with high level of Agreeableness and Neuroticism, the intensive training in decision-making and target incentive system may support reducing the level of both dimensions. Likewise, Costa and McCrae (1988) and Digman (1989) argue that personality traits can be developed within appropriate programmes and experiences. This means women may need more time for practice in order to decrease the level of Agreeableness and

211

Neuroticism and to have more working confidence to achieve their leadership positions. Nevertheless, the programmes will be useful for training in childhood by supporting of family and education sectors. For instance, parents or teachers should encourage and support their children to make decisions by themselves and educate them to realise the importance of gender equality. As a result, it will increase the level of self-confidence and self-esteem and develop social gender equality that is necessary for being a leader in future.

An implication of the findings concerning the consequences of leadership effectiveness should be taken into account in terms of the effect of gender role on leadership style toward employee work related attitudes. The findings are likely to support that female managers adopting a feminine leadership style have the potential to have a great impact on employee work-related attitudes. Our results suggest that in order to influence employee outcomes more effectively, female managers should keep their roles in line with the interpersonal component of leadership. Likewise, the study suggests that male managers should adapt their behaviour to be more assisting to employees and treating them more fairly in order to be more compatible with contemporary organisations.

6.4.2 Practical implications for organisations

Perhaps not surprisingly, our findings have important implications for organisations aiming at hiring the right person into the right managerial/leadership role. The findings on the role of personality traits, gender, leadership style, and differences in organisational culture across sectors offer valuable insight for designing effective selection and recruitment strategies. Moreover, the findings on the big five personality traits could offer useful guidance to human resource managers in considering personal

development, job rotation, and promotions schemes tailored to the needs and specific organisational culture within their sector. Likewise, based on demographic factors, organisations should develop a greater awareness of how such demographics affect gender equality and the work-life balance of their managers that ultimately are key drivers behind the gender gap in managerial positions. As mentioned earlier, one problem with the gender gap in managerial positions relates to the differences in working time arrangements. This directly affects on women with marital status and having children. Therefore, organisations should be more concerned in terms of developing equality in management policies e.g. provision of child care, maternity protection in working time and social rights in gender equality. Moreover, based on recruitment for managerial positions, gender equality should be persistent in human resource practices. For instance, the selection should be concerned with what the requirements are for the job rather than gender or the downgrading of women with family responsibilities.

In terms of the consequences of leadership effectiveness, the study investigates leadership styles at organisational level toward employee work-related attitudes. The findings of these leadership styles by extracting the managerial policies, therefore, could be used to develop targeted interventions aimed in terms of the managerial policies as a pathway of the effective leaders. Moreover, Elsesser and Lever (2011) mention that when the management role becomes more of a communal affair, female managers tend to engage more with such an approach. This communal approach is likely to reduce the extent and incidence of gender discrimination in managerial positions. Thus, organisations should provide managerial policies in terms of the feminine managerial approach, which is consistent with the trend in contemporary organisations that support less autocratic styles.

6.5 Limitations and suggestions for future research

There are several ways in which the analysis could be extended in the future to address some of its limitations. First, whilst the study makes significant progress in exploring sector differences in the relationship between personality, leadership and employee outcomes, further disaggregation at the occupational level could be particularly insightful.

In terms of the consequences of the effective leadership, which are discussed in chapter 4 and 5, the study defines leadership styles by extracting from the managerial policies, which are able to remove the stereotype in answering research questions; however, these leadership styles are at organisational perspective. Moreover, this study interprets the leadership style within the managerial policies, which aims to investigate the dichotomous gender approach of leadership style in two components i.e. decision-making and the relations components as a single-item measure of key variables. This may be limited in generalising the individual managerial perspective. Furthermore, the practical management policies are usually implemented as a bundle of policies rather than as a single policy. Future work could explore specific managerial policies vis-a-vis specific leadership behaviours at a greater level of disaggregation.

Finally, whilst the use of the WERS2004 dataset offers a some great advantages in linking managers' and employees' perspectives within the same organisations, the data does not allow for exploring the temporal variation of the relationship between personality, leadership and employee outcomes. Identifying and using similar data sets, that much managers and employees, but with the added time dimension would allow for methodologically important contribution in this area of inquiry, as it will allow us to identify the direction of the causal relationship between leadership style and employee work related attitudes more accurately.

References

Ackerman, P. L. and Heggestad, E. D. 1997. Intelligence, personality and interest: Evidence for overlapping traits. *Psychological Bulletin*, 121: 219-245.

Agarwal, S. and Ramaswami, S. 1993. Affective organizational commitment of salespeople: An expanded model. *Journal of Personal Selling & Sale Management*, 13(2): 40-70.

Albrecht, S. and Travaglione, A. 2003. Trust in public-sector senior management. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1): 76-92.

Alimo-Metcalfe, B. 2013. A critical review of leadership theory. In II. S. Leonard, R. Lewis, A. M. Freedman and J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change, and organizational development*: 15-35. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Allen, N. J. and Meyer, J. P. 1996. Affective, continuance and normative commitment to the organization: An examination of construct validity. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 49(3): 252-276.

Alvesson, M. and Due Billing, Y. 1997. *Understanding gender and organization*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Armstrong, P. I. and Anthoney, S. F. 2009. Personality facets and RIASEC interests: An integrated model. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 75(3): 346-359.

Arnold, K. A., Barling, J. and Kelloway, E. K. 2001. Transformational leadership or the iron cage: Which predicts trust, commitment and team efficacy? *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 22(7): 315-320.

Arvey, R. D., Rotundo, M., Johnson, W., Zhang, Z. and McGue, M. 2006. The determinants of leadership role occupancy: Genetic and personality factors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(1): 1-20.

Aryee, S., Budhwar, P. S. and Xiong Chen, Z. 2002. Trust as a mediator of the relationship between organizational justice and work outcomes: Test of a social exchange model. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 23(3): 267-285.

Avery, G. C. 2004. *Understanding leadership: Paradigms and cases*. London: Sage Publications Ltd.

Avolio, B. J. 2007. Promoting more integrative strategies for leadership theory-building. *American Psychologist*, 62(1): 25-33.

Avolio, B. J. and Gibbons, T. C. 1988. Developing transformational leaders: A lifespan approach. In J. A. Conger and R. N. Kanungo (Eds.), *Charismatic leadership* 276-308. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Avolio, B. J., Mhatre, K., Norman, S. M. and Lester, P. 2009. The Moderating Effect of Gender on Leadership Intervention Impact: An Exploratory Review. *Journal of Leadership & Organizational Studies*, 15(4): 325-341.

Avolio, B. J., Zhu, W., Koh, W. and Bhatia, P. 2004. Transformational leadership and organizational commitment: Mediating role of psychological empowerment and moderating role of structural distance. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 25(8): 951-968.

Ayman, R. and Korabik, K. 2010. Why gender and culture matter. *American Psychologist*, 65(3): 157-170.

Balthazard, P. A., Waldman, D. A. and Warren, J. E. 2009. Predictors of the emergence of transformational leadership in virtual decision teams. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(5): 651-663.

Barling, J., Weber, T. and Kelloway, E. K. 1996. Effects of transformational leadership training on attitudinal and financial outcomes: a field experiment. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 81(6): 827-832.

Baron, R. M. and Kenny, D. A. 1986. The moderator-mediator variable distinction in social psychological research: Conceptual, strategic and statistical considerations. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 51(6): 1173-1182.

Barrick, M. R. and Mount, M. K. 1991. The big five personality dimension and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Personnel Psychology* 44(1): 1-26.

Barrick, M. R. and Mount, M. K. 2005. Yes, personality matters: Moving on to more important matters. *Human Performance*, 18(4): 359-372.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K. and Gupta, R. 2003. Meta-analysis of the relationship between the five-factor model of personality and Holland's occupational types. *Personality Psychology*, 56(1): 45-74.

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K. and Judge, T. A. 2001. Personality and performance at the beginning of the new millennium: What do we know and where do we go next? *International Journal of Selection and Assessment*, 9(1-2): 9-30.

216

Barrick, M. R., Mount, M. K., and Strauss, J. P. 1993. Conscientiousness and performance of sales representatives: Test of the mediating effects of goal setting. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(5): 715-722.

Bass, B. M. 1985. *Leadership and performance beyond expectation* New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. 1990. *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership: Theory, research and managerial applications*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. 1991. *Bass and Stogdill's handbook of leadership* (3rd ed.). New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M. 1997. Does the transactional-transformational leadership paradigm transcend organizational and national boundaries? *American Psychologist*, 52(2): 130-139.

Bass, B. M. 1998. *Transformational leadership: Industry, military and educational impact*. Mahwah, NJ: Erlbaum.

Bass, B. M. 1999a. On the taming of charisma: A reply to Janice Beyer. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(4): 541-553.

Bass, B. M. 1999b. Two decades of research and development in transformational leadership. *European Journal of Work and Organizational Psychology*, 8(1): 9-32.

Bass, B. M., and Avolio, B. J. 1993. Transformational leadership: A response to critiques. In M. M. Chemers, and R. Ayman (Eds.), *Leadership theory and research: Perspectives and direction*: 49-88. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Bass, B. M., and Avolio, B. J. 1994. Introduction. In B. Bass, M., and B. J. Avolio (Eds.), *Improving organizational effectiveness*: 1-9. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Bass, B. M., and Bass, R. 2009. *The Bass handbook of leadership: Theory, research, and managerial applications*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Bass, B. M., and Dumnteman, G. 1963. Behavior in groups as a function of self-interaction and task orientation. *The Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology*, 66(5): 419-428.

Bass, B. M., and Steidlmeier, P. 1999. Ethics, character, and authentic transformational leadership behavior. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2): 181-217.

Bateman, T. S. and Snell, S. A. 1999. *Management: Building competitive advantage* (4 ed.). Boston: Irwin/McGraw-Hill.

Bateman, T. S. and Strasser, S. 1984. A longitudinal analysis of the antecedents of organizational commitment. *Academy of Management Review*, 27(1): 95-112.

