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**Examining multiple leadership styles and their
influences on employee outcomes in the Auckland
workplace: A mediation study**

**A 152.800 thesis presented in partial fulfilment of the
requirement
of the degree of Master of Management
at Massey University**

Thi Hong Ngoc (Ruby) NGUYEN

Student ID: 09138730

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ABSTRACT

BACKGROUND: In recent years, cultural diversity has been significantly increasing in the New Zealand workplace, particularly in the Auckland region. It is a concern that cultural diversity may lead to a decrease in beneficial outcomes such as job satisfaction, and an increase in detrimental outcomes such as turnover intentions. This research explores the role of multiple leadership styles to best determine which leadership style or styles are most influential on enhancing employee outcomes.

OBJECTIVE: This study tests the influences of five leadership styles (collaborative, authentic, participative, supportive, and instrumental) on employee outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, cynicism, and cultural wellbeing) through the mediating role of perceived organisational support (POS).

METHOD: A quantitative research method was adopted. An online and physical survey was used to collect data across Auckland. The sample consisted of 212 employees in culturally diverse organisations in Auckland. Hierarchical regression analysis was conducted using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) version 17.0 to test the direct effects of leadership styles and the potential mediating effects of POS.

RESULTS: Significant associations were found between all leadership styles and the six employee outcomes. The five leadership styles account for 39% of

the total variance for job satisfaction ($p < .001$), 22% for organisational commitment ($p < .001$), 19% for turnover intentions ($p < .001$), 23% of the total variance for emotional exhaustion ($p < .001$), 39% of the total variance for cynicism ($p < .001$), and 28% of the total variance for cultural wellbeing ($p < .001$). However, regression analysis showed that authentic leadership was the dominant predictor, with collaborative leadership also important to a much lesser extent. Overall, these findings show that leadership styles do play an important and sizeable role in understanding the outcomes explored in this study.

In addition, POS was also found to significantly mediate the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes. POS mediates the influence of collaborative and authentic leadership on job satisfaction; the influence of authentic leadership on organisational commitment; the influence of authentic leadership on turnover intentions; the influence of authentic leadership on emotional exhaustion; the influence of collaborative and authentic leadership styles on cynicism, and the influence of collaborative leadership on cultural wellbeing. Overall, POS was found to be a consistent mediator of the influence of leadership styles on the employee outcomes tested here.

CONCLUSIONS: Leadership styles, in particular authentic leadership and collaborative leadership, have positive influences on beneficial employee outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment and cultural wellbeing), and significant and negative influences on detrimental employee outcomes (turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion and cynicism) in ethnically diverse

organisations. In addition, POS was found to be an important mediating variable for leadership styles and employee outcomes. Overall, despite being significantly correlated, there was no statistically significant influence from supportive, participative, or instrumental leadership towards any of the employee outcomes tested here. In addition, it is interesting to find that authentic leadership is more influential on employee outcomes than collaborative leadership. However, collaborative leadership is the only leadership style that has a positive influence on cultural wellbeing. Limitations and suggestions for research are discussed.

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CHAPTER 1

INTRODUCTION

1.1 Research Background

The subject of leadership has attracted much attention from organisational researchers (Avolio, 1999; Avolio, Walumbwa, & Weber, 2009; Bass, 1990; Loke, 2001). In addition, leadership is defined as ‘a process whereby an individual influences a group of individuals to achieve a common goal’ (Northouse, 2007, p. 3). Similarly, Goldsmith (2009) also believes that a definition of leadership is ‘to work with and through others to achieve goals’. In other words, in order to achieve a common goal, effective leadership is required (Fiedler, 1967). Therefore, there is ongoing literature research into good leadership (Loke, 2001).

Besides an academic attraction, my interest in searching for an effective leadership style evolved when I started working as a marketing consultant for language schools in the Auckland CBD in 2011. Being culturally diverse organisations, the schools had different nationalities working together. I found some organisations managed their diversity effectively; yet, it seemed to be a challenge for other organisations to achieve employee outcomes successfully. I found it was not about a language barrier, as everyone communicates together in English, but more about culture differences and leadership effectiveness which sometimes influenced staff morale and employee productivity.

One day when I visited a private training establishment (PTE) in the Auckland CBD, the managing director introduced his international marketing manager to me by way of a very creative comment: “She is my boss when it comes to her area of expertise; she knows everything about it”. By listening carefully, I deduced that he is a good leader who is willing to not only share his leadership role but to also delegate responsibility to his staff. It seems likely that his leadership and management skills have helped his organisation achieve recognition as a Category One Institution, an accolade awarded only to the top quality PTEs based on the standards of New Zealand Quality Assurance Authority (NZQA).

When visiting another Category One PTE, I found the CEO to be very friendly and considerate to his staff. He took me and introduced me to his employees. All staff seemed to be pleased to be introduced to guests as they perhaps found this to be an indication that they are important in the organisation. He remembered things related to their work and started his conversation with them in a friendly, interested, and caring manner. It appeared to me that he engaged well with his staff and was respected by them.

After observing leadership being practised in different organisations, I again asked myself the question: “what is leadership?” and “what type of leadership works successfully in multi-cultural organisations?” Hence, this process of self- learning led to my interest in conducting this empirical research on searching for an effective leadership style in a multi-cultural environment.

1.2 Problem Statement

With 40,000–50,000 new immigrants from approximately 150 countries entering New Zealand each year (Statistics New Zealand, 2006; Stuart, Ward, Jose, & Narayanan, 2010), cultural diversity is now an important concept in New Zealand society. Changes in the composition of the work force draw further attention to this concept. However, there are inevitable challenges. One such challenge is how to create a suitable and effective leadership style which will ensure that this unique resource, namely culturally diverse staff, results in positive outcomes. It has been stated that the New Zealand government considers an ethnically diverse workforce as a unique strength and a driving force for the New Zealand economy (The Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2012).

According to Badkar and Tuya (2010), New Zealand's population is becoming more diverse with significant demographic change affecting the country's workforce. For instance, the 2006 Census showed that Asians comprised the fourth largest major group of ethnicities in New Zealand, comprising 9.2 percent of New Zealand's population. This proportion is expected to increase to approximately 15 percent by 2026 (Badkar & Tuya, 2010). In addition, according to The Office of Ethnic Affairs (2012), approximately one in four New Zealanders was born overseas. Furthermore, about 60 per cent of New Zealand's workforce growth stems from migrants. On this basis it is predicted that by 2021 a quarter of the workforce will be migrants (The Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2012).

In addition, according to an article in The New Zealand Herald (2012), based on observations over the past decade it is thought that possessing an organisational culture with a diverse workforce has the ability to significantly improve business performance (Cox & Blake, 1991; Gonzalez, 2013). For instance, thanks to their diverse workforce many organisations tend to respond effectively to multi-cultural customers' needs (Watts & Trlin, 2000). It is perhaps wise for organisations to consider having an ethnically diverse workforce while expanding their export business so as to approach the new challenges and opportunities in emerging foreign markets in the most appropriate manner.

Furthermore, bringing people from different cultural backgrounds with their life and work experience tends to stimulate new ideas and improve the quality of decisions (Cox & Blake, 1991; J. Han & Brass, 2014; The New Zealand Herald, 2012). Therefore, it would seem to be prudent to have a diverse workforce creating an inclusive workplace culture resulting in a potential benefit to the organisation. Kenexa also defines an inclusive workplace culture as "an organisation where every employee has a high sense of belonging as an accepted, welcomed and valued member in the larger organisation ... an environment where 'We' is everyone" (The New Zealand Herald, 2012).

In December 2012, the Office of Ethnic Affairs signed a Memorandum of Understanding with the New Zealand Institute of Management with the purpose of enhancing the management of New Zealand's ethnically diverse workplaces (The Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2012). The agreement includes three

perspectives: (1) improving the leadership capability of New Zealand organisations to manage effectively ethnic diversity in the workplace; (2) promoting the benefits of ethnic diversity in the workplace; and (3) supporting international students and potential foreign entrepreneurs to integrate into New Zealand's business environment (The Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2012). The MOU is a foundation for these two organisations collaborating together in helping New Zealand businesses to manage their ethnically diverse workforces more effectively. In addition, in this ceremony the Minister for Ethnic Affairs, Judith Collins, emphasised that "New Zealand's diversity is a very positive force. It has helped us create connections that span the globe, broadened our horizons and enhanced our entrepreneurial spirit" (The Office of Ethnic Affairs, 2012). It would seem to be apparent, then, that a culturally diverse workforce would be most beneficial for New Zealand business development.

In their article, Chamber of Commerce also believed that Auckland is the most ethnically diverse centre of New Zealand, with 181 identified ethnic groups. Furthermore, the ethnic diversity of the New Zealand population is increasing significantly (Auckland Chamber of Commerce, 2012). It suggests that an ethnically diverse workforce brings new opportunities and challenges for leaders; hence, leaders are required to be prepared and well-equipped to manage this diversity effectively (Auckland Chamber of Commerce, 2012). It is crucial to enhance leadership in order to increase positive outcomes in an ethnically diverse workforce.

Therefore, achieving leadership effectiveness is required – a leadership producing positive outcomes effectively (Fiedler, 1967). Also, in the competitive world of business, it is crucial for organisations to possess effective leadership as “people are the only assets with the creativity and adaptive power to sustain an organisation’s success in today’s dynamic business world” (Krohn, 2000, p. 63). Hence, it is important to apply a suitable leadership style to suit new changing business environments of organisations, particularly those that are culturally diverse.

There are various theories and styles of leadership in the existing literature. It seems the nature of leadership has changed constantly as a result of the evolution of society, with new conceptualisations and requirements on leadership (Van Wart, 2013). The fundamental principle of leadership remains, while practical aspects of leadership appear to continuously develop and redevelop to make the process of leadership more effective. As such, it is critical to explore an effective style of leadership to create positive outcomes in multicultural organisations.

1.3 Purpose of Study

The study seeks to investigate key factors that facilitate leadership effectiveness resulting in positive employee outcomes. The aim is to contribute to the literature, whilst, at the same time, providing practical recommendations on effective leadership style in an ethnically diverse workplace.