Bates, K. A., Amundson, S. D., Schroeder, R. G. and Morris, W. T. 1995. The crucial interrelationship between manufacturing strategy and organizational culture. *Management Science*, 41(10): 1565-1580.

Bennis, W. G. and Nanus, B. 1985. *Leaders: The strategies for taking charge*. New York, NY: Harper Collins Publishers.

Berscheid, E. 1994. Interpersonal relationships. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 45(1): 79-129.

Bingham, W. V. 1927. Leadership. In H. C. Metcalf (Ed.), *The psychological foundations of management*. New York, NY: Shaw.

Block, J. 1995. A contrarian view of the five-factor approach to personality description. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(2): 187-215.

Bono, J. E. and Judge, T. A. 2003. Self-concordance at work: Toward understanding the motivational effects of transformational leadership. *Academy of Management Journal*, 46(5): 554-571.

Bono, J. E. and Judge, T. A. 2004. Personality and transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5): 901-910.

Borgen, F. H. 1986. New approaches to the assessment of interests. In W. B. Walsh and S. H. Osipow (Eds.), *Advances in vocational psychology: The assessment of interests*, Vol. 1. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Boudreau, J. W., Boswell, W. R. and Judge, T. A. 2001. Effects of personality on executive career success in the United States and Europe. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 58(1): 53-81.

Bradbury, H. and Lichtenstein, B. M. B. 2000. Relationality in organizational research: Exploring the space between. *Organization Science*, 11(5): 551-564.

Briner, R. B. and Walshe, N. D. 2013. Evidence-based management and leadership. In H. S. Leonard, R. Lewis, A. M. Freedman and J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change, and organizational development*: 49-64. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Brower, H. H., Schoorman, F. D. and Tan, H. H. 2000. A model of relational leadership: The integration of trust and leader–member exchange. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(2): 227-250.

Brown, A. 1992. Organizational culture: The key to effective leadership and organizational development. *Leadership and Organization Development Journal*, 13(2): 3-6.

Bryman, A. 1992. *Charisma and leadership in organizations*. Newbury Park, CA: Sage Publications.

Burger, J. M. 2004. *Personality* (6th ed.). Belmont,CA: Wadsworth Press.

Burgess, D. and Borgida, E. 1999. Who women are, who women should be: Descriptive and prescriptive gender stereotyping in sex discrimination. *Psychology, Public Policy, and Law*, 5(3): 665-692.

Burke, M. J. and Day, R. R. 1986. A cumulative study of the effectiveness of managerial training. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(2): 232-246.

Burns, G. N., Kotrba, L. M. and Denison, D. R. 2013. Leader-Culture fit: Aligning leadership and corporate culture. In H. S. Leonard, R. Lewis, A. M. Freedman and J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change, and organizational development*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Burns, J. M. 1978. *Leadership*. New York, NY: Harper & Row.

Buss, A. H. 1988. *Personality: Evolutionary heritage and human distinctiveness*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates.

Byron, K. 2007. Male and female managers' ability to read emotions: Relationships with supervisor's performance ratings and subordinates' satisfaction ratings. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 80(4): 713-733.

Cattell, R. B. 1990. Advances in Cattellian Personality theory. In L. A. Pervin (Ed.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*: 101-110. New York, NY: Guilford Press.

Chen, L.T., Chen, C.W. and Chen, C.Y. 2010. Are educational background and gender moderator variables for leadership, satisfaction and organizational commitment? *African Journal of Business Management*, 4(2): 248-261.

Cherulnik, P. D., Turns, L. C. and Wilderman, S. K. 1990. Physical appearance and leadership exploring the role of appearance-based attribution in leader emergence. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 20(18): 1530-1539.

Cohen, A. 1993. Organizational commitment and turnover: A meta-analysis. *Academy of Management Journal*, 36(5): 1140-1157.

Cohen, S. and Wills, T. A. 1985. Stress, social support and the buffering hypothesis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 98(2): 310-357.

Colbert, A. E., Judge, T. A., Choi, D. and Wang, G. 2012. Assessing the traits theory of leadership using self and observer ratings of personality: The mediating role of contributions to group success. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 23(4): 607-685.

Collinge, C. and Gibney, J. 2010. Connecting place, policy and leadership. *Policy Studies*, 31(4): 379-391.

Conger, J. A. 1989. *The charismatic leader*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Conger, J. A. and Kanungo, R. N. 1987. Toward a behavioral theory of charismatic leadership in organisational settings. *Academy of Management Review*, 12(4): 637-647.

Conger, J. A. and Kanungo, R. N. 1998. *Charismatic leadership in organizations*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Connell, J., Ferres, N. and Travaglione, T. 2003. Engendering trust in manager-subordinate relationships. *Personnel Review*, 32(5): 569-587.

Costa, P. T. and McCrae, R. R. 1988. Personality in adulthood: A six-year longitudinal study of self-reports and spouse ratings on the NEO personality inventory. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 54(5): 853-863.

Costa, P. T. and McCrae, R. R. 1992. *NEO PI-R Professional Manual*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Costa, P. T., McCrae, R. R. and Holland, J. L. 1984. Personality and vocational interests in an adult sample. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(3): 390-400.

Costa, P. T., Terracciano, A. and McCrae, R. R. 2001. Gender differences in personality traits across cultures: Robust and surprising findings. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 81(2): 322-331.

Covey, S. M. R. and Merrill, R.R. 2008. *The speed of trust*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Coyle-Shapiro, J. A. M. 1999. Employee participation and assessment of an organizational change intervention: A three-wave study of total quality management. *Journal of Applied Behavioral Science*, 35(4): 439-456.

Cuadrado, I., Navas, M., Molero, F., Ferrer, E. and Morales, J. F. 2012. Gender differences in leadership styles as a function of leader and subordinates' sex and type of organization. *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 42(12): 3083-3113.

Cullen, J. B., Johnson, J. L. and Sakano, T. 2000. Success through commitment and trust: The soft side of strategic alliance management. *Journal of World Business*, 35(3): 223-240.

Dale, K. and Fox, M. L. 2008. Leadership style and organizational commitment: Mediating effect of role stress. *Journal of Management Issues*, 20(1): 109-130.

Daley, D. M. 1986. Humanistic management and organizational success: The effect of job and work environment characteristics on organizational effectiveness. *Public Personnel Management*, 15(2): 131-142.

Danna, K. and Griffin, R. W. 1999. Health and well-being in the workplace: A review and synthesis of the literature. *Journal of Management*, 25(3): 357-384.

David, G., Bryson, A. and Forth, J. 2007. Workplace industrial relations in Britain, 1980 - 2004. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 38(4): 285-302.

Day, D. V. 2000. Leadership development: A review in context. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 11(4): 581-613.

De Fruyt, F. and Mervielde, I. 1999. RIASEC types and Big Five traits as predictors of employment status and nature of employment. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(3): 701-727.

De Hoogh, A. H. B., Den Hartog, D. N. and Koopman, P. L. 2005. Linking the big five-factors of personality to charismatic and transactional leadership; perceived dynamic work environment as a moderator. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 26(7): 839-865.

Deary, I. J. 1996. A (latent) Big Five personality model in 1915? A reanalysis of Webb's data. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 71(5): 992-1005.

Den Hartog, D. N. and Koopman, P. L. 2001. Leadership in organizations. In N. Anderson, D. S. Ones, H. Kepir-Sinangil and C. Viswesvaran (Eds.), *International handbook of industrial, work and organizational psychology*, Vol. 2. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

DeRue, S. D., Nahrgang, J. D., Wellman, N. and Humphrey, S. E. 2011. Trait and behavioral theories of leadership: An integration and meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Personnel Psychology*, 64(1): 7-52.

DeYoung, C. G., Peterson, J. B. and Higgins, D. M. 2002. Higher-order factors of the Big Five predict conformity: Are there neuroses of health? *Personality and Individual Differences*, 33(4): 533-552.

Dickson, M. W., Resick, C. J. and Goldstein, H. W. 2008. Seeking explanations in people, not in the results of their behavior: Twenty-plus years of the attraction-selection-attribution model. In D. B. Smith (Ed.), *The people make the place: Dynamic linkages between individuals and organizations*: 4-36. New York, NY: Taylor and Francis Group, LLC.

Digman, J. M. 1989. Five robust trait dimensions: Development, stability, and utility. *Journal of Personality*, 57(2): 195-214.

Digman, J. M. 1990. Personality structure: Emergence of the five-factor model. *Annual Review of Psychology*, 41(1): 417-440.

Digman, J. M. 1997. Higher-order factors of the Big Five. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 73(6): 1246-1256.

Dignam, J. T. and West, S. G. 1988. Social support in the workplace: Tests of six theoretical models. *American Journal of Community Psychology*, 16(5): 701-725.

Dionne, S. D., Yammarino, F. J., Atwater, L. E. and James, L. R. 2002. Neutralizing substitutes for leadership theory: Leadership effects and common-source bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(3): 454-464.

Dirks, K. T. and Ferrin, D. L. 2001. The role of trust in organizational settings. *Organizational Science*, 12(4): 450-467.

Dirks, K. T. and Ferrin, D. L. 2002. Trust in Leadership: Meta-Analytic Findings and Implications for Research and Practice. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 87(4): 611-628.

Dobbins, G. H. and Platz, S. J. 1986. Sex differences in leadership: How real are they? *Academy of Management Review*, 11(1): 118-127.

Donaldson-Feilder, E., Munir, F. and Lewis, R. 2013. Leadership and employee well-being. In H. S. Leonard, R. Lewis, A. M. Freedman and J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change and organizational development*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Dormann, C. and Zapf, D. 1999. Social support, social stressors at work, and depressive symptoms: Testing for main and moderating effects with structural equations in a three-wave longitudinal study. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 84(6): 874-884.

Drucker, P. F. 2003. *The essential Drucker: The best of sixty years of Peter Drucker's essential writings on management*. New York, NY: Harper Collines.

Dumdum, U. R., Lowe, K. B. and Avolio, B. J. 2002. A meta-analysis of transformational and transactional leadership correlates of effectiveness and satisfaction: An update and extension. In B. J. Avolio and F. J. Yammarino (Eds.), *Transformational and charismatic leadership: The road ahead*, Vol. 2: 35-66. Oxford: Elsevier Science.

Eagly, A. H. 1987. *Sex differences in social behavior: A social-role interpretation*. Hillsdale, NJ: Lawrence Erlbaum Associates, Inc.

Eagly, A. H. and Carli, L. L. 2003. The female leadership advantage: An evaluation of the evidence. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 14(6): 807-834.

Eagly, A. H. and Carli, L. L. 2007. *Through the labyrinth: The truth about how women become leaders*. Boston, MA: Harvard Business School Press.

Eagly, A. H. and Chaiken, S. 1993. *The psychology of attitudes*. Orlando, FL: Harcourt Brace Jovanovich College Publishers.

Eagly, A. H. and Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. 2001. The leadership styles of women and men. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4): 781-797.

Eagly, A. H., Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. and Van Engen, M. 2003. Transformational, transactional and laissez-faire leadership styles: A meta-analysis comparing men and women. *Psychological Bulletin*, 129(4): 569-591.

Eagly, A. H. and Johnson, B. T. 1990. Gender and leadership style: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2): 233-256.

Eagly, A. H. and Karau, S. J. 1991. Gender and the emergence of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 60(5): 685-710.

Eagly, A. H. and Karau, S. J. 2002. Role congruity theory of prejudice toward female leaders. *Psychological Review*, 109(3): 573-598.

Eagly, A. H., Karau, S. J. and Makhijani, M. G. 1995. Gender and the effectiveness of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 117(1): 125-145.

Eagly, A. H., Makhijani, M. G. and Klonsky, B. G. 1992. Gender and the evaluation of leaders: A meta-analysis. *Psychological Bulletin*, 111(1): 3-22.

Eby, L. T., Freeman, D. M., Rush, M. C. and Lance, C. E. 1999. Motivational bases of affective organizational commitment: A partial test of an integrative theoretical model. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(4): 463-483.

Ellemers, N., Rink, F., Derks, B. and Ryan, M. K. 2012. Women in high places: When and why promoting women into top positions can harm them individually as a

group (and how to prevent this). *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 32: 163-187.

Elsesser, K. M. and Lever, J. 2011. Does gender bias against female leaders persist? Quantitative and qualitative data from a large-scale survey. *Human Relations*, 62(12): 1555-1578.

Engler, B. 2008. *Personality theories*. MA: Houghton Mifflin Harcourt Publishing Company.

Ensari, N., Riggio, R. E., Christain, J. and Carslaw, G. 2011. Who emerges as a leader? Meta-analyses of individual differences as predictors of leadership emergence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 51(4): 532-536.

Erez, M., Earley, P. C. and Hulin, C. L. 1985. The impact of participation on goal acceptance and performance: A two-step model. *Academy of Management Journal* 28(1): 50-66.

Eysenck, H. J. 1990. Genetic and environmental contributions to individual differences: the three major dimensions of personality. *Journal of Personality*, 58(1): 245-261.

Feldt, T., Kinnunen, U. and Mauno, S. 2000. A mediational model of sense of coherence in the work context: A one-year follow-up study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(4): 461-476.

Field, A. 2011. *Discovering statistics using SPSS* (3rd ed.). London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

Fields, D. L. and Blum, T. C. 1997. Employee satisfaction in work groups with different gender composition. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 18(2): 181-196.

Fietze, S., Holst, E. and Tobsch, V. 2011. Germany's next top manager: Does personality explain the gender career gap? *Management Revue*, 22(3): 240-273.

Fiske, S. T. 1998. Stereotyping, prejudice and discrimination. In D. T. Gilbert, S. T. Fiske and G. Lindzey (Eds.), *Handbook of social psychology*, Vol. 1: 357-414. Boston, MA: McGraw Hill.

Foels, R., Driskell, J. E., Mullen, B. and Salas, E. 2000. The effects of democratic leadership on group member satisfaction: An integration. *Small Group Research*, 31(6): 676-701.

Franco, L. M., Bennett, S. and Kanfer, R. 2002. Health sector reform and public sector health worker motivation: A conceptual framework. *Social Science & Medicine*, 54(8): 1255-1266.

Frazier, P. A., Tix, A. P. and Barron, K. E. 2004. Testing moderator and mediator effects in counseling psychology. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 51(1): 115-134.

Fujita, F., Diener, E. and Sandvik, E. 1991. Gender differences in negative affect and well-being: The case for emotional intensity. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 61(3): 427-434.

Fuller, J. B., Patterson, C. E., Hester, K. and Stringer, D. Y. 1996. A quantitative review of research on charismatic leadership. *Psychological Reports*, 78(1): 271-287.

Furnham, A., Crump, J. and Whelan, J. 1997. Validating the NEO Personality Inventory using assessor's ratings. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 22(5): 669-675.

Garcia-Retamero, R. and Lopez-Zafra, E. 2006. Prejudice against women in male-congenial environments: Perceptions of gender role congruity in leadership. *Sex Roles*, 55(1-2): 51-61.

Gardiner, M. and Tiggemann, M. 1999. Gender differences in leadership style, job stress and mental health in male and femal dominated industries. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 72(3): 301-315.

Georgellis, Y., Lossa, E. and Tabvuma, V. 2011. Crowding out instrinsic motivation in the public sector. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 21(3): 473-493.

Giuliano, L., Leonard, J. and Levine, D. I. 2006. Do race, gender and age differences affect manager-employee relation? An analysis of quits, dismissals and promotions at large retail firm: Institute for Research on Labor and Employment UC Berkeley.

Goh, S. and Zhen-Jie, B. 2014. The influence of servant leadership towards organizational commitment: The mediating role of trust in leaders. *International Journal of Business and Management*, 9(1): 17-25.

Goldberg, L. R. 1990. An alternative description of personality: The big five factor structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 59(6): 1216-1229.

Goldberg, L. R., Sweeney, D., Merenda, P. F. and Hughes, J. E. 1998. Demographic Variables and personality: The effects of gender, age, education, and ethnic/racial status on self-descriptions of personality attributes. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 24(3): 393-403.

Goodwin, V. L., Whittington, J. L., Murray, B. and Nichols, T. 2011. Moderator or Mediator? Examining the role of trust in the transformational leadership paradigm. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 23(4): 409-425.

Gosling, S. D., Rentfrow, P. J. and Swann Jr, W. B. 2003. A very brief measure of the big-five personality domains. *Journal of Research in Personality*, 37(6): 504-528.

Gottfredson, G. D., Jones, E. M. and Holland, J. L. 1993. Personality and vocational interests: The relation of Holland's six interest dimensions to five robust dimensions of personality. *Journal of Counseling Psychology*, 40(4): 518-524.

Gough, H. 1990. Testing for leadership with the California Psychological Inventory. In K. Clark and M. Clark (Eds.), *Measures of leadership* 355-379. West Orange, NJ: Leadership Library of America.

Grint, K. 2000. *The arts of leadership*. Oxford: Oxford University Press.

Guerin, D. W., Oliver, P. H., Gottfried, A. W., Gottfried, A. E., Reichard, R. J. and Riggio, R. E. 2011. Childhood and adolescent antecedents of social skills and leadership potential in adulthood: Temperamental approach/withdraw and extraversion. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 22(3): 482-494.

Guest, D., Brown, W., Peccei, R. and Huxley, K. 2008. Does partnership at work increase trust? An analysis based on the 2004 workplace employment relations survey. *Industrial Relations Journal*, 39(2): 124-152.

Guillaume, C. and Pochic, S. 2009. What would you sacrifice? Access to top management and the work-life balance. *Gender, Work and Organization*, 16(1): 14-36.

Gutek, B. A. and Morasch, B. 1982. Sex-ratios, sex-role spillover, and sexual herrassment of women at work. *Journal of Social Issues*, 38(4): 55-74.

Hackman, M. Z., Furniss, A. H., Hills, M. J. and Paterson, T. J. 1992. Perceptions of gender-role characteristics and transformational and transactional leadership behaviors. *Perceptual and Motor Skills*, 75(1): 311-319.

Haddock, G. and Zanna, M. P. 1994. Preferring "housewives" to "feminists": Categorization and the favorability of attitudes toward women. *Psychology of Women Quarterly*, 18(1): 25-52.

Haile, G. A. 2012. Unhappy working with men? Workplace gender diversity and job-related well-being in Britain. *Labour Economics*, 19(3): 329-350.

Hair, J. F., Babin, B. J., Money, A. H. and Samouel, P. 2003. *Essentials of business research methods*. Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hair, J. F., Black, W. C., Babin, B. J. and Anderson, R. E. 2010. *Multivariated data analysis: A global perspective* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Hampton, R., Dubinsky, A. J. and Skinner, S. J. 1986. A model of sales supervisor leadership behavior and retail salespeople's job-related outcomes. *Academy of Marketing Science*, 14(3): 33-43.

Hansen, S. B. 2009. Cracks in the glass ceiling? *Sex Roles*, 60(9): 748-750.

Hayes, A. F. 2013. *Introduction to mediation, moderation and conditional process analysis: A regression-based approach*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

Heilman, M. E. 1995. Sex stereotypes and their effects in the workplace: What we know and what we don't know. *Journal of Social Behavior and Personality*, 10(6): 3-26.

Heilman, M. E. 2001. Description and prescription: How gender stereotypes prevent women's ascent up the organizational ladder. *Journal of Social Issues*, 57(4): 657-674.

Heilman, M. E., Block, C. J. and Martell, R. F. 1995. Sex stereotypes: Do they influence perceptions of managers? *Journal of Social Behavior & Personality*, 10(6): 237-252.

Heilman, M. E. and Okimoto, T. G. 2007. Why are women penalized for success at male tasks?: The implied communality deficit. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(1): 81-92.

Helson, R., Pals, J. L. and Solomon, M. 1997. Is there adult development distinctive to women? In R. Hogan, J. A. Johnson and S. R. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology*. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Hersey, P. and Blanchard, K. H. 1981. So you want to know your leadership style? *Training and Development Journal*, 35(6): 34-54.