The study started out to identify the problems facing leadership in multicultural organisations in New Zealand. From there, and emerging concerns, the study focussed on two leadership styles: (1) collaborative leadership and, (2) authentic leadership, in relation to employees' outcomes.

Finally, using a questionnaire survey, this study sought to provide empirical data analysis which could be of benefit in helping New Zealand organisations enhance their employees' positive outcomes by executing a suitable leadership style to manage diversity successfully and enhance its unique elements.

Therefore, the finding of this research could be expected to contribute to deepening understanding of the role of organisational leaders in enhancing the outcomes of employees from broad cultural backgrounds in New Zealand.

1.4 Research Questions

The following research questions guiding this study were designed to investigate the effectiveness of leadership in ethnically diverse organisations in New Zealand:

Research Question 1:

What is the association between leadership styles (including authentic leadership, collaborative leadership and path-goal leadership) and employee job outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, cultural wellbeing, emotional exhaustion, turnover intentions and cynicism)? Is one leadership style more effective than another?

Research Question 2:

Does perceived organisational support mediate the influence of specific leadership styles on employee outcomes?

1.5 Thesis Structure

This section provides an overview of this thesis and justifies the structure.

According to Remenyi and Bannister (2012), a thesis has traditionally six chapters - the introduction, the literature review, methodology, the research, the findings and conclusions, and limitations and future research. Based on Remenyi and Bannister's (2012) recommendation, I divided the thesis into eleven chapters to include all required contents of a traditional thesis research

Chapter 1: Introduction

The introduction provides the research background, then identifies the problem statement, describes the research objective, presents research questions and explains the research structure.

Chapter 2: A review on leadership

This chapter begins with a review of the literature on leadership definition and its theory development. It then analyses different approaches of leadership so as to provide a background for further insightful discussion on the three leadership theories which form the core of this research: collaborative

leadership, authentic leadership, and path-goal theory, each of which is discussed in the following chapters.

Chapter 3: Collaborative leadership

This chapter presents a historical review of the concept of collaboration and its definition, and then reviews and analyses the literature on collaborative leadership to explore gaps in research.

Chapter 4: Authentic leadership

In this chapter, before starting an examination on authentic leadership, a literature review of past and current issues leading researchers' interest will be presented. In addition, the revision of the relationship between authentic leadership and its outcomes, such as job satisfaction, will be reviewed.

Chapter 5: Path-goal theory

This chapter provides a general understanding of path-goal theory, with a focus on its leadership styles. In addition, a review of previous studies will be presented to show the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes.

Chapter 6: Leadership outcomes

This chapter will provide a literature review on various leadership outcomes such as: employee wellbeing, job burnout, job satisfaction, employee

commitment, employee trust, perceived organisational support and communication climate. This chapter examines the influence of leadership on employee outcomes; this is tested in chapter 8 to find out which leadership style is more effective in a multicultural environment.

Chapter 7: New Zealand cultural context

This chapter will first provide a discussion on culture and its definitions, then present the New Zealand cultural context as a background for examining the effectiveness of leadership in a multi-cultural environment.

Chapter 8: Theoretical model

This chapter will provide two theoretical models: a ‘direct effects only’ model and a ‘mediation model’. The purpose of this chapter is to provide a clearer understanding of the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes mediating by organisational perceived support

Chapter 9: Methods

This chapter will show the methodology employed in this study, and will present descriptions of sample and participants, measurements utilised for each variable, questionnaires and procedures used for analysing the data, data collection and research ethics.

Chapter 10: Results

This chapter will report the results achieved through statistical tests running by SPSS to show possible significant relationships between the variables in the study

Chapter 11: Discussions

This chapter will examine and interpret the results presented in chapter 10 in comparison with findings from previous literature to discuss the research objectives of this study and provide a deeper understanding of this present study's findings.

Chapter 12: Conclusions, limitations and recommendations

This chapter will present the major conclusions of this present study. In addition, by reflecting on the process of implementing this research, limitations of this study will be discussed. The chapter will also provide recommendations for future research, which might yield further empirical evidence in applying different research paradigms for the findings.

CHAPTER 2

A REVIEW ON LEADERSHIP

This chapter reviews the literature on the definition of leadership and its theory development. It then analyses different theories of leadership: trait theory, situational theory, contingency theory, the social construction theory, transformational theory, servant theory and leader-member exchange theory.

This chapter provides the necessary background on leadership theories for an insightful discussion of authentic leadership, collaborative leadership and path-goal leadership, the three theories at the core of this research.

2.1 What is Leadership?

Over the past few decades, the understanding of leadership and how it is exercised has changed (Sirman, 2008). Today, although leadership is defined in various ways, most definitions share some common components such as a process of influence, involvement, a group of individuals, or a common goal (Northouse, 2007). Furthermore, leadership is considered as an essential element for both individuals and organisations (Northouse, 2007). This is because leadership can enhance an individual's life, and contribute to improving the efficiency of an organisation (Northouse, 2007). Therefore, it is crucial to have effective leadership in organisations.

Leadership has also been shown to have a positive impact on developing individuals' potential capacities such as creativity or the desire for achievement. According to DuBrin, Dalglish and Miller (2006), leadership is involved with "change, inspiration, motivation, and influence" (p. 20). This view suggests that leadership involves influence from a leader to followers. It has also been argued that leadership occurs in groups where there are two or more people (Northouse, 2007). In addition, Campling, Poole, Weisner and Schermerhorn (2006) have argued that "leaders have a moral obligation to supply the necessary spark to awaken the potential of each individual in their organisation" (p. 376). However, Bass and Avolio (1994) have argued that the only way to help followers develop their own creativity is to understand how they view the world, and then provide suitable conditions to elevate a follower's level of maturity and ideals, as well as concerns for achievement, self-actualisation, and the well-being of others, the organisation, and society (Bass, 1999). Therefore, leadership which ethically enhances the effectiveness of employees is critical in organisations.

To understand leadership more fully, it is important to define the concept of leaders and followers who together form the process of leadership. Bennis (1989) defined leaders as those who inspire and unite people to achieve the dreams or goals of organisations, whereas followers are those who are led by a leader. The concept of followers does not exist if there is no leader, and vice versa. Therefore, a leader and followers are inextricably bound together in a process of interaction (Reicher, Haslam, & Hopkins, 2005), to achieve organisational goals (Conger & Kanungo, 1998). During the process of

interaction, the role of leaders is to “help individuals and teams to coordinate and integrate their differing styles through a process of applied creativity” (Basadur, 2004, p. 103). In addition, Bennis (1989) also compared the differences between leadership and management. According to Bennis (1989), “leaders do the right thing; managers do things right” (p. 2). Furthermore, although managers are still seen as leaders, leadership has become further sharpened by the way leaders interact with followers in order to cope with complex problems in the constantly changing world impacting an organisations and culture (Heckscher & Adler, 2006; Sirman, 2008). Therefore, managers should also possess leadership qualities in order to achieve organisational goals successfully in a constantly changing business environment.

Studies on leadership have traditionally concentrated on the vertical influence of leaders on followers (Kramer & Crespy, 2011). Vertical influence is defined as a top-down process in which a leader is the only person in charge whereas other people in the group are followers (Pearce, 2004). Ensley, Hmieleski and Pearce (2006) have stated that vertical influence depends on the intelligence and capability of an individual leader. Furthermore, there are a number of studies which focus on the vertical influence of leadership such as trait theory (Stogdill, 1948; Zaccaro, 2007), leadership style (Blake & Mouton, 1964), contingency theory (Fiedler, 1967), charismatic leadership (Trice & Beyer, 1986), visionary leadership (Larwood, Falbe, Kriger, & Miesing, 1995) and transformational leadership (Keller, 1992). However, an increasing number of researchers argue that vertical leadership is impractical in complex circumstances (Bennis, 1999), and some studies have shown that that

leadership is a shared process between leaders and members in both leading and decision-making (Houghton, Neck, & Manz, 2003; Pearce & Conger, 2003a; Seifert, 2001).

Beyond the traditional concept above, leadership has been considered as a shared process in a group (Pearce & Conger, 2003a). As discussed above, leaders have an obligation to motivate their followers (Bass & Avolio, 1994). A leader does not have to be a top manager, but can be his or her subordinate, a peer, or co-worker functioning as an informal leader in a work group (Bass & Avolio, 1994). As Bass and Avolio (1994) have stated, “transformational leadership is not only direct and top-down, but also can be observed in organisations indirectly, from the bottom up, and horizontally” (p. 27). Further, they referred to “upward influence” (p. 39), where followers can motivate their leaders and enhance the possibility of their leaders’ success. However, this influence occurs only when leaders listen to the ideas of their followers or followers are willing to give their opinions to their leaders.

Leadership can also be distributed to all members in a group (Loughead & Hardy, 2005) . An informal leader is the person who has an ability to influence other members (Pescosolido, 2001). The study by Bednarek, Benson and Mustafa (1976) also supports this view; they say that ‘every group member is in some degree a leader’ (p. 308). However, informal leaders may differ in their ability to influence a group due to four factors: task leadership, maturity, social influence, and flexibility (Bednarek, et al., 1976, p. 313). These four factors shape the status of leaders in the group. Pescosolido (2001) stated that

“the informal leaders within a group play a key role in developing the group’s efficacy” (p. 74). Overall, leadership is also believed to be shared between the leader and the followers during the process of interaction.

In brief, the concept of leadership has been variously defined and developed over time from the traditional concept of vertical influence to the relatively new concept of upward influences. The evolution of the leadership construct has occurred as a response to the development of society as it became more complex and dynamic. In other words, leadership definitions reflect the perspective of an industrial society, and a new era brings new definitions of leadership (Green, 2007). Therefore, the more leadership is understood, the better outcomes individuals and organisations receive through enhanced performances and well-being. In order to deepen the understanding of leadership further, the present study will review existing leadership theories.

2.2 Leadership Theories

Leadership theory has developed and changed during the past decades to include a broad range of topics, such as the trait theory, situational theory, contingency theory, transformational leadership, and transactional leadership. It continues to develop and absorb new insights and approaches, such as the current approach towards collaborative leadership. By analysing leadership theory, researchers have an opportunity to understand further the relationship between leaders and followers in a cultural framework (Green, 2007). A brief outline of these various theories is discussed below.

2.2.1 Trait leadership

Some of the first systematic leadership studies explained how traits influence leadership (Bass, 1985; Bryman, 1992; Northouse, 2007). Trait theory defines leadership as an integration of personal characteristics which fosters a leader's effectiveness consistently across a wide range of group and organisational situations (Zaccaro, Kemp, & Bader, 2004). Trait leadership theory posits that only great people possess the superior characteristics necessary to be influential leaders (Northouse, 2007). Moreover, leaders are perceived to have qualities and personal traits in a range from which their followers are excluded (Bass, 1990; Bryman, 1992; Lord, De Vader, & Alliger, 1986; Smith & Krueger, 1933; Stogdill, 1948, 1974).

Existing studies on trait leadership have reported that leaders are considerably better than their followers with respect to intelligence, scholarship, responsibility, activity, and social participation (Bass, 1990; Geier, 1967). From his research Geier (Geier, 1967) proposed that the seven most common traits of leadership were (a) physical and constitutional factors such as height, weight, physique, and appearance; (b) intelligence; (c) self-confidence; (d) sociability; (e) will – expressed as initiative, persistence and ambition; (f) dominance; and (g) *urgency*, which included the traits of talkativeness, enthusiasm, alertness, and originality. In his study, Geier found there was no single type of trait leadership, and that leadership type develops out of relationship with followers.

Overall, trait theory has provided valuable insights into leadership studies. However, this theory does have its weaknesses. Trait leadership has been criticised because it ignored one important factor – the situation which determines the effectiveness of each individual leader (Northouse, 2007; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Stogdill, 1948). In his study, Stogdill (1948) argued that the context also influences the development and exercise of leadership not just the personal traits of leaders. In addition, trait leadership has failed to address the relationship between leadership and its outcomes such as productivity, employee satisfaction or loyalty in organisations.

2.2.2 Situational leadership.

The theory of situational leadership was developed by Hersey and Blanchard (1969) based on the work of Reddin in 1967 with his 3-Dimensional Leadership Model which dealt with a manager's relationship orientation and task orientation with respect to effectiveness. Based on Reddin's work, Hersey and Blanchard (1969) developed a new aspect: a life-cycle of leadership. According to their life cycle of leadership, degrees of task orientation and relationship must be examined in conjunction with the dimension of follower-maturity to account for leadership effectiveness. Therefore, the theorists of situational leadership argued that different situations require different types of leadership (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Northouse, 2007). They argued further that effective leaders need to adapt their leadership style to match with the followers' levels of capability and experience as well as other situational

factors (Skog et al., 2012). The theory of situational leadership is examined in two parts: leadership style and the developmental level of followers.

Situational leadership theory proposes four leadership styles: directing, supporting, coaching, and delegating (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969; Northouse, 2007; Skog, et al., 2012). The first style, directing, involves leaders giving direct instructions to their subordinates on what and how to achieve the goal while spending less time on supportive activities (Northouse, 2007). However, the coaching style involves leaders spending more time on encouraging and coaching their followers although the leaders are the ones who make the final decisions on what and how to achieve goals (Northouse, 2007). With the supporting style, leaders give recognition and social support to their followers rather than focus fully on goals. The delegating style is where leaders provide less social and work support and pass most of the responsibility to another person or group.

The second major aspect of situational leadership theory concerns the developmental level of followers. The developmental level of subordinates is divided into high, moderate and low degrees of the competence and commitment required to complete a given task (Northouse, 2007; Vecchio, 1987). For example, employees are at a high developmental level if they are interested and confident in their work. Although situational leadership theory has contributed to building leadership development in practice, the concept of subordinate developmental levels has been criticised as ambiguous and not

fully explaining how commitment interacts with competence to form the four distinct developmental levels (Northouse, 2007).

2.2.3 Contingency leadership

The contingency theory of leadership is a leader-match theory (Fiedler & Chemers, 1974; Northouse, 2007). This theory posits that “situations influence the consequences of leader behaviour” (Vroom & Jago, 2007, p. 23); and thus good leadership is matching “the right leader for each circumstance” (Knights & O’Leary, 2006, p. 129). Moreover, “the correct response is determined by the correct analysis of the situation” (Grint, 2005, p. 1470). Therefore, this theory focuses on styles and situations with an effective framework to match the leader and the situation.

According to contingency theory, leadership styles are considered as task-motivated or relationship-motivated (Northouse, 2007). Leaders who are task-motivated will work effectively in either convenient or inconvenient situations. On the other hand, leaders who are relationship-motivated will be effective only in fairly favourable situations; this leadership style does not focus primarily on reaching a goal, but is concerned with building good relationships. The contribution of the contingency theory has been to explain that leaders will achieve their goals when their leadership style matches the situation; conversely, leaders will fail to complete their tasks, if their style is not a good match with the situation (Northouse, 2007).

Nevertheless, this theory has its limitations. Although decision-makers may understand the problems in a situation, they attempt to order the situation according to their preferences (Northouse, 2007). Other researchers have claimed that contingency theory is not effective in explaining the issues of leadership that have arisen in contemporary social science (Lord, et al., 1986).

2.2.4 Social construction theory

Social construction theory assumes that “reality is socially constructed” (Berger & Luckmann, 1966, p. 13), and different groups of people have different understandings of their reality. Moreover, social constructionism “accommodates … human and social power to generate meaningful reality” (Fuller & Loogma, 2009, p. 73). Social constructions are shaped and re-shaped constantly as human beings interact to construct social objects in their attempt to legitimate their actions (Karp & Helgø, 2009).

Grint (2005) perceived shortcomings in contingency theory and proposed an alternative model. Relying on social construction theory he adapted the Tame and Wicked problem analysis of Rittel and Webber along with a typology of compliance developed by Etzioni to develop this model. This model was then applied to at least three case studies in order to show how the leaders in each case constructed the problem to suit their intended purposes, an aspect of decision-making that contingency theory does not allow for. Also, Kameniar, Imtoual and Bradley (2010) supported Grint’s analysis by using his findings to explain problems in Australian education. Overall, social construction theory

provides valuable new perspectives on leadership theory by explaining how social problems can be defined by leaders who attempt to construct the situation for their own benefit.

2.2.5 Transformational leadership theory

Transformational leadership theory is one of the most popular theories of leadership. Bass (1985) developed transformational leadership based on the previous work of Burns (1978). Transformational leadership theory posits that a leader is a person who identifies change, develops a vision and an action plan for their goal achievement by inspiring and supporting followers (Kim, Magnusen, Andrew, & Stoll, 2012). Transformational leaders have the ability to effectively motivate and inspire their followers in order to achieve a specified goal (Kim, et al., 2012). According to transformational leadership theory, when leaders face the problems of low staff morale or “alienated workers” (Kanungo, 1992, p. 415), they need to seek ways to awaken their resilience or potential. Transformational leadership then, seeks to enhance the performance of subordinates and to develop them to their fullest potential using four means: idealised influence, inspirational motivation, intellectual stimulation and individualised consideration (Avolio, 1999; Bass & Avolio, 1994; Northouse, 2007). Intellectual stimulation is the ability of leaders to successfully motivate followers to reach their full potential (Kim, et al., 2012). Inspirational leadership occurs when leaders inspire followers by creating a sense common purpose (Kim, et al., 2012). Idealised influence refers to

followers being inspired by the charisma and vision of their leader (Kim, et al., 2012).

With respect to idealised influence and inspirational motivation, leaders behave as role models to gain the respect and trust of their followers as well as inspire them by providing meaningful vision and exciting challenges at work (Bass & Riggio, 2006). As a result, “team spirit is aroused” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6) and alienated followers may change their perception and “identify with their leaders” (Bass & Riggio, 2006, p. 6). Leaders also use intellectual stimulation to encourage the creativity of their followers. Consequently these employees feel more excited and more engaged since their sense of “self-worth” (Kanungo, 1992, p. 421) is enhanced. In terms of individualised consideration, leaders pay special attention to each individual’s needs for achievement and growth. Therefore, through utilising these four components of transformational leadership, leaders may fulfil their moral obligations as effective motivators to ‘foster beneficial changes in the attitudes, perceptions, commitments, and values of the people they lead’ (Bass, 1985).

A leader does not need be in a formal role such as a top-tier manager, but can be a co-worker or a peer within a group; this is described as an informal leader. It has been argued that leaders have a moral obligation to awaken their subordinates through understanding the meaningful influence of both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation (Bass & Riggio, 2006). Motivation was analysed through extrinsic factors which comes from either formal or informal leaders. However, in terms of intrinsic motivation, it is argued why individuals have to

depend on others' influence when they themselves know what to do: self-motivation. According to Thomas (2009), "the workers' role, then, has shifted from passive compliance to proactive self-management" (p. 191). He found that self-management depends on four key intrinsic rewards: a sense of meaningfulness, a sense of choice, a sense of competence and a sense of progress. So when workers commit themselves to a meaningful purpose – such as organisational goals or visions – it can energise them and enhance their creativity and effectiveness.

Moreover, identification also results in effective motivation since an "individuals' sense of self-worth is contingent on the group's status and perceived value" (Hirst, Dick, & Knippenberg, 2009, p. 965). In their research, Hirst et al. (2009) found that the more individuals identify with their group, the more they will work towards achieving the group's goals as well as becoming involved in the challenge of enhancing their creativity at work.

As discussed above, both extrinsic and intrinsic motivation may be effective in increasing an individual's potential in the organisation. In some cases, these two factors interact to produce better outcomes which Amabile (1993) called in his findings "extrinsics in service of intrinsics" (p. 194). The extrinsic factors such as rewards, recognition and feedback can motivate individuals to strengthen their intrinsic factors in term of their interest, self-confidence and involvement (Amabile, 1993). In this discussion, it has been stated that the organisational goals or vision are considered an intrinsic motivation under the individuals' commitment. However, the role of leaders as an extrinsic

motivator provides the conditions – such as good and exciting visions – which then produce an effective intrinsic motivation for each individual. Hence, these extrinsic factors are a pre-condition for the growth of intrinsic factors.