Hewlett, S. A. 2002. Executive women and the myth of having it all. *Harvard Business Review*, 80(4): 66-73.

Hickman, C. R. 1990. *Mind of a manager, soul of a leader*. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Hofstee, W. K., De Raad, B. and Goldberg, L. R. 1992. Integration of the Big Five and circumplex approaches to traits structure. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 63(1): 146-163.

Hogan, R., Curphy, G. and Hogan, J. 1994. What we know about leadership: Effectiveness and personality. *American Psychologist* 49(6): 469-477.

Hogan, R. and Hogan, J. 1995. *Hogan personality inventory manual* (2nd ed.). Tulsa, OK: Hogan Assessment Systems.

Hogan, R. and Kaiser, R. B. 2005. What we know about leadership. *Review of General Psychology*, 9(2): 169-180.

Holland, J. L. 1978. *Manual for the vocational preferences inventory*. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologist Press.

Holland, J. L. 1985. *Manual for the self-directed search*. Odessa, FL: Psychological Assessment Resources.

Holland, J. L. 1996. Exploring careers with a typology: What we have learned and some new directions. *American Psychologist*, 51(4): 397-406.

Horne, D. 2001. *Looking for Leadership: Australia in the Howard Years*. Ringwood, Vic: Viking.

House, J. S. 1981. *Work stress and social support*. Reading, MA: Addison-Wesley.

House, R. J. 1977. A 1976 theory of charismatic leadership. In J. Hunt, and L. Larson (Eds.), *Leadership: The cutting edge* 189-207. Carbondel, IL: Southern Illinois University Press.

House, R. J. and Aditya, R. N. 1997. The Social Scientific Study of Leadership: Quo Vadis? *Journal of Management*, 23(3): 409-473.

House, R. J., Hanges, P. J., Javidan, M., Dorfman, P. W. and Gupta, V. 2004. *Culture, leadership and organizations: The globe study of 62 societies*. London: SAGE Publications Ltd.

House, R. J. and Howell, J. M. 1992. Personality and charismatic leadership. *The Leadership Quarterly* 3(2): 81-108.

House, R. J., Shane, S. A. and Herold, D. M. 1996. Rumors of the death of dispositional research are vastly exaggerated. *Academy of Management Review*, 21(1): 203-224.

House, R. J., Spangler, W. D. and Woycke, J. 1991. Personality and charisma in U.S. presidency: A Psychological theory of leader effectiveness. *Administrative Science Quarterly* 36(3): 364-396.

Hoyt, C. L., Johnson, S. K., Murphy, S. E. and Skinnell, K. H. 2010. The impact of blatant stereotype activation and group sex-composition on female leaders. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 21(5): 716-732.

Hoyt, C. L., Simon, S. and Reid, L. 2009. Choosing the best (wo)man for the job: The effects of mortality salience, sex, and gender stereotypes on leader evaluations. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(2): 233-246.

Hughes, R. L., Ginnett, R. C. and Curphy, G. J. 2012. *Leadership; Enhancing the lessons of experience* (7th ed. ed.). New York, NY: McGraw-Hill.

Humphrey, S. E., Nahrgang, J. D. and Morgeson, F. P. 2007. Integrating motivational, social, and contextual work design features: A meta-analytic summary and theoretical extension of the work design literature. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 92(5): 1332-1356.

Hunter, E. C. and Jordan, A. M. 1939. An analysis of qualities associated with leadership among college students. *Journal of Educational Psychology*, 30(7): 497-509.

Hwang, P. and Burgers, W. P. 1997. Properties of trust: An analytical view. *Organization Behavior and Human Decision*, 69(1): 67-73.

Hyde, J. S. 2005. The gender similarities hypothesis. *American Psychologist*, 60(6): 581-592.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G. and Wolf, G. 1984. Estimating within-group interrater reliability with and without response bias. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 69(1): 85-98.

James, L. R., Demaree, R. G. and Wolf, G. 1993. r_{wg}: An assessment of within-group interrater agreement. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 78(2): 306-309.

Jaworski, B. J. and Young, S. M. 1992. Dysfunctional behavior and management control: An empirical study of marketing managers. *Accounting, Organizations and Society*, 17(1): 17-35.

Jing, F. F. and Avery, G. C. 2008. Missing links in understanding the relationship between leadership and organizational performance. *International Business & Economics Research Journal*, 7(5): 67-78.

John, O. P., Robins, R. W. and Pervin, L. A. 2010. *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*. New York, NY: The Guilford Press.

John, O. P. and Srivastava, S. 1999. The big five trait taxonomy: History, measurement, and theoretical perspectives. In L. A. Pervin and O. P. John (Eds.), *Handbook of personality: Theory and research*. New York, NY: Guilford.

Johnson, S. K., Murphy, S. E., Zewdie, S. and Rebecca, J. R. 2008. The strong, sensitive type: Effects of gender stereotypes and leadership prototypes on the evaluation of male and female leaders. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 106(1): 39-60.

Johnston, M. W., Parasuraman, A., Futrell, C. M. and Black, W. C. 1990. A longitudinal assessment of the impact of selected organizational influences on salespeople's organizational commitment during early employment. *Journal of Marketing Research*, 27(3): 333-344.

Judge, T. A. and Bono, J. E. 2000. Five-Factor Model of personality and transformational leadership. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 85(5): 751-765.

Judge, T. A. and Bono, J. E. 2001. Relationship of core self-evaluations traits, self-esteem, generalized self-efficacy, locus of control, and emotional stability with job satisfaction and job performance: A meta-analysis. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 86(1): 80-92.

Judge, T. A., Bono, J. E., Ilies, R. and Gerhardt, M. W. 2002. Personality and leadership: A qualitative and quantitative review. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 87(4): 765-780.

Judge, T. A., Higgins, C. A., Thoresen, C. J. and Barrick, M. R. 1999. The big five personality traits, general mental ability, and career success across the life span. *Personnel Psychology*, 52(3): 621-652.

Judge, T. A., Locke, E. A., Durham, C. C. and Kluger, A. N. 1998. Dispositional effects on job and life satisfaction: The role of core evaluations. *Journal of Applied Psychology* 83(1): 17-34.

Judge, T. A. and Piccolo, R. F. 2004. Transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic test of their relative validity. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(5): 755-768.

Judge, T. A., Piccolo, R. F. and Ilies, R. 2004. The forgotten one? The validity of consideration and initiating structure in leadership research. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(1): 36-51.

Judge, T. A., Woolf, E. F., Hurst, C. and Livingston, B. 2006. Charismatic and transformational leadership: A review and an agenda for future research. *Organizationspsychologie A&O*, 50(4): 203-214.

Judiesch, M. K. and Lyness, K. S. 1999. Left behind? The impact of leaves of absence on managers' career success. *Academy of Management Journal*, 42(6): 641-651.

Kanter, R. M. 1977. Some effects of proportions on group life: Skewed sex ratios and responses to token women. *Chicago Journals*, 82(5): 965-990.

Karkoulian, S. and Halawi, L. 2007. Women and work/life conflict at higher educational institutions. *International Journal of Business Research*, 7(3): 116-126.

Keller, R. T. 1992. Transformational leadership and the performance of research and development project groups. *Journal of Management* 18(3): 489-501.

Keller, R. T. 2006. Transformational leadership, initiating structure and substitutes for leadership: A longitudinal study of research and development project team performance. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(1): 202-210.

Kersley, B., Alpin, C., Forth, J., Bryson, A., Bewley, H., Dix, G. and Oxenbridge, S. 2006. *Inside the workplace: Findings from the 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey*. Abingdon, Oxon: Routledge.

Keyes, C. L. M., Hysom, S. J. and Lupo, K. L. 2000. The positive organization: Leadership legitimacy, employee well-being, and the bottom line. *The Psychologist-Manager Journal*, 4(2): 143-153.

King, C. and Grace, D. 2008. Internal branding: Exploring the employees' perspective. *Brand Management*, 15(5): 358-372.

Kirkpatrick, S. A. and Locke, E. A. 1991. Leadership: Do traits matter? *Academy of Management Perspectives* 5(2): 48-60.

Kleine, C. and WeiBenberger, B. E. 2014. Leadership impact on organizational commitment: The mediating role of management control systems choice. *Journal of Management Control*, 24(3): 241-266.

Klenke, K. 1996. *Women and leadership: A contextual perspective*. New York, NY: Springer Publishing Company, Inc.

Koenig, A. M., Eagly, A. H., Mitchell, A. A. and Ristikari, T. 2011. Are leader stereotypes masculine? A meta-analysis of three research paradigms. *Psychological Bulletin*, 137(4): 616-642.

Koh, W. H., Steers, R. M. and Terborg, J. R. 1995. The effects of transformational leadership on teacher attitudes and student performance in Singapore. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 16(4): 319-333.

Kollock, P. 1994. The emergence of exchange structures: An experimental study of uncertainty, commitment, and trust. *American Journal of Sociology*, 100(2): 313-345.

Korte, W. B. and Wynne, R. 1996. *Telework: Penetration, potential and practice in Europe*. Amsterdam: Ohmsha Press.

Kotter, J. P. 1999. *John P. Kotter on what leaders really do*. New York, NY: The Free Press.

Krug, J. A. 2003. Why do they keep leaving? *Harvard Business Review*, 81(2): 14-15.

Lau, C. M. and Moser, A. 2008. Behavioral effects of non-financial performance measures: The role of procedural fairness. *Behavioral Research in Accounting*, 20(2): 55-71.

Lee, R. T. and Ashforth, B. E. 1993. A longitudinal study of burnout among supervisors and managers: Comparison between the Leiter and Maslach (1988) and Golembiewski et al. (1986) models. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 54(3): 369-398.

Lee, W. J., Koenigsberg, M. R., Davidson, C. and Beto, D. R. 2010. A pilot survey linking personality, leadership style, and leadership success among probation directors in the U.S. *Personality and Leadership*, 74(3): 34-42.

Leonard, J. S. and Levine, D. I. 2006. The effect of diversity on turnover: A large case study. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review*, 59(4): 547-572.

Levenson, H. 1981. Differentiating among internality, powerful others, and chance. In H. M. Lefcourt (Ed.), *Research with the locus of control construct* 15-63. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Lim, B. C. and Ployhart, R. E. 2004. Transformational leadership: Relations to the Five-Factor Model and team performance in typical and maximum contexts. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 89(4): 610-621.

Lines, R. and Selart, M. 2013. Participation and organizational commitment during change: From utopist to realist perspectives. In H. S. Leonard, R. Lewis, A. M. Freedman and J. Passmore (Eds.), *The Wiley-Blackwell handbook of the psychology of leadership, change, and organizational development*. West Sussex: John Wiley & Sons, Ltd.

Liu, J., Siu, O. and Shi, K. 2010. Transformational leadership and employee well-being: The mediating role of trust in the leader and self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 59(3): 454-479.

Lobel, S. A. and St Clair, L. S. 1992. Effects of family responsibilities, gender, and career identity salience on performance outcomes. *Academy of Management Journal*, 35(5): 1057-1069.

Lord, R. G. 1985. An information processing approach to social perceptions, leadership and behavioral measurement in organizations. *Research in Organizational Behavior*, 7: 87-128.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J. and Freiberg, S. J. 1999. Understanding the dynamics of leadership: The role of follower self-concepts in leader/followership. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 78(3): 167-203.

Lord, R. G., Brown, D. J., Harvey, J. L. and Hall, R. J. 2001. Contextual constraints on prototype generation and their multilevel consequences for leadership perceptions. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 12(3): 311-338.

Lord, R. G., De Vader, C. L. and Alliger, G. M. 1986. A meta-analysis of the relation between personality traits and leadership perceptions: An application of validity generalization procedures. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 71(3): 402-410.

Lowe, K. B., Kroeck, K. G. and Sivasubramaniam, N. 1996. Effectiveness correlates of transformational and transactional leadership: A meta-analytic review of the MLQ literature. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 7(3): 385-425.

Lyness, K. S. and Heilman, M. E. 2006. When fit is fundamental: Performance evaluations and promotions of upper-level female and male managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 91(4): 777-785.

Mathieu, J. E. and Zajac, D. M. 1990. A review and meta-analysis of the antecedents, correlates, and consequences of organizational commitment. *Psychological Bulletin*, 108(2): 171-194.

Mayer, R. C., Davis, J. H. and Schoorman, F. D. 1995. An integrative model of organizational trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 20(3): 709-734.

McCrae, R. R. 1996. Social consequences of experiential openness. *Psychological Bulletin*, 120(3): 323-337.

McCrae, R. R., and Costa, P. T. 1991. Adding Liebe und Arbeit: The full five-factor model and well-being. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin* 17(2): 227-232.

McCrae, R. R., and Costa, P. T. 1995. Trait explanations in personality psychology. *European Journal of Personality*, 9(4): 231-252.

McCrae, R. R., and Costa, P. T. 1997. Conceptions and correlates of openness to experience. In R. R. Hogan, J. Johnson, and S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* 825-847. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

McCrae, R. R., Costa, P. T., Ostendorf, F., Angleitner, A., Hrebrickova, M., Avia, M. D., Sanz, J., Sanchez-Bernardos, M. L., Kusdil, M. E., Woodfield, R., Saunders, P. R. and Smith, P. B. 2000. Nature over nurture: Temperament, personality and lifespan development. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology* 78(1): 173-186.

McCrae, R. R. and Oliver, J. P. 1992. An introduction to the five-factor model and its applications. *Journal of Personality*, 60(2): 175-215.

McEldowney, R. P., Bobrowski, P. and Gramberg, A. 2009. Factors affecting the next generation of women leaders: Mapping the challenges, antecedents and consequences of effective leadership. *Journal of Leadership Studies*, 3(2): 24-30.

McIntyre, H. H. 2010. Gender differences in the nature and linkage of higher-order personality factors to trait and ability emotional intelligence. *Personality and Individual Differences*, 48(5): 617-622.

McShane, S. L. and Von Glinow, M. A. 2007. *Organizational behavior [essentials]*. New York, NY: McGraw-Hill/Irwin.

Melero, E. 2004. Sex differences in managerial style: From individual leadership to organisational labour relationships. *IZA Discussion Paper Series*, No.1367.

Metcalf, H. and Meadows, P. 2010. Second Survey of Employers' Policies, Practices and Preferences Relating to Age, 2010, *Employment relations research*, Vol. 682. London: The National Institute of Economic and Social Research.

Meyer, J. P. and Allen, N. J. 1991. A three-component conceptualization of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review* 1(1): 61-89.

Meyer, J. P., Stanley, D. J., Herscovitch, L. and Topolnytsky, L. 2002. Affective, continuance, and normative commitment to the organization: A meta-analysis of antecedents, correlates and consequences. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 61(1): 20-52.

Milgrom, P. and Roberts, J. 1995. Complementarities and fit strategy, structure and organizational change in manufacturing. *Journal of Accounting and Economics*, 19(2): 179-208.

Miller, K. I. and Monge, P. R. 1986. Participation, satisfaction and productivity: A meta-analytic review. *Academy of Management Journal*, 29(4): 727-753.

Mohr, G. and Wolfram, H. J. 2008. Leadership and effectiveness in the context of gender: The role of leaders' verbal behaviour. *British Journal of Management*, 19(1): 4-16.

Molm, L. D., Takahashi, N. and Peterson, G. 2000. Risk and trust in social exchange: An experimental test of a classical proposition. *American Journal of Sociology*, 105(5): 1396-1427.

Morgan, D. and Zeffane, R. 2003. Employee involvement, organizational change and trust in management. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 14(1): 55-75.

Moskowitz, D. W., Suh, E. J. and Desaulniers, J. 1994. Situational influences on gender differences in agency and communion. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 66(4): 753-761.

Mount, M., Barrick, M. and Stewart, G. 1998. Five-factor model of personality and performance in jobs involving interpersonal interactions. *Human Performance* 11(2-3): 145-165.

Mowday, B. J., Porter, L. W. and Streers, R. M. 1982. *Employee-organization linkages*. New York, NY: Academic Press.

Mowday, R. T. 1998. Reflections on the study and relevance of organizational commitment. *Human Resource Management Review*, 8(4): 387-401.

Mueller, G. and Plug, E. 2006. Estimating the effect of personality on male and female earnings. *Industrial and Labor Relations Review* 60(1): 3-22.

Mullins, L. 2010. *Management and organisational behaviour* (9th ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Nahrgang, J. D., Morgeson, F. P. and Ilies, R. 2009. The development of leader-member exchanges: Exploring how personality and performance influence leader and member relationships over time. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes* 108(2): 256-266.

Nandi, A. and Nicoletti, C. 2009. Explaining personality pay gaps in the UK, *ISER working paper series*, Vol. 22: 1-33. Essex: Institute for Social and Economic Research University of Essex.

Nederhof, A. J. 1985. Methods of coping with social desirability bias: A review. *European Journal of Social Psychology*, 15(3): 263-280.

Ng, K. Y., Ang, S. and Chan, K. Y. 2008. Personality and leader effectiveness: a moderated mediation model of leadership self-efficacy, job demands, and job autonomy. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 93(4): 733-743.

Northouse, P. G. 2010. *Leadership: Theory and practice* (5th ed.). Thousand Oakes, CA: Sage.

Nutt, P. C. 2006. Comparing public and private sector decision-making practices. *Journal of Public Administration Research and Theory*, 16(2): 289-318.

Nyhan, R. C. 1999. Increasing affective organizational commitment in public organizations. *Review of Public Personnel Administration*, 19(3): 58-70.

Office of National Statistics. 2006. Research and development in UK businesses 2004 (MA14): www.statistics.gov.uk/StatBase/Product.asp?vlnk=165.

Office of National Statistics. 2013. Research and development in UK businesses 2013: http://www.ons.gov.uk/ons/rel/lmac/women-in-the-labour-market/2013/rpt---women-in-the-labour-market.html.

Ogbonna, E. and Harris, L. C. 1998. Organizational culture: It's not what you think. *Journal of General Management*, 23(3): 35-48.

Ogbonna, E. and Harris, L. C. 2000. Leadership style, organizational culture and performance: Empirical evidence from UK companies. *International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 11(4): 766-788.

Omerzel, D. G., Biloslavo, R. and Trnavcevic, A. 2011. Knowledge management and organizational culture in higher education institutions. *Journal for East European Management Studies*, 16(2): 111-139.

Otken, A. B. and Cenkci, T. 2012. The impact of paternalistic leadership on ethical climate: The moderating role of trust in leader. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 108(4): 525-536.

Pearce, J. L. 1981. Bringing some clarity to role ambiguity research. *Academy of Management Review*, 6(4): 665-674.

Peccei, R. and Lee, H. 2005. The impact of gender similarity on employee satisfaction at work: A review and re-evaluation. *Journal of Management Studies*, 42(8): 1571-1592.

Perry, J. L., Hondeghem, A. and Wise, L. R. 2010. Revisiting the motivational bases of public service: Twenty years of research and an agenda for the future. *Public Administration Review*, 70(5): 681-690.

Piedmont, R. and Weinstein, H. 1994. Predicting supervisor ratings of job performance using the NEO Personality Inventory. *Journal of Psychology* 128(3): 255-265.

Pigors, P. 1933. Leadership and domination among children. *Sociologus* 9: 140-157.

Pillai, R., Schriesheim, C. A. and Williams, E. S.1999. Fairness perceptions and trust as mediators for transformational and transactional leadership: A two-sample study. *Journal of Management*, 25(6): 897-933.

Ployhart, R. E., Holcombe-Ehrhart, K. and Hayes, S. C. 2005. Using attributions to understand the effects of explanations on applicant reactions: Are reactions consistent with the covariation principle? *Journal of Applied Social Psychology*, 35(2): 259-296.