There is also another effective motivation which comes from inside of each individual. It is self-motivation; this is powerful and each individual should have it in order to achieve their full potential (Thomas, 2009). In this case, each individual is a leader of his or her own right and has responsibility to take care of his or her own creativity. To the extent that it is an obligation for leaders to awaken the potential of the individual, there is one common requirement for being a leader: A leader needs to constantly improve their competence and interpersonal skills to adapt to the changes of the organisation and fulfil a moral obligation to be an effective motivator at work (Bass, 1999).

As a point of difference, transformational leadership does not define how leaders should act in a certain situation to be effective. Transformational leadership demonstrates a general conception of leadership by focusing on ideals, inspiration, innovations, and individualised consideration (Northouse, 2007). It is considered that these four components of transformational leadership are the effective tools to improve organisational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, commitment and organisational performance (Kim, et al., 2012).

Transformational leadership can improve follower and organisational outcomes such as employee job satisfaction, commitment and organisational performance

(Kim, et al., 2012). For example, there is a significant relationship between a transformational leadership style and job satisfaction with Yusof (1998) finding a positive link between transformational leadership style of an athletic director and job satisfaction levels of sport employees.

2.2.6 Leader-member exchange theory (LMX)

Leader-member exchange theory (LMX) is characterised by emphasising the quality of the relationship between a supervisor and an employee (Masterson, Lewis, Goldman, & Taylor, 2000). Graen and Scadura (1987) have stated “each party in an LMX must offer something the other sees as valuable and each must see the exchange as reasonably equitable and fair” (p. 182).

According to Gerstner and Day (1997), LMX is different from other leadership theories because it emphasises the dyadic relationship between a leader and a follower. According to Blau (1964), social exchanges do not specify clear obligations, but a future return is expected when one does a favour for another. For instance, leaders offer material and psychological rewards to followers who fulfil the role expectations of leaders (H. Wang, Law, Hackett, Wang, & Chen, 2005). Similarly, followers expect suitable treatment and rewards from leaders as long as they are fulfilling their role expectations. In addition, the treatment and rewards need to meet the expectation of followers; otherwise, they may reject, or renegotiate their current roles to improve the quality of relationship (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). However, when social exchange relationships reach a higher level, mutual trust, respect and obligations appear to be a strong link between a leader and a follower (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995).

Once that link has been established, a follower is willing to work extra hours to achieve the organisational goal or a project deadline (Graen & Uhl-Bien, 1995). That is a reciprocal exchange in the dyadic relation between a leader and a follower. Moreover, LMX leadership theory has shown that the level of positive relationship between a leader and a follower decides the outcomes of each member, the group and the organisation (Gerstner & Day, 1997).

A number of researchers have examined LMX theory (Dienesch & Liden, 1986). According to Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995), the concept of LMX has been redefined and developed around the relational exchange between a leader and a member since the theory was first formulated by seminal researchers. Those early researchers included Dansereau, Graen and Haga (1975) with a vertical dyad linkage approach to leadership; Graen and Cashman (1975) with a role-making model of leadership; Graen, Novak and Sommerkamp (1982) with a exchange-oriented dual attachment model and Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) with a relationship-based approach. In their research, Dansereau et al. (1975) and Graen and Cashman (1975) developed the theoretical framework of LMX along with operational instruments for LMX. Graen (1976) demonstrated that LMX is an exchange relationship with elements of competence, interpersonal skill, and trust. However, Cashman, Dansereau, Graen, and Haga (1976) considered the exchange relationship was based on attention and sensitivity. Graen and Ginsburgh (1977) showed that dynamics such as support, reward, and satisfaction with the leader were active in the dyadic relationships. Although the concept of unique relationships or exchanges existing between a leader and a follower has been supported in the literature since 1972,

subsequent critiques have suggested that few organisational applications exist (Dienesch & Liden, 1986) stated that the process of LMX occurring between a leader and a subordinate is unclear.

In addition, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) have asked a critical question of LMX theory: 'what is the proper mix of relational characteristics to promote desired outcomes?'. The characteristics of dyadic relationships are identified as trust, respect, or mutual obligation creating mutual influence between leaders and followers. Therefore, Graen and Uhl-Bien (1995) considered that LMX theory is developed through four stages: stage one is to explore differentiated dyads; stage two is to investigate the characteristics of LMX relationships and outcomes of LMX in organisations; stage three is to describe the dyadic partnership building between a leader and a follower; and stage four is to gather differentiated dyadic relationships into group and network levels.

In 1982, Graen et al. conducted a field experiment to examine the effects of LMX and job design on productivity and job satisfaction by testing a dual attachment model: an integration and extension of the framework provided by the job characteristics theory (Hackman & Oldham, 1976) and the leader-member exchange theory. In their study, Hackman and Oldham (1976) delineated two types of employee needs: needs for personal growth and development, and needs for meaningful social relationships. The job characteristics theory explains that organisations try to satisfy their employees in an exchange of job outcomes. Therefore, organisations provide material and spiritual support to their employees to satisfy the two types of employee needs.

In their study, Graen et al. (1982) conducted their research within a large government installation in the Midwest of the US with over 4,000 employees processing paper forms using modern computer-assisted technology. The study found that LMX can make improvements for employees in both the dyadic exchange and the work itself. Furthermore, they argued that LMX leadership focuses on the dyadic exchanges, yet its processes have a positive impact on both dyadic enrichment and job enrichment.

Wang et al. (2005) conducted a pilot study to examine the relationship between LMX, followers' performance and organisational citizenship behaviour. He found that there are two perspectives on leadership: leader-focused and relationship-based. The leader-focused perspective identifies how leaders' behaviours influence employee and organisational outcomes. The relationship-based concept focuses on the reciprocal social exchange between a leader and a follower and its process of interaction to produce high quality relationships and positive outcomes. With a good sample size of 162 leader-follower dyads within organisations situated in China, the study found LMX entirely mediated transformational leadership and task performance as well as organisational citizenship behaviours. Furthermore, their findings also suggested that transformational leadership components as effective instruments to develop high-quality LMX relationships.

Lagace, Castleberry and Ridnour (2011) conducted an empirical study to explore the reciprocal relationship between a sales manager and a salesperson focusing on salesperson motivation, stress and an evaluation of the manager.

The sample in this study was business-to-business salespeople from different industries; 155 completed surveys were obtained representing a high response rate of 80 per cent. The study found that high quality relationships resulted in higher extrinsic benefits (e.g. higher earnings), intrinsic benefits such as feelings of worthwhile accomplishment, rewards, an improvement in role stress, and a better evaluation of their manager. The study by Lagace et al. (2011) contributed to developing an application of LMX in sales workforces to achieve total quality in business.

Walumbwa et al. (2011) conducted a study using LMX, self-efficacy and organisational identification as mediators to examine the relationship between ethical leadership and performance. The data were collected from a small sample of 72 supervisors and 201 immediate direct reports at a major pharmaceutical company in China. Their results showed that there was a significant link between ethical leadership and employee performance mediated by LMX, self-efficacy and organisational identification. Although the study contributed a new perspective to theories of leadership, one limitation on the study was that data were collected only from one direct report's supervisor which might have biased the data.

2.2.7 Summary

The theories described in this section, albeit briefly, provide a useful insight into the long history of leadership development. It has shown that one common aim of research among the leadership theories is to achieve effectiveness in

leadership, which is also the focus of this research. Therefore, this study aims to find and fill a gap in literature on leadership and hopefully contribute a new perspective on leadership to the literature.

CHAPTER 3

COLLABORATIVE LEADERSHIP

From the review of the development of leadership theories development in Chapter Two, it can be seen that the notion of collaborative leadership as a form of horizontal leadership is more suited to dynamic businesses (Kramer & Crespy, 2011; Reicher, et al., 2005) and culturally diverse organisations (Archer & Cameron, 2009a; Sirman, 2008) than to organisations with traditional top-down leadership styles. As this present study is focused on culturally diverse organisations, collaborative leadership has been chosen as one of three main leadership theories (collaborative, authentic, and path goal leadership) to measure the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes

This chapter aims to develop a comprehensive understanding of collaborative leadership by way of examining previous related studies. First, the present study describes the journey of the concept of collaboration, and then defines ‘collaboration’. Finally, the study conducts a literature review on collaborative leadership.

3.1 A historical journey to collaboration

The wide interest in collaboration (Archer & Cameron, 2009a; Friend & Cook, 2000; Gray, 1989; Hallinger & Heck, 2010a, 2010b; Heckscher & Adler, 2006; Huxham, 1996; Kramer & Crespy, 2011) is rooted in transformational thinking

about what makes an organisation successful and the transformation of leadership (Leonard & Leonard, 2003). The collaborative perspective has been developed and examined via organisation and leadership theories from the ‘principles of scientific management’, the Hawthorne theory of collaborative leadership (Leonard & Leonard, 2003). The following paragraphs will tell from the start the story of forming the concept of collaboration. In order to understand the concept of collaboration, it is helpful to learn why it was begat.

In the past, it was believed that leadership in business and industry was formed under hierarchical structures. This means that the concept of collaboration was not acknowledged at that time. There are some well-known theories such as the ‘principles of scientific management’ from Taylor (1995). The principles point out that all tasks could be studied scientifically in order to set up the most effective procedures and maximize productivity (Pearce & Conger, 2003b). In addition, the theory suggests that managerial and worker responsibilities are kept separate during the process of management (Pearce & Conger, 2003b).

The manager has responsibility to identify the procedure of work specifically; workers have the responsibility to follow exactly that procedure (Pearce & Conger, 2003b). In other words, the perception is that workers will do their jobs exactly as they were told, just like a machine. The theory believes that leadership and management practice is a one-way command of communication and top-down decision-making, and that leaders are in a position to command and control their followers’ tasks and behaviours; there is no collaboration between leaders and followers. However, some time later, due to complex societal changes, the importance of human relations, and its associated aspects,

came in for scrutiny (Friend & Cook, 2000, p. 14). For example, in the 1920s, the Hawthorne studies “discovered” that workers were not mere machines, but human beings with strong social needs. Further, it was argued that employee performance was influenced not only by their natural ability but also by their surroundings and their fellow-workers (Hassard, 2012). The studies, carried out at the Western Electric Company’s Hawthorne Works, led to the company introducing good business practices such as higher pay, health care, housing, pensions, and social activities (Hassard, 2012). With the high levels of welfare capitalism at the Hawthorne Works, positive outcomes such as employee well-being, commitment and collaboration developed (Hassard, 2012). Therefore, the Hawthorne studies suggested that managers should give up traditional management practices and adopt a non-hierarchical model so that workers could share in the decision making and reach their full potential (Senge, 1994). This led to the signal for collaboration in workplaces. Overall, the results from the Hawthorne studies have created a supportive platform for the human relations approach towards collaboration in organisational behaviour; further, the results point out the limitations of the principles of scientific management (Hassard, 2012).