Ployhart, R. E., Lim, B. and Chan, K. 2001. Exploring relations between typical and maximum performance ratings and Five-Factor Model of personality. *Personnel Psychology*, 54(4): 809-843.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, R., Moorman, R. and Fetter, R. 1990. Transformational leader behaviors and their effects on followers' trust in leader, satisfaction and organizational citizenship behaviors. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 1(2): 107-142.

Podsakoff, P., MacKenzie, S. B. and Bommer, W. H. 1996. Transformational leader behaviors and subtitutes for leadership as determinants of employee satisfaction, commitment, trust and organizational citizenship behaviors. *Journal of Management*, 22(2): 259-298.

Pool, S. W. 1997. The relationship of job satisfaction with substitutes of leadership, leadership behaviour, and work motivation. *The Journal of Psychology*, 131(3): 271-282.

Porter, L. W., Steers, R. M., Mowday, R. T. and Boulian, P. V. 1974. Organizational commitment, job satisfaction, and turnover among psychiatric technicans. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 59(5): 603-609.

Powell, G. N. 1999. Reflections on the glass ceiling: Recent trends and future prospects. In G. N. Powell (Ed.), *Handbook of gender and work*: 325-346. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Powell, G. N., Butterfield, D. A. and Parent, J. D. 2002. Gender and managerial stereotypes: Have the times changed? *Journal of Management*, 28(2): 177-193.

Powell, G. N. and Graves, L. M. 2003. *Women and men in management*. Thousand Oaks, CA: Sage.

Price, J. L. 1997. Handbook of organizational measurement. *International Journal of Manpower*, 18(4/5/6): 305-558.

Pudney, S. and Shields, M. 2000. Gender, race, pay and promotion in British nursing profession: Estimation of a generalized ordered probit model. *Journal of Applied Econometrics*, 15(4): 367-399.

Quinn, R. E. and Rohrbaugh, J. 1981. A competing values approach to organizational effectiveness. *Public Productivity Review*, 5(2): 122-140.

Rayman, J. and Atanasoff, L. 1999. Holland's theory and career intervention: The power of the hexagon. *Journal of Vocational Behavior*, 55(1): 114-126.

Reilly, C., Chatman, J. and Caldwell, D. F. 1991. People and organizational culture: A profile comparison approach to assessing person-organizational fit. *Academy of Management Journal*, 34: 487-516.

Rhodes, S. R. and Steers, R. M. 1981. Conventional vs. worker-owned organizations. *Human Relations*, 34(12): 1013-1035.

Ridgeway, C. L. 1997. Interaction and conservation of gender inequality: Considering employment. *American Sociological Review*, 62: 281-235.

Robinson, S. L. 1996. Trust and Breach of the psychological contract. *Administrative Science Quarterly*, 41(4): 574-599.

Rosenberg, M. 1965. *Society and the adolescent self-image*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.

Rosener, J. B. 1990. Ways women lead. *Harvard Business Review*, 68(6): 119-125.

Ross, S. M. and Offermann, L. R. 1997. Transformational leaders: Measurement of personality attributes and work group performance. *Personality and Social Psychology Bulletin*, 23: 1078-1086.

Rousseau, D. M., Sitkin, S. B., Burt, R. S. and Camerer, C. 1998. Not so different after all: A cross-discipline view of trust. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3): 393-404.

Rudman, L. A. 1998. Self-promotion as a risk factor for women: The costs and benefits of counterstereotypical impression management. *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 74(3): 629-645.

Ryckman, R. M. 2008. *Theories of personality* (9th ed.). CA: Thomson West.

Salancik, G. 1977. Commitment and the control of organization behavior and belief. In B. M. Staw and G. Salancik (Eds.), *New directions in organizational behavior*. Chicago, IL: St. Claire Press.

Schaufeli, W. and Enzmann, D. 1998. *The burnout companion to study and practice: A critical analysis*. London: Taylor & Francis.

Schein, E. H. 1985. *Organizational culture and leadership: A dynamic view*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. 2004. *Organizational culture and leadership* (3rd ed.). San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, E. H. 2010. *Organizational culture and leadership*. San Francisco, CA: Jossey-Bass.

Schein, V. E. 1975. Relationships between sex role stereotypes and requisite management characteristics among female managers. *Journal of Applied Psychology*, 60: 340-344.

Schriesheim, C. A., Castro, S. L., Zhou, X. and Dechurch, L. A. 2006. An investigation of path-goal & transformational leadership theory predications at the individual level of analysis. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 17(1): 21-38.

Schuh, S. C., Hermnandez Bark, A. S., Van Dick, R., Van Quaquebeke, N., Hossiep, R. and Frieg, P. 2014. Gender differences in leadership role occupancy: The mediating role of power motivation. *Journal of Business Ethics*, 120(3): 363-379.

Schyns, B., Veldhoven, v. and Wood, S. 2009. Organizational climate, relative psychological climate and job satisfaction: The example of supportive leadership climate. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 30(7): 649-663.

Scott-Ladd, B., Travaglione, A. and Marshall, V. 2006. Causal inferences between participation in decision making, task attributes, work effort, rewards, job satisfaction and commitment. *Leadership & Organization Development Journal*, 27(5): 399-414.

Sczesny, S., Bosak, J., Neff, D. and Schyns, B. 2004. Gender stereotypes and the attribution of leadership traits: A cross-cultural comparison. *Sex Roles*, 51(11-12): 631-645.

Seibert, S. E. and Kraimer, M. L. 2001. Five-factor model of personality and career success. *Journal of Vocational Behavior* 58(1): 1-21.

Shadur, M. A., Kienzle, R. and Rodwell, J.J. 1999. The relationship between organisational climate and employee perceptions of involvement. *Group and Organization Management*, 24(4): 479-503.

Shirom, A. 1989. Burnout in work organizations. In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology 1989*: 25-48. Chichester: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Shriberg, D. and Shriberg, A. 2011. *Practicing leadership: Principles and applications* (4th ed.). Hoboken, NJ: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Skakon, J., Nielsen, K., Borg, V. and Guzman, J. 2010. Are leaders' well-being, behaviours and style associated with the affective well-being of their employees? A systematic review of three decades of research. *Work & Stress*, 24(2): 107-139.

Sosik, J. J. and Godshalk, V. M. 2000. Leadership, mentoring functions received, and job-related stress: A conceptual model and preliminary study. *Journal of Organizational Behavior*, 21(4): 365-390.

Sosik, J. J., Kahai, S. S. and Avolio, B. J. 1998. Transformational leadership and dimensions of creativity: Motivating idea generation in computer-mediated groups. *Creativity Research Journal*, 11(2): 111-121.

Sosik, J. J. and Megerian, L. E. 1999. Understanding leader emotional intelligence and performance: The role of self-other agreement on transformational leadership perceptions. *Group and Organization Management*, 24(3): 340-366.

Spector, P. E. 2006. Method variance in organizational research: Truth or urban legend? *Organizational Research Methods*, 9(2): 221-232.

Spector, P. E. and Brannick, M. T. 1995. The nature and effects of method variance in organizational research. In C. L. Cooper and I. T. Robertson (Eds.), *International review of industrial and organizational psychology*, Vol. 10: 249-274. New York, NY: John Wiley & Sons, Inc.

Spreitzer, G. M., Kizilos, M. A. and Nason, S. W. 1997. A dimensional analysis of the relationship between psychologiacl empowerment and effectiveness, satisfaction, and strain. *Journal of Management*, 23(5): 679-704.

Srivastava, S., John, O. P. and Gosling, S. D. 2003. Development of personality in early and middle adulthood: Set like plaster or persistent change? *Journal of Personality and Social Psychology*, 84(5): 1041-1053.

Stephens, R., Dawley, D. and Stephens, D. 2004. Commitment on the board: A model of volunteer directors' level of organizational commitment and self-reported performance. *Journal of Managerial Issues*, 16(4): 483-505.

Stogdill, R. M. 1948. Personal factors associated with leadership: A survey of the literature. *Journal of Psychology*, 25(1): 35-71.

Stogdill, R. M. 1950. Leadership, membership and organization. *Psychological Bulletin*, 47(1): 1-14.

Stogdill, R. M. 1974. *Handbook of leadership: A survey of the literature*. New York, NY: Free Press.

Storey, J. (Ed.). 2011. *Leadership in organizations: Current issues and key trends* (2nd ed.). New York, NY: Rutledge.

Strang, S. E. and Kuhnert, K. W. 2009. Personality and leadership developmental levels as predictors of leader performance. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(9): 421-433.

Strauss, K., Griffin, M. A. and Rafferty, A. E. 2009. Proactively directed toward the team and organization: The role of leadership, commitment and role-breadth self-efficacy. *British Journal of Management*, 20(3): 279-291.

Sui, O. L., Lu, C. Q. and Spector, P. E. 2007. Employees' well-being in Greater China: The direct and moderating effects of general self-efficacy. *Applied Psychology: An International Review*, 56(2): 288-301.

Summerfield, C. and Babb, P. 2003. National statistics social trends, Vol. 33. London: The Stationery Office.

Tellegen, A. 1991. Personality traits: Issues of definition, evidence and assessment. In W. M. Grove and D. Cicchetti (Eds.), *Thinking clearly about psychology*, Vol. 2: 10-35. Oxford: University of Minnesota Press.

Tett, R. P. and Meyer, J. P. 1993. Job satisfaction, organizational commitment, turnover intention, and turnover: Path analyses based on meta-analytic findings. *Personnel Psychology*, 46(2): 259-293.

Timming, A. R. 2012. Tracing the effects of employee involvement and participation on trust in managers: An analysis of covariance structures. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management,* 23(15): 3243-3257.

Tokar, D. M. and Swanson, J. L. 1995. Evaluation of the correspondence between Holland's vocational personality typology and the Five-Factor Model of personality. *Journal of Vocational Behavior,* 46(1): 89-108.

Tolbert, P. S. and Hall, R. H. 2009. *Structures, processes and outcomes* (10th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Prentice Hall.

Van Dierendonck, D., Haynes, C., Borrill, C. and Stride, C. 2004. Leadership behavior and subordinate well-being. *Journal of Occupational Health Psychology,* 9(2): 165-175.