Beyond the Hawthorne studies, the concept of human relations has continued to develop via a number of leadership theories that have emerged, such as servant leadership (Graham, 1991; Greenleaf & Spears, 2002), distributed leadership (Spillane, 2012), authentic leadership (Luthans, Norman, & Hughes, 2006), transformational leadership (Bass, 1999; Bass & Riggio, 2006), or ethical leadership (H. Koh & Boo, 2001; Petrick & Quinn, 2001; Treviño,

Brown, & Hartman, 2003; Zhu, May, & Avolio, 2004). These new approaches to leadership emphasise the dimensions of human relations and highlight the notion of collaboration between leaders and followers with the purpose of reaching better employee outcomes. For example, in describing facilitative leadership, Blackbourn, Blackbourn, Papasan and Vinson (2000) stated “collaboration, coordination, internal and external stakeholder feedback, change orientation, development of stakeholder leadership skills, and a democracy-based workplace are all aspects of facilitative leadership” (p. 2). Furthermore, Blackbourn et al. (2000) believes that a facilitative leadership style is suitable for developing collaboration (Leonard & Leonard, 2003). In addition, one existing study, Drabble (2010), also emphasises that it is crucial for leaders to encourage the process of collaboration within the organisation through developing effective collaborative structures and staffing such as feedback and problem solving systems. Overall, previous literature highlights that collaboration is important to leadership during the process of interaction between leaders and followers.

In addition, the topic of collaboration has attracted researchers from different fields such as education and the performance of schools (Dallmer, 2004; Hallinger & Heck, 2010a, 2010b; Leonard & Leonard, 2003; Welch, 1998), the environment (Margerum, 2001; Saarikoski, 2000) and administrative governance (Ansell & Gash, 2008; Emerson, Nabatchi, & Balogh, 2012; Imperial, 2005). Their studies show the importance of collaboration in improving communication and the performance of organisations.

Overall, existing theories and research showed that collaboration is an important and emerging concept for organisational studies. Consistent with prior findings, this present study is seeking to explore the function of collaboration in culturally diverse organisations where leadership is shared among employees as a collaboration process. This concept of collaboration leads to an interest in investigating collaborative leadership in the next part.

3.2 Conceptualizing collaboration

The concept of collaboration has gained much attention from researchers creating various definitions and understandings of ‘collaboration’ (Friend & Cook, 2000; Thomson, Perry, & Miller, 2009). According to Ansell and Gash (2008), collaboration is simply a two-way communication and interaction between organisations and stakeholders. In addition, collaboration is associated with multiple elements such as simple coordination, synergistic activities, mutual effort, or partnerships (VanVactor, 2012). Thomson and Perry (2006), from the perspective of classic liberalism, asserted that collaboration is perceived as a process that combines private choices with communal preferences through collaborative agreements in order to reach targets. However, according to Thomson and Perry (2006), an opposing viewpoint considers collaboration as a process whereby individuals integrate each with the other to achieve organisations’ “mutual understanding, a collective will, trust and sympathy, and the implementation of shared preferences” (March & Olsen, 1989, p. 126). In addition, collaboration, it is argued, is a process where individuals integrate their differences to search for solutions, going beyond the

limitation of self (Gray, 1989, 2000; Huxham, 1996; Huxham & Vangen, 2005; Thomson & Perry, 2006). Overall, collaboration is the process of integration where individuals are willing to work together to achieve the common goal of the organisation.

It is argued that because collaboration has been defined in so many ways, the concept of collaboration has no distinct meaning (Leonard & Leonard, 2003; Welch, 1998; Wood & Gray, 1991). According to Leonard and Leonard (2003), collaboration is as hard to define as it is to put into practice. In addition, Welch (1998) claims that “most educators neither know what collaboration is nor how to practise it” (p. 27). Furthermore, in their research, Wood and Gray (1991) conducted a literature review of nine research articles showing different theoretical perspectives on collaboration in an effort to search for a commonly acknowledged definition (Thomson, et al., 2009; Welch, 1998). They, however, have found “a welter of definitions, each having something to offer and none being entirely satisfactory by itself (Wood & Gray, 1991, p. 143). Furthermore, “collaboration occurs when a group of autonomous stakeholders of a problem domain engage in an interactive process, using shared rules, norms, and structures, to act or decide on issues related to that domain” (Welch, 1998; 146). Based on the previous studies, Thomson, Perry and Miller (2009) provide the following definition which is the most widely accepted by researchers:

Collaboration is a process in which autonomous or semi-autonomous actors interact through formal and informal negotiation, jointly creating rules and structures governing their relationships and ways to act or decide on the

issues that brought them together; it is a process involving shared norms and mutually beneficial interactions (p. 25).

3.3 Collaborative leadership

Collaborative leadership or shared leadership is defined as a “team process where leadership is carried out by the team as a whole, rather than solely by a single designated individual” (Ensley, et al., 2006, p. 220). In addition, shared leadership is also considered as an internal and informal team leadership which is suitable for dynamic and competitive environments (Hoch, 2013; Morgeson, DeRue, & Karam, 2010). In addition, shared leadership is considered as “a dynamic interactive influence process among individuals in groups for which the objective is to lead one another to the achievement of group or organizational goals or both” (Pearce & Conger, 2003b, p. 1). According to VanVactor(2012), leadership is a component of a relationship , whereas a collaborative process is an integration of ideas among stakeholders (Atchison & Bujak, 2001; Bolman & Deal, 2003; Kotter, 2001, 2009). It is a two-way interaction where information is exchanged between leaders and followers (VanVactor, 2012). Furthermore, Huxham and Vangen (2000) define collaborative leadership as a mutual interaction to make things happen. Overall, these definitions point out one important element of a collaborative leadership – the two-way communication between members in a group.

In addition, collaborative leadership has gained attention as an alternative to traditional leadership where communication is top-down (Kramer & Crespy,

2011). Heckscher and Adler (2006) describe “the firm as a collaborative community” (p. 1), in which leadership is shaped to be a collaborative process. The transition of leadership in organisations is explained by “social character” (Fromm, 1941, 1955, 1990, 1994; Heckscher & Adler, 2006). It is a process whereby “psyche adapts to the dominant mode of economic production and socio political structure of a society” (Heckscher & Adler, 2006, p. 157). Therefore, the notion of collaborative leadership is an ultimate result of economic organisations becoming interactive instead of bureaucratic (Heckscher & Adler, 2006).

Moreover, Hoch (2013) also argued that collaborative leadership has two types of antecedents: transformational leadership and the team composition (members’ attributes). Transformational leadership can predict shared leadership by empowering followers, and fostering a collective vision and the self-management skills of team members. Team composition includes honesty, responsibility and trustworthiness to the extent that team members are willing to participate in shared leadership. Therefore, collaborative leadership forms when team members engage in a decision-making process collaboratively, and distribute responsibility for outcomes among members. Overall, collaborative leadership is a mutual influential process among team members to produce positive outcomes for the organisation. In order to highlight the importance of collaborative leadership, the following paragraphs will present the findings from prior studies in an attempt to find a gap in the literature.

Existing studies have found collaborative leadership to be related to employees' innovative behaviours in a dynamic business environment. For example, Hoch (2013) also suggests innovation as an important outcome of collaborative leadership. Facing the constant change of a global economic scenario, organisations are looking to innovation as an important factor to take into account when setting goals. In his studies, Hoch (2013) found collaborative leadership has a positive link to the level of innovative behaviours of team members. Significant data, collected from field samples of 43 work teams, consisting of 184 team members and team leaders from two different companies, provided an insight into how organisations can develop innovation to increase their competitiveness by facilitating shared leadership in a turbulent world. Similarly, Archer and Cameron (2009a) found that collaborative leaders are required to foster innovation, ensure sustainability, and build resilience. As collaborative leadership encourages team members to share decision-making and get involved in discussion, new ideas and innovative thoughts are evolved during the process of interaction among team members. In addition, they emphasise that collaborative leadership becomes more crucial, not only in business but also in the world in the coming years (Archer & Cameron, 2009a; Hoch, 2013). Overall, previous researchers have pointed out the positive association between collaborative leadership and innovation.

In one study, Hallinger and Heck (2010a), it was found that collaborative leadership has a positive impact on student learning in reading and math through enhancing the school's capacity and academic improvement. The

comprehensive empirical data in their research was collected from 198 elementary schools by implementing a longitudinal survey over four years with a large sample of 13,000 all third-grade students from the participating schools. Their findings provide insight into how changes in collaborative leadership mediate the effects of primary organisational conditions on consequent changes in improvement capacity and growth in student learning.

In addition, an existing research shows that collaborative leadership has a positive impact on promoting creativity and managing conflicts (Ansell & Gash, 2012). For instance, in their research, Ansell and Gash (2012) employed a contingency approach to critically explain the aspects of leadership in promoting collaborative innovation. Collaborative leadership is put into practice in different ways depending on tasks, goals and situations, but it is a challenge for leaders to build a mutual trust among stakeholders, and to stimulate creative problem-solving. Furthermore, Ansell and Gash (2012) found support for their model of collaborative leadership, consisting of three facilitative roles: stewards, mediators, and catalysts. Their finding supports the premise of one of these facilitative roles of collaborative leadership – mediators facilitate collaboration by managing conflict among stakeholders. However, the research is built on the existing literature and interviews with ten workforce development leaders of U.S. Workforce Investment Boards, whereas it has not been confirmed and generalised across a larger number of employees and organisational settings. Another study also supports the theory that collaborative leadership is crucial for managing conflicts effectively in organisations (Archer & Cameron, 2009b). This research interviewed 100

directors in the public and private sectors and points out the importance of the development of collaborative leadership in organisations. Although this study helps to define the role of collaborative leadership, it was conducted through a modest-sized sample, and applied solely the interview method which is inadequate when it comes to understanding the role of collaborative leadership in organisations. Overall, those previous studies have showed the influence of collaborative leadership on managing conflict in the workplace which is crucial in a dynamic business environment.

As regards research methods in respect of collaborative leadership, from the above-mentioned studies it appears that most researchers have focused on developing concepts or on analysing collaborative behaviours and outcomes (Kramer & Crespy, 2011). However, it is important to study the interaction process of collaborative leadership rather than its results (Fairhurst, 2007; Kramer & Crespy, 2011). Therefore, Kramer and Crespy (2011) used participant-observation and ethnographic methodology to examine collaborative leadership via the process of the interaction behaviours of a leader and his followers. The study observed how people perform their roles in a theatre production at rehearsals, taking notes occasionally, and then conducting an interview at the end of the production. The study collected 180 single-spaced pages of notes; 17 of the major participants including the stage manager, assistants, actors, designers, technicians, and crew members were interviewed. Based on participant observation ethnography and interviews with all the major participants, this study explored how the leader's attitudes, behaviours, and communication supported collaboration and how the group

members participated in creating a collaborative culture. The study reported that there was a positive link between leaders' attitudes, behaviours and collaborative leadership. In addition, the study suggested that leaders' specific behaviours and communication patterns are transferable among leaders in other similar settings. Overall, Kramer and Crespy (2011) has contributed significantly to the existing literature of collaborative leadership, providing an additional insight into a practical application for building a culture of collaboration in organisations.

3.4 Summary

In brief, the studies mentioned above reported that there is a relationship between collaborative leadership and innovative behaviours, organisational capacity improvement, conflicts resolution, and leaders' behaviours. However, there was little understanding of how collaborative leadership influences employee job outcomes such as job satisfaction. In addition, although surveys in collaborative leadership were conducted s in different contexts such as educational organisations, healthcare institutes, and even at a theatre production, none were focused on testing the level of effectiveness of collaborative leadership in a multicultural environment such as in a New Zealand organisation. Therefore, this present study will conduct an empirical research in Auckland's ethnically diverse workplaces as it investigates if collaborative leadership has a relationship with employee job outcomes. This leads to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 1: collaborative leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

CHAPTER 4

AUTHENTIC LEADERSHIP

In Chapter 3, collaborative leadership was reviewed and chosen as one of the three core leadership theories of this present study. While collaborative leadership focuses on the group and the process of collaboration between members, authentic leadership focuses on individuals. Therefore, besides collaborative leadership, this present study selected authentic leadership as the second leadership style to test its influence on employee outcomes. In this chapter the concept of authenticity will be discussed, and a literature review on authentic leadership will be presented.

4.1 Introduction

The concept of authenticity has a long history. In ancient times , Socrates (469 – 399 B.C.) stressed the importance of authenticity by his famous saying: “Know thyself” and “The unexamined life is not worth living”. In Shakespeare’s Hamlet, Polonius says to his son, Laertes: “To thine own self be true”. Within the stream of this concept, at the end of the 19th century, Karl Marx with his communalism philosophy associated in-authenticity with capitalism.

Moreover, the concept of authenticity formed part of Maslow’s theory of motivation. In 1943, Abraham Maslow had proposed his famous “theory of human motivation”. His research focused on describing different stages of

growth in human beings. His model describes five levels of human motivations: physiological, safety, belongingness and love, esteem, and self-actualization. Maslow also mentioned that people will realise the need of satisfying psychological needs of being their own self after achieving their physiological needs – the physical requirements for human survival such as food, clothing or housing. In addition, Maslow (1968) believed that authenticity arises when a person explores his or her true internal nature through the process of fulfilling higher order psychological needs.

Consistent with Maslow's theory, authenticity appears to be an essential requirement in our modern society where people possess a high level of psychological awareness. The notion of authenticity has been highlighted through unethical and inauthentic behaviours of some organisations. An excellent example of inauthentic behaviour is the case of Enron; executives used complicated financial statements and complex business models to confuse and deceive not only their shareholders but also their auditors and financial analysts. Enron's immoral accounting scandal in 2001 reinforced the need for authenticity (Sparrowe, 2005); there was an immediate need for leaders to display authenticity and morality towards stakeholders so as to restore confidence in the leaders themselves and credibility in their followers' judgment (Peus, Wesche, Streicher, Braun, & Frey, 2012; Sparrowe, 2005). More recently, the economic crisis - along with other disasters such as the oil spill in the Gulf of Mexico and the nuclear disaster in Japan - has broadcast an urgent call for leaders to not hide information or deceive other stakeholders,

but to be honest with a high level of authenticity and morality (Bali, 2011; Peus, 2011; Peus, et al., 2012).

Overall, authenticity was acknowledged in the old days, and became more significant along with the development of society and the economy. Particularly, scandals and disasters – such as those touched on above – triggered the interest of researchers towards searching for good leadership – authentic leadership.

4.2 Authentic leadership

In order to understand what authentic leadership is, this study will start with reviewing the definition of authenticity. According to Relph (1976), authenticity is a philosophical term implying genuineness and accuracy. Authenticity refers to those who act in accordance with their words; therefore, an authentic person can gain trust and be relied on (Relph, 1976; Trilling, 1972). In addition, the journey to authenticity is to find oneself with one's own voice starting with one's own personal values (Kouzes & Posner, 2002).

According to Goldman and Kernis (2002), authenticity has four components: (1) awareness, (2) unbiased processing, (3) authentic behaviour, and (4) authentic relationships. Moreover, Goldman and Kernis (2002) also emphasised that authenticity needs to have a moral component to make certain that a leader works in the best interests, and for the benefit, of others.

Furthermore, Luthans and Avolio (2003) described and defined authenticity as being of a positive psychology, thus forming positive characteristics within

leaders such as confidence, hopefulness, optimism and resilience. Overall, these definitions have expressed one common characteristics of authenticity: moral aspects in leadership towards the leaders themselves and those people around them. From an understanding of authenticity, it is helpful to develop an insight into the concept of authentic leadership in the existing literature based on research from the past to the most recent. First, according to Henderson and Hoy (1983), leadership authenticity is therefore defined as “the extent to which subordinates perceive their leader to demonstrate the acceptance of organizational and personal responsibility for actions, outcomes, and mistakes; to be non-manipulating of subordinates; and to exhibit salience of self over role” (p. 67). The definition points out that leadership authenticity has three components: (1) acceptance of personal and organisational responsibility for actions, outcomes and mistakes; (2) the non-manipulation of subordinates; and (3) the salience of the self over role. Among three components, the salience of the self over role is close to the original concept of authenticity as genuineness (Gardner, Cogliser, Davis, & Dickens, 2011).

In addition, Begley (2001) believed that “authentic leadership may be thought of as a metaphor for professionally effective, ethically sound, and consciously reflective practices in educational administration. This is leadership that is knowledge based, values informed, and skilfully executed.” (p. 353). In addition, “authentic leadership is a function of self-knowledge, sensitivity to the orientations of others, and a technical sophistication that leads to a synergy of leadership action” (Begley, 2004, p. 5). In his two studies in 2001 and in 2004, Begley provided a new perspective on authentic leadership with an

emphasis on the important of self-knowledge and quality of ethical personality and capacity of a leader. Also, one new perspective developed by Begley is the sophisticated skill of leaders in achieving a group's synergy which is similar to the concept of collaboration in leadership.

Moreover, Luthans and Avolio (2003) define authentic leadership in organisations as a process that draws from both positive psychological capacities and a highly developed organisational context, which results in both greater self-awareness and self-regulated positive behaviours on the part of leaders and associates, fostering positive self-development. (p. 243)

In their studies, Luthans and Avolio (2003) found that a model of authentic leadership development tended to achieve positive leadership, thereby facilitating the followers' development and improving their performance. In addition, Luthans and Avolio (2003) pointed out the vital factor of authentic leaders: that of possessing positive psychological capacities. Further, they called for a model of authentic leadership development. The model of Luthans and Avolio (2003) has taken a step forward from traditional psychology by looking at positive emotions and an ethical perspective of leadership.

As their contribution to authentic leadership development, a few years later, George, Sims, McLean and Mayer (2007) offered some helpful ideas to leaders: to identify their authentic self, to exercise their values and beliefs, to balance their extrinsic and intrinsic motivations, and to then empower people to lead.

Another definition of authentic leadership is presented by Walumbwa, Avolio, Gardner, Wernsing and Peterson (2008):

A pattern of leader behaviour that draws upon and promotes both positive psychological capacities and a positive ethical climate, to foster greater self-awareness, an internalized moral perspective, balanced processing of information, and relational transparency on the part of leaders working with followers, fostering positive self-development (p. 94).

This definition was based on the previous concept of Luthans and Avolio (2003), but was developed further to show the critical role of a positive ethical climate. This study developed a test of a theory-based measure of authentic leadership; Walumbwa et al. (2008) found there was a positive link between authentic leadership and supervisor-rated performance.

In order to stress the need for transparency of information passed between leaders and the stakeholders, Avolio, Walumbwa and Weber (2009) mentioned that authentic leadership is “a pattern of transparent and ethical leader behaviour that encourages openness in sharing information needed to make decisions while accepting input from those who follow” (p. 424). Transparency in information sharing is considered crucial following the moral scandals of Enron in America and Ahold in Europe.

In addition, Wong and Laschinger (2013) conclude that authentic leadership is the root of effective leadership forming healthier work environments with its focus on the development of positive psychology between a leader and

followers. Besides, authentic leadership is also a positive style of leadership underlining positive outcomes and promoting innovation and creativity at work (Černe, Jaklič, & Škerlavaj, 2013). Hence, authentic leadership enhances a positive environment at work where people build good relationships, mutual trust, commitment and optimism (Laschinger, Wong, & Grau, 2013). In other words, it is leaders' behaviours fostering psychologically the positive outcomes of organisations and the better competence of employees (D. S. Wang & Hsieh, 2013). Therefore, authentic leadership does not emphasise errors or mistakes; it focuses firmly on positive outcomes and achievements (Černe, et al., 2013). Overall, recent definitions have made an attempt to express authentic leadership in detail and in more practical terms in respect of organisational environments.