Van Engen, M. L., Van der Leeden, R. and Willemsen, T. M. 2001. Gender, context and leadership styles: A field study. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 74(5): 581-598.

Van Eeden, R., Cilliers, F. and Van Deventer, V. 2008. Leadership styles and associated personality traits: Support for the conceptualization of transactional and transformational leadership. *South African Journal of Psychology,* 38(2): 253-267.

Van Horn, J. E., Taris, T. W., Schaufeli, W. B. and Schreurs, P. J. 2004. The structure of occupational well-being: A study among Dutch teachers. *Journal of occupational and Organizational Psychology,* 77(3): 365-375.

Vassend, O. and Skrondal, A. 1995. Factor analytic studies of the NEO Personality Inventory and the five-factor model: The problem of high structural complexity and conceptual indeterminacy. *Personality and Individual Differences,* 19(2): 135-147.

Vinkenburg, C. J., Van Engen, M. L., Eagly, A. H. and Johannesen-Schmidt, M. C. 2011. An exploration of stereotypical beliefs about leadership styles: Is transformational leadership a route to women's promotion? *The Leadership Quarterly,* 22(1): 10-21.

Vroom, V. H. and Jago, A. G. 2007. The role of the situation in leadership. *American Psychologist,* 62(1): 17-24.

Wallace, E., De Chernatony, L. and Buil, I. 2013. Building bank brands: How leadership behavior influences employee commitment. *Journal of Business Research,* 66(2): 165-171.

Waller, N. G. 1999. Evaluating the structure of personality. In C. R. Cloninger (Ed.), *Personality and psychopathology*: 155-197. Washington, DC: American Psychiatric Association.

Walumbwa, F. O. and Lawler, J. J. 2003. Building effective organizations: transformational leadership, collectivist orientation, work-related attitudes and withdrawal behaviours in three emerging economies. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management* 14(7): 1083-1101.

Wang, A.C., Chiang, J. T.J., Tsai, C.Y., Lin, T.T. and Cheng, B.S. 2013. Gender makes the difference: The moderating role of leader gender on the relationship between leadership styles and subordinate performance. *Organizational Behavior and Human Decision Processes*, 122(2): 101-113.

Warr, P. 1990. The measurement of well-being and other aspects of mental health. *Journal of Occupational Psychology*, 63(3): 193-210.

Warr, P. 1994. A conceptual framework for the study of work and mental health. *Work & Stress*, 8(2): 84-97.

Wasti, S. 2003. Organizational commitment, turnover intentions and the influence of culture values. *Journal of Occupational and Organizational Psychology*, 76(2): 303-321.

Watson, D. and Clark, L. 1997. Extraversion and its positive emotional core. In R. Hogan, J. Johnson and S. Briggs (Eds.), *Handbook of personality psychology* 767-793. San Diego, CA: Academic Press.

Whitener, E. M. 1997. The impact of human resource activities on employee trust. *Human Resource Management Review*, 7(4): 389-404.

Whitener, E. M., Brodt, S. E., Korsgaard, M. A. and Werner, J. M. 1998. Managers as initiators of trust: An exchange relationship framework for understanding managerial trustworthy behaviour. *Academy of Management Review*, 23(3): 513-530.

Wood, S. and de Menezes, L. M. 2011. High involvement management, high-performance work systems and well-being. *The International Journal of Human Resource Management*, 22(7): 1586-1610.

Wosinska, W., Dabul, A. J., Whetstone-Dion, R. and Cialdini, R. B. 1996. Self-presentational responses to success in the organization: The costs and benefits of modesty. *Basic and Applied Social Psychology*, 18(2): 229-242.

Yukl, G. 1989. Managerial leadership: A review of theory and research. *Journal of Management*, 15(2): 251-289.

Yukl, G. 1999. An evaluation of conceptual weaknesses in transformational and charismatic leadership theories. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 10(2): 285-305.

Yukl, G. 2009. Leading organizational learning: Reflections on theory and research. *The Leadership Quarterly*, 20(1): 49-53.

Yukl, G. 2010. *Leadership in organizations* (7th ed.). Upper Saddle River, NJ: Pearson Education, Inc.

Yukl, G. 2013. *Leadership in organizations* (8th ed.). Essex: Pearson Education Limited.

Yukl, G. and Van Fleet, D. D. 1992. Theory and research on leadership in organizations. In M. D. Dunnette and L. M. Hough (Eds.), *Handbook of industrial and organizational psychology*, 2nd ed., Vol. 3: 147-197. Palo Alto, CA: Consulting Psychologists Press, Inc.

Zahidi, S. and Herminia, I. 2010. The corporate gender gap report 2010, *In World Economic Forum*. Geneva, Switzerland.

Zuckerman, M. 1991. *Psychobiology of personality*. Cambridge: Cambridge University Press.

Appendices

Appendix Table 2.1: The relationship of FFM of personality and the choice of occupations

Personality trait	Facet	Correlated occupation choices
Extraversion	gregariousness (sociable), assertiveness (forceful) excitement-seeking (adventurous), positive emotions (enthusiastic), warmth (outgoing)	(+) specific job[1] (+) sales, management and teamwork[2] (+) Social-type and Enterprise-type jobs[3] (+) intrinsic career(occupation, life, satisfaction) success[10]
Agreeableness	trustworthy (forgiving), straightforward (not demanding) altruistic (warm), compliant (not stubborn) modest (not showing off)' tender-minded (sympathetic)	(+) specific job[1] (-) career satisfaction and salary[4] (+) Social-type of jobs[3] (-) management[1] not relevant to any type[1,9]
Openness to experience	encompasses ideas (curious), fantasies (imaginative) aesthetics (artistic), actions (wide interest) feelings (excitable), values (unconventional)	(+) specific job[1] (+) Investigative and Artistic types[5] (-) Conventional occupations[6] (+) Social-type and Enterprise-type[3]
Conscientiousness	competence (efficient), order (organised) dutifulness (not careless), achievement striving (thorough) self-discipline (not lazy), deliberation (not impulsive)	(+) performance in all jobs[2,7] (+) Conventional type [3,8]
Neuroticism	anxious (tense), angry hostile (irritable) depressed (not contented), self-consciousness (shy) impulsive (moody), vulnerable (not self-confident)	not relevant to any type[1,9] (-) intrinsic career(occupation, life, satisfaction) success[10]

Facet based on Mueller and Plug (2006, p.5)

[1] Barrick, Mount and Gupta (2003)   [2] Barrick, Mount and Judge (2001)
[3] De Fruyt and Mervielde (1999)   [4] Seibert and Kraimer (2001)
[5] Costa, McCrae and Holland (1984)   [6] Judge et al. (1999)
[7] Barrick and Mount (1991)   [8] Gottfredson, Jones and Holland (1993)
[9] Ackerman and Heggestad (1997)   [10] Fietze, Holst and Tobsch (2011)

Appendix Table 3.1: The variables and the relevant indicators

Outcomes
Leader and gender
Leader and gender
'Do you have any managerial duties or do you supervise any other employees?'
1= Yes   .
0= No
Gender
1= Male
2= Female

Independent variables
Five dimensions of personality traits:
Agreeableness
'I see myself as someone who is sometimes rude to others'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who has a forgiving nature'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who is considerate and kind to almost everyone'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
Conscientiousness
'I see myself as someone who does a thorough job'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who tends to be lazy'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who does things efficiently'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
Extraversion
'I see myself as someone who is talkative'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who is outgoing, sociable'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who is reserved'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
Neuroticism
'I see myself as someone who worries a lot'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who gets nervously easily'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who is relaxed, handles stress well'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
Openness to experience
'I see myself as someone who is original, comes up with new ideas'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who values artistic, aesthetic experiences'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly)
'I see myself as someone who has an active imagination'
(1 = Does not apply, 7 = Applies perfectly

Appendix Table 3.1: The variables and the relevant indicators (continue)

Organisational variables:
Organisational sectors
Employing organisation: current job
1= Private firm/company   2= Central government
3= Local government   4= NHS/ higher education
5= Non-profit organisations
Organisational size
'How many people are employed at the place where you work?'
1= 29-49   2= 50-99
3= 100-199   4= 200-499
5= 500-999   6= 1000 or more

Demographic variables:
Status and personal life
Age: Age at date of interview
Education: Highest educational qualification

1= Higher degree	2= First degree	3= Teaching QF
4= Other higher QF	5= Nursing QF	6= GCE a levels
7= GCE O levels or equi	8= Commercial QF	9= CSE Grade 2-5, Scot G
10=Apprenticeship	11=Other QF	12=No QF
13=Still at school No Q		

Number of own children in household
Includes natural children, adopted children and step children, under age of 16
Marital status
1= Married   2= Separated
3= Divorced   4= Windowed
5= Never married
Health
'Over the last 12 months about your health has been. Compared to people of your own age, would you say that your health has on the whole been'
1= Excellent   2= Good   3= Fair/poor//very poor

Working experience and environment
Number of hours normally worked per week: 'How many hours in total do you usually work a week in your job?'
Wages: 'What is your hourly rate of pay for your basic hours of work?'
Annual household
Length (days) current working
Usual gross pay
Annual incomes

Source: British Household Panel Survey in 1991 to 2008

Appendix Table 4.1: The variables and the relevant indicators

---

Dependent variable
Employee's job satisfaction
'How satisfied are you with the following aspects of your job?'
The sense of achievement you get from your work
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
The scope for using your own initiative
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
The amount of influence you have over your job
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
The training you receive
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
The amount of pay you receive
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
Your job security
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)
The work itself
(1 = Very dissatisfied, 5 = Very satisfied)

Employee well-being
'Thinking of the past few weeks, how much of the time has your job made you feel each of the following?'
Tense
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)
Calm
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)
Relaxed
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)
Worried
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)
Uneasy
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)
Content
(1 = Never, 5 = All of the time)

Independent variables
Interpersonal leadership style
'We do not introduce any changes here without first discussing the implications with employees'
(1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

Democratic leadership style
'Most decisions at this workplace are made with consulting employees'
(1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

Appendix Table 4.1: The variables and the relevant indicators (continue)

Moderator variable
Gender diversity of managers
'How many managers and senior officials are in the workplace?'
(Male and Female)

Control variables
The workplace level

Gender diversity of employee
'Currently how many full-time employees (30 hours or more per week) do you have on the payroll at this establishment? Please show males and females separately'

The organisational sectors

1= Manufacturing	2= Electricity, gas and water
3= Construction	4= Wholesale and retail
5= Hotels and restaurants	6= Transport and communication
7= Financial services	8= Other business services
9= Public administration	10=Education
11= Health	12= Other community services

The employee level
The age of employee
'How old are you?'