With regard to the above literature, although authentic leadership has been construed differently at different points according to the social and economic scenarios at the time, the process of development in understanding authentic leadership has been ongoing. But the different definitions all contained common features such as: self-awareness, level of trust, and, eventually, transparency. In addition, there have been several empirical studies linking authentic leadership with work attitudes and outcomes such as positive relationships between authentic leadership and a group's performance (Clapp-Smith, Vogelgesang, & Avey, 2009; Walumbwa, et al., 2008), organisational citizenship behaviour (Carsten, Crossley, Avolio, Palmer, & Eggers, 2008; Walumbwa, et al., 2008; Walumbwa, Wang, Wang, Schaubroeck, & Avolio, 2010), trust in management (Clapp-Smith, et al., 2009; Walumbwa, et al.,

2010), organisational commitment (Peus, et al., 2012) and work engagement (Walumbwa, et al., 2010).

Existing studies reported that authentic leadership has a relationship with innovation. For example, Černe, Jaklič and Škerlavaj (2013), conducting an empirical research using a multilevel approach to explore cross-level interactions between authentic leadership and innovation at the team level, perceived support for innovation and creativity at the individual level. A small sample from 23 team leaders and 289 team members was collected in a Slovenian manufacturing and processing firm. The study found that perceived team leaders' authentic leadership directly influences team members' individual creativity and team innovation; however, self recognized team leaders' authentic leadership did not impact significantly during the process of innovation in the team. Furthermore, perception of support for innovation was found to be a mediator of the relationship between team leaders' authenticity and creativity. The study has significantly contributed to deepening the understanding towards authentic leadership. Although the research has a limitation that the empirical data were collected from only one company, with the relationship among authentic leadership and innovation at the team level only, the results of this study help to confirm the feasibility and importance of focusing on authentic leadership in the theoretical development of creativity and innovation.

Another existing study also reported that there is an association between authentic leadership and outcomes at work. Wong and Laschinger (2013)

conducted a study to examine a link between authentic leadership of managers and nurses' perceptions of structural empowerment, performance, and job satisfaction. The research had a comprehensive random sample size of 248 registered nurses working in hospitals in Ontario in Canada. Using structural equation modelling to test its theoretical model, the study found that authentic leadership had a significant, positive influence on staff structural empowerment resulting in increased job satisfaction and self-rated performance. Therefore, the study suggests that the more managers are seen as authentic with transparency, self-awareness and high ethical standards, the more their staff is satisfied with their work, leading to better performance.

Overall, authentic leadership has been discussed in different dimensions in order to provide a better understanding of its essential characteristics and its limitations. Of particular interest was exploration of the link between authentic leadership and the outcomes in respect of organisations and employees.

4.3 Summary

Although existing research showed the link between authentic leadership and job outcomes, there was little understanding of the relationship between authentic leadership and its outcomes in culturally diverse organisational settings. Therefore, consistent with previous literature, this present study will examine the relationship between authentic leadership and employee outcome in culturally diverse workforces. Based on the previous findings, the following hypothesis is proposed and tested:

Hypothesis 2: authentic leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

CHAPTER 5

PATH-GOAL THEORY

Path-goal theory has been chosen to be the third core theory in this present study. As the goal of this theory is to improve employee performance and employee satisfaction by motivating them (House, 1971), I assume that path-goal theory will have a relationship with employee job outcomes. Also, path-goal theory suggests that leadership styles are to be matched with subordinates' characteristics (House, 1971), therefore I assume that this theory will be suitable to test the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes in culturally diverse organisations. This chapter begins with a review of the path-goal theory's origin and implications; it then directly focuses on leadership styles and the literature review, both of which are relevant to the present study and its theoretical models which seek a more effective leadership style in multicultural organisations.

5.1 Introduction

Path-goal leadership theory first emerged in the early 1970s in the works of Evans (Evans, 1970), House (1971), House and Dessler (1974), and House and Mitchell (1974). The goal of leadership theory is to improve employee performance and employee satisfaction by motivating them (Northouse, 2007; Schriesheim, Castro, Zhou, & DeChurch, 2006). Therefore, it suggests that leaders should motivate their employees to achieve higher performance levels. In addition, external factors such as the work environment or the characteristics

of the task should also decide the degree to which a leader strives to improve employee satisfaction and performance (Yukl, 1989).

In addition, Silverthorne (2001) conducted a study in Taiwan to test the applicability of path-goal theory in a non-western country in order to understand the relationship between leadership styles, acceptable levels of task structure, and peer and subordinate recognition of a manager's style. A sample comprising 46 managers, 46 peers and 92 subordinates was collected from a major company in Taiwan. In addition, three aspects of leadership were measured: instrumental, supportive and participative leadership. Overall, the results support the propositions of the path-goal leadership, that the leader helps subordinates to achieve their goals by providing a clear path for them to follow.

Leadership theory is developed based on two different propositions (Silverthorne, 2001). The first is that leadership behaviour will be accepted by subordinates when it is perceived as a direct source of satisfaction or indirect source for future job satisfaction. The second proposition is leadership behaviour is motivational, and when leaders use a suitable leadership style, it results in an increase in subordinates' motivation via satisfying their needs and preferences. According to Northouse (2007), it is crucial for leadership to use a suitable style which can motivate subordinates. Overall, path-goal leadership emphasises matching the leader's style with the subordinates' characteristics and the work setting (Northouse, 2007).

5.2 Leadership styles

Path-goal theory proposes four different kinds of leadership behaviours or styles: directive or instrumental, supportive, participative, and achievement-oriented leadership styles (Northouse, 2007). An effective leader will be able to determine which leadership style to use and when to use it (Silverthorne, 2001). However, a leader also needs to consider the nature of the task and the needs of his or her subordinates before choosing a suitable leadership style (Silverthorne, 2001).

Directive or instrumental leadership is defined as providing specific guidelines and compliance with clear directions for subordinates to know what they need to do to achieve their goal (House, 1996; Kahai, Sosik, & Avolio, 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). In addition, directive leaders offer clear standards of performance and instructions about the task such as timeline and methods of conducting the given task. According to Silverthorne (2001), directive leadership is more effective in creating better job satisfaction and work performance when there is a high level of environmental pressure or an unclear work structure. In addition, it is recommended that instrumental leadership be replaced by task-oriented behaviour with clear roles, specific objectives, contingent rewards, planning, problem solving and monitoring (Yukl, 1989).

Participative leadership is defined as the equal distribution of power and sharing problem solving with subordinates by asking their opinions before making a decision (Bass, 1990; Kahai, et al., 2004; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000).

A participative leader is expected to enhance the self-efficacy of participants, further stimulate them to contribute to the task without the need for directions on how to approach the problem solving (Kahai, et al., 2004). In addition, there were studies showing the positive relationship between participative leadership and employee outcomes (Kahai, et al., 2004; Silverthorne, 2001) which will be reviewed in detail.

Supportive leadership is defined as a leader's consideration and support towards subordinates' needs and preferences (House, 1996; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000). Supportive leaders show their concern for subordinates' well-being and encourage a friendly and supportive work environment (Kahai, et al., 2004). According to Silverthorne (2001), leaders need to be more supportive than directive to enhance subordinates' job satisfaction when the work structure is clear and employees have a high level of experience.

Finally, the achievement-oriented leadership is defined as leaders' confidence in their subordinates in achieving high setting performances and standards (Silverthorne, 2001). According to Northouse (2007), an achievement-oriented leader challenges subordinates to complete the given task at the highest level. In addition, this leader tends to set up high criteria of performance and a continuous improvement process for his or her subordinates to follow (Northouse, 2007; Silverthorne, 2001).

House and Mitchell (1974) also propose that leaders can demonstrate and apply one or all of the above mentioned four styles depending on subordinates'

characteristics and situations. Therefore, leaders should be flexible so as to apply suitable styles of leadership while interacting and leading their subordinates. This idea differs from other leadership theories such as transformational or transactional theories, where path-goal leadership believes that a leader can use more than one style at the same time when required (Northouse, 2007).

The existing studies also examined the relationship between path-goal leadership styles and its outcomes. For example, Fry, Kerr and Lee (1986) conducted their study on sports teams to test the moderating effects of interdependence between leader behaviours and satisfaction and performance. Data were collected on eight different sports at 15 colleges and high schools with a large sample of N=419. The results found that task interdependence was an important moderator of leadership and performance. In addition, the study also found that organisations with highly interdependent work groups need to have leaders who display more direction in controlling and coordinating group member tasks through direct management. Although this study did not measure directly the influence of leadership styles on employee outcomes, it reported that there is an indirect influence between them via a mediation of task interdependence. Furthermore, the study suggests that directive leadership has a positive co-relation with the level of interdependent work groups. These findings predict the hypothesis of this present study that directive leadership will have a relationship with employee outcomes, particularly in culturally diverse organisations.

Another existing study also reported that leadership styles influence employee outcomes. Kahai, Sosik and Avolio (2004) conducted a laboratory experiment to examine the effects of participative and directive leadership on participation, performance, and satisfaction, and the extent to which problem structure moderated these effects. Results from a sample of 96 undergraduate students at a north eastern public university found that participative and directive leadership had a positive link with levels of participation. In addition, participation was positively associated with performance but negatively linked to satisfaction. Problem structure moderated all these relationships but not for the relationship between participation and performance. Overall, their findings suggested that there are direct effects of participative and directive leadership on group performance and satisfaction.

Overall, there has been a large amount of research on path goal theory; however, conclusions point to a number of limitations (Wofford & Liska, 1993). Results of the analyses showed that the correlations between leadership behaviours are affected by the instrument used to measure those behaviours (Wofford & Liska, 1993). Yukl (1989) suggested that path goal leadership styles should use more specific behaviours such as role clarification, recognition, and contingent rewards administration. In addition, path-goal leadership also faces the criticism that it places too much responsibility on a leader for coaching, guiding or helping subordinates. Besides, the theory was criticised for promoting subordinates' dependency and failing to recognise their full ability to achieve their goals.