1= 16-17	2= 18-19	3= 20-21
4= 22-29	5= 30-39	6= 40-49
7= 50-59	8= 60-64	7= 65 or more

The organisational tenure of employee
'How many years in total have you been working at this workplace?' By workplace this means the site or location at, or from, which you work.

1= less than 1 year	2= 1 to less than 2 years
3= 2 to less than 5 years	4= 5 to less than 10 years
5= 10 years or more	

The working contact of employee
'Which of the phrases below best describes your job here?'

1= permanent	2= temporary-with no agree end date
3= fixed period-with an agree end date	

Source: 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey of Employees.

Appendix Table 4.2: Means, Standard deviations for study variables

The industrial sectors		Overall employee's job satisfaction	Overall employee's job well-being	Interpersonal Leadership style	Democratic leadership style	Proportion of female managers	N
1. Manufacturing	Mean	3.370	2.979	3.88	3.75	.135	2557
	SD	.724	.735	.903	.903	.150	
2. Electricity, gas and water	Mean	3.372	2.935	4.25	4.36	.144	356
	SD	.702	.721	.805	.720	.238	
3. Construction	Mean	3.627	3.038	3.58	3.35	.086	755
	SD	.683	.702	1.093	.965	.128	
4. Wholesale and retail	Mean	3.522	3.084	3.85	3.58	.306	1337
	SD	.652	.761	.963	.907	.291	
5. Hotels and restaurants	Mean	3.685	3.095	3.82	3.55	.517	276
	SD	.673	.757	1.055	.995	.239	
6. Transport and communication	Mean	3.305	3.001	3.86	3.76	.173	1053
	SD	.742	.795	.898	.920	.213	
7. Financial services	Mean	3.360	2.850	3.53	3.97	.331	1032
	SD	.706	.693	1.139	.832	.261	
8. Other business services	Mean	3.569	2.945	3.74	3.52	.312	1596
	SD	.678	.699	.988	1.043	.289	
9. Public administration	Mean	3.360	2.892	3.91	4.07	.345	1312
	SD	.695	.708	.924	.645	.284	
10. Education	Mean	3.632	2.957	4.05	4.25	.5206	1706
	SD	.619	.699	.855	.680	.315	
11. Health	Mean	3.656	3.019	4.08	4.15	.629	2257
	SD	.634	.731	.814	.765	.302	
12. Other community services	Mean	3.549	3.056	4.02	3.97	.326	824
	SD	.714	.735	.835	.889	.293	
Total	Mean	3.450	2.981	3.89	3.87	.336	15061
	SD	.695	.729	.942	.907	.313	

Appendix Table 4.3: Results of regression analysis: Employee's job satisfaction within industrial sectors

1. Manufacturing

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.010	1.Democratic leadership style	-.024
2.Proportion of femaleMNG	.037	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.028
3. 1×2	.009	3. 1×2	-.049
N= 2557			

2. Electricity, gas, and water

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.228*	1.Democratic leadership style	-.148
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.013	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.037
3. 1×2	-.362**	3. 1×2	-.200
N= 356			

3. Construction

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1. Interpersonal leadership style	-.145	1.Democratic leadership style	-.199*
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.003	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.033
3. 1×2	-.166	3. 1×2	-.195*
N= 755			

4. Wholesale and retail

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.035	1.Democratic leadership style	.057*
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.068*	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.070*
3. 1×2	.020	3. 1×2	.017
N= 1337			

5. Hotels and restaurants

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.155	1.Democratic leadership style	.123
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.065	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.065
3. 1×2	-.152	3. 1×2	-.134
N=276			

6. Transport and communication

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1. Interpersonal leadership style	.025	1.Democratic leadership style	-.007
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.022	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.025
3. 1×2	.007	3. 1×2	.001
N=1053			

7. Financial services

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.065*	1.Democratic leadership style	.086*
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.032	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.040
3. 1×2	-.021	3. 1×2	.035
N= 1032			

8. Other business service

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.009	1.Democratic leadership style	.044
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.060*	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.052
3. 1×2	-.044	3. 1×2	-.052*
N= 1596			

9. Public administration

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1. Interpersonal leadership style	.058*	1.Democratic leadership style	.104***
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.166***	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.158***
3. 1×2	.043	3. 1×2	-.052
N= 1312			

10. Education

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.062*	1.Democratic leadership style	.071**
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.068**	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.086**
3. 1×2	-.003	3. 1×2	-.037
N= 1706			

11. Health

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.003	1.Democratic leadership style	.044
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.090***	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.102***
3. 1×2	.019	3. 1×2	-.012
N=2257			

12. Other community services

Dependent variable: Job satisfaction			
1. Interpersonal leadership style	.002	1.Democratic leadership style	-.006
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.064	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.032
3. 1×2	-.092*	3. 1×2	-.010
N= 824			

Note: * p< .05, ** p<.01, ***p<.001; Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

Appendix Table 4.4: Results of regression analysis: Employee's well-being within industrial sectors

1. Manufacturing				2. Electricity, gas, and water				3. Construction			
Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.040	1.Democratic leadership style	.058	1.Interpersonal leadership style	.024	1.Democratic leadership style	-.052	1. Interpersonal leadership style	-.108	1.Democratic leadership style	-.131
2.Proportion of femaleMNG	-.008	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.008	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.000	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.106	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.018	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.040
3. 1× 2	-.003	3. 1× 2	.009	3. 1× 2	.008	3. 1× 2	-.146	3. 1× 2	-.143	3. 1× 2	-.152
N= 2557				N= 356				N= 755			
4. Wholesale and retail				5. Hotels and restaurants				6. Transport and communication			
Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.016	1.Democratic leadership style	.031	1.Interpersonal leadership style	.271***	1.Democratic leadership style	.153	1. Interpersonal leadership style	-.018	1.Democratic leadership style	.039
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.012	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.014	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.074	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.106	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.033	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.037
3. 1× 2	.021	3. 1× 2	.010	3. 1× 2	-.139	3. 1× 2	-.088	3. 1× 2	-.025	3. 1× 2	.025
N= 1337				N= 276				N=1053			
7. Financial services				8. Other business service				9. Public administration			
Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	.045	1.Democratic leadership style	.064*	1.Interpersonal leadership style	.051*	1.Democratic leadership style	.016	1. Interpersonal leadership style	.041	1.Democratic leadership style	.001
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.012	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.001	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.030	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.026	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.069*	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-061*
3. 1× 2	-.005	3. 1× 2	.011	3. 1× 2	.002	3. 1× 2	-.008	3. 1× 2	.033	3. 1× 2	-.041
N= 1032				N= 1596				N= 1312			
10. Education				11. Health				12. Other community services			
Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being				Dependent variable: Well-being			
1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.023	1.Democratic leadership style	.035	1.Interpersonal leadership style	-.008	1.Democratic leadership style	.018	1. Interpersonal leadership style	-.040	1.Democratic leadership style	-.004
2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.024	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	-.019	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.110***	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.116***	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.037	2. Proportion of femaleMNG	.007
3. 1× 2	.098***	3. 1× 2	.028	3. 1× 2	.044	3. 1× 2	.036	3. 1× 2	-.039	3. 1× 2	.043
N= 1706				N=2257				N= 824			

Note: * $p < .05$, ** $p < .01$, *** $p < .001$; Employee's tenure 1year more, age 18-64, and contact permanent

Appendix Table 5.1: The variables and the relevant indicators

<div style="border: 1px solid black;">

Dependent variable
Organizational commitment
To what extent do you agree or disagree with the following statements:
'I share the values of my organisation'
(1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)
'I feel loyal to my organisation'
(1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)
'I am proud to tell people who I work for'
(1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Independent variables
Interpersonal leadership style
'We do not introduce any changes here without first discussing the implications with employees'
(1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

Democratic leadership style
'Most decisions at this workplace are made with consulting employees'
(1= Strongly disagree, 5= Strongly agree)

Moderator and mediator variable
Trust in managers
Now thinking about managers at this workplace, to what extent do you agree or disagree with the following:
'Managers here can be relied upon to keep their promises'
(1 =Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)
'Managers here are sincere in attempting to understand employees' views'
(1 = Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)
'Managers here deal with employees honestly'
(1 =Strongly disagree, 5 = Strongly agree)

Control variables
Management survey
The organisational sectors

1= Manufacturing	2= Electricity, gas and water
3= Construction	4= Wholesale and retail
5= Hotels and restaurants	6= Transport and communication
7= Financial services	8= Other business services
9= Public administration	10=Education
11= Health	12= Other community services

</div>

Appendix Table 5.1: The latent variables and the relevant indicators (continue)

Employee survey		
The age of employee		
'How old are you?'		
1= 16-17	2= 18-19	3= 20-21
4= 22-29	5= 30-39	6= 40-49
7= 50-59	8= 60-64	7= 65 or more

The organisational tenure of employee
'How many years in total have you been working at this workplace?' By workplace this means the site or location at, or from, which you work.

1= less than 1 year	2= 1 to less than 2 years
3= 2 to less than 5 years	4= 5 to less than 10 years
5= 10 years or more	

The working contact of employee
'Which of the phrases below best describes your job here?'

1= permanent	2= temporary-with no agree end date
3= fixed period-with an agree end date	

Source: 2004 Workplace Employment Relations Survey of Employees.

Appendix Figure 5.1: Model 2 - The results of the relationship between leadership style

and organisational commitment: Trust as a mediator

(1) Interpersonal leadership style

(2) Democratic leadership style