5.3 Summary

Previous research showed that path-goal leadership styles are useful to achieve the goal of organisations, and its four leadership styles have an association with leadership outcomes. Although the theory has limitations as discussed above, little research has been done on leadership styles and specific employee outcomes in culturally diverse organisations. This present study aims to use the empirical data to test this theory in an endeavour to fill the gap in the literature. Consistent with the study of Ogbonna & Harris (2000), this present study will also employ three of the four leadership styles of path-goal theory (participative, supportive and instrumental leadership) to examine the positive relationship between leadership and employee outcomes.

Hypothesis 3: participative leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 4: supportive leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 5: instrumental leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c.

cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

CHAPTER 6

LEADERSHIP OUTCOMES

Five potential outcomes of leadership styles are presented in this chapter: (1) job satisfaction, (2) organisational commitment, (3) cultural wellbeing, (4) turnover intentions and (5), job burnout. In addition, the study also makes an attempt to investigate one potential mediator – perceived organisational support between leadership and employee outcomes. Details of these outcomes and how they have been found to be influenced by leadership will be discussed below. Overall, these outcomes and the potential mediator will form part of the full theoretical model, where the relationships between the various leadership styles, the employee outcomes, and the mediated will be tested.

6.1 Job Satisfaction

Job satisfaction is a significant outcome of employees associated with leadership styles (Frank, Eckrich, & Rohr, 1997; Kim, et al., 2012; Loke, 2001; Morrison, Jones, & Fuller, 1997), which is relevant to the present study. According to Fields (2002), job satisfaction is defined as an employee's positive response to a job in their workplace. Also, job satisfaction is defined as the feeling of employees about wages, work, supervision, career development, benefits or organisational culture (Loke, 2001). Furthermore, Lok and Crawford (2004) believe that job satisfaction is recognised as a main determinant of organisation performance such as productivity, reduced

absenteeism and turnover, and effectiveness (Busch, Fallan, & Pettersen, 1998), and leadership is accepted as a crucial factor for employee job satisfaction. Moreover, employees who are satisfied with their job are likely to stay longer on their job and be more productive (Loke, 2001; McNeese-Smith, 1997). Overall, these studies suggest that job satisfaction is an important element which needs to be enhanced at workplaces.

Existing studies show that job satisfaction is influenced by leadership behaviours. For instance, in his research, Loke (2001) conducted a survey with a sample of 100 registered nurses and 20 managers from a hospital. He found that leadership behaviours and employee outcomes (such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and productivity) are significantly correlated. He also found that leaders who have skills in providing recognition and thanks or support to meet employees' personal needs gain better job satisfaction. The study suggests that leaders producing higher quality relationships will attract employee engagement in workplace activities which results in better job satisfaction (Avolio, Gardner, Walumbwa, Luthans, & May, 2004; Loke, 2001; Wong & Laschinger, 2013). However, those studies did not specify which leadership styles are suitable for culturally diverse organisations. Therefore, this study investigates which leadership styles positively influence job satisfaction in the workplace, in particular in a culturally diverse organisation in Auckland.

Other existing studies also suggested that leadership has a positive influence on employee job satisfaction. Frank, Eckrich and Rohr (1997) conducted a study

to seek factors which positively impact on the quality of nursing care-giving by interviewing seven nurses. Although only a small sample, the study found that good leadership enhances the effectiveness of the care delivery system (Frank, et al., 1997). Although Frank et al. did not directly measure the impact of good leadership on job satisfaction; they suggested that three leadership styles can impact positively on job satisfaction – transformational leadership, transactional and charismatic leadership (Frank, et al., 1997; Loke, 2001; Morrison, et al., 1997). The limitation of those studies was that they did not investigate specifically which leadership styles influence job satisfaction. Therefore, this present study will employ a quantitative research method to explore which leadership styles have a positive association with job satisfaction.

Based on the significance of role job satisfaction in previous studies, it is plausible to predict that effective leadership styles result in higher job satisfaction. This leads to the following hypothesis

Hypothesis a: The five leadership styles (collaborative leadership, authentic leadership, participative leadership, supportive leadership and instrumental leadership) will be positively related to job satisfaction

In addition, one study found that there is a relationship between job satisfaction and organisational commitment (Boles, Madupalli, Rutherford, & Wood, 2007). Using a sample of 138 sales people from a regional promotions firm, the study examined the relationships between facets of salesperson job satisfaction and salesperson organisational commitment (Boles, et al., 2007). The study's

results found that various facets of job satisfaction were strongly positively related to organisational commitment; further, these relationships were not the same for male and female salespeople (Boles, et al., 2007). The findings of Boles et al. (2007) were also supported by prior research. Job satisfaction is directly related to organisational commitment (Brown & Peterson, 1993); further, satisfaction with the job is either directly (Netemeyer, Johnston, & Burton, 1990), or indirectly (Brown & Peterson, 1993) related to turnover intentions of salespeople. Overall, the study of Boles et al. (2007) was conducted with a small sample size within one firm and within one industry, so the results may not be applicable in other contexts. However, it is important in indicating the direction of research for this present study. In the above analysis, job satisfaction is related to leadership styles; therefore it is suggested that organisational commitment and turnover intentions may be suitable as a measure of effective outcomes of leadership.

6.2 Organisational commitment-Affective commitment

According to Conger and Kanungo (1998), it is crucial to enhance organisational commitment (Petrick & Quinn, 2001; Zhu, et al., 2004). Reiches (1985) suggested that organisational commitment was found to lead to beneficial organisational outcomes. In addition, previous research showed that an increase in organisational commitment enhances job performance and reduces absenteeism and turnover, which are costly to organisations (Reichers, 1985). Therefore, this study aims to analyse which leadership styles will

effectively enhance organisational commitment in culturally diverse organisations.

Organisational commitment has been extensively defined and measured (Reichers, 1985). Wiener (1982) defined organisational commitment as “the totality of internalized normative pressures to act in a way which meets organizational goals and interests,” and suggested that individuals exhibit these behaviours solely because “they believe it is the ‘right’ and moral thing to do” (p. 421). Loke (2001) also defines organisational commitment as positive engagement into shared goals of the organisation. In addition, employee commitment consists of three components: affective commitment, continuance commitment and normative commitment (Meyer & Allen, 1991) as follows.

According to Meyer and Allen (1991), affective commitment is “an emotional attachment to, identification with and involvement in the organization” (p. 67); continuance commitment is “an awareness of the costs associated with leaving the organization” (p. 67), and normative commitment is “a feeling of obligation to continue employment” (p. 67). There are different outcomes associated with these three components. In addition, Meyer and Allen (1991) also explained that a strong affective commitment is a voluntary psychological status to continue employment with the organisation. Continuance commitment refers to an awareness of the costs related with leaving the organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1991). Normative commitment is a feeling of obligation to continue employment (Marsh & Mannari, 1977; Meyer & Allen, 1991). However, this present study focuses only on affective commitment. According to Meyer and

Allen (1984), affective commitment was associated with conditions providing or not providing a sense of personal comfort and personal importance. For example, in the high affective commitment condition, the employee was described as feeling very comfortable with managers or colleagues, as being fairly treated, and feeling like a part of organisation (Meyer & Allen, 1984). This definition of affective commitment fits well with the purpose of this present study.

Organisational commitment is increased when supported by suitable styles of leadership (Mitchell, 2002; Wallace, de Chernatony, & Buil, 2013). Furthermore, organisational commitment is higher when a leader encourages employees to participate in decision making, treats them with consideration and fairly, and supports them at work (Zhu, et al., 2004). Once employees are committed to an organisation, they are likely to stay longer in their job, and feel part of the organisation.

Previous research found that leadership influences organisational commitment. For example, Koh, Steers, and Terborg (1995) found transformational leadership to be a predictor of organisational commitment. In addition, transactional leadership has insignificant impacts on organisational commitment (W. L. Koh, et al., 1995). It was explained that transactional leadership influences the short-term and lower order needs of followers which contributes little to enhancing the commitment of an employee to the organisation (Lee, 2005). Similarly, with a sample of 220 R&D employees in manufacturing firms, Lee (2005) also found that transformational leadership

has positive relationship organisational commitment. In addition, Lee (2005) also found that LMX mediated the relationship between leadership and organisational commitment. In his study Lee also employed Meyer and Allen's instrument, which had been developed comprehensively. He also found significant results from a hierarchical regression analysis. In line with Lee's study and other existing research, this present study predicts specific leadership styles have a positive influence on organisational commitment – affective commitment. This leads to hypothesis 'b' in chapter 8.

Hypothesis b: The five leadership styles will be positively related to organisational commitment.

In addition to the core outcomes of job satisfaction and organisational commitment, the present study also explores a type of wellbeing, specifically cultural wellbeing.

6.3 Employee wellbeing- Cultural wellbeing

Employee wellbeing is an important outcome which organisations aim to achieve (Baptiste, 2008; Currie, 2001; MacDonald, 2005). According to MacDonald (2005), if employees not in a good status of health and wellbeing, could negatively influence performance and targets of organisational achievement. Therefore, all businesses endeavour to have healthy employees (Baptiste, 2008), and it is important to review previous studies on employee wellbeing.

Employee wellbeing is considered as an opposite status from stress (Skakon, Nielsen, Borg, & Guzman, 2010). Stress is defined as an mentally unpleasant state such as tiredness, anxiety, grief or depression), whereas wellbeing is considered as an opposite of stress (Skakon, et al., 2010). In addition, some researchers also defined wellbeing in terms of strain (Jain, Giga, & Cooper, 2009). Strain is described as mental, physical or behavioural responses to stressors (Le Fevre, Matheny, & Kolt, 2003). Overall, these definitions show that employee wellbeing is a positive status which employee should enhance at workplace (Baptiste, 2008).

Furthermore, existing research found employee wellbeing was influenced by leadership styles. For example, in their research, Tafvelin, Armelius and Westerberg (2011) used a two-wave longitudinal panel study to explore the relationship between transformational leadership and employee wellbeing over time. The questionnaires were distributed on two occasions, with a 12-month interval, to a stratified random sample of social service employees. They found that transformational leadership had no direct effect on wellbeing over time. Therefore, it was questioned about the time frame which transformational leaders can influence employee wellbeing. However, their studies did find that both the short-term and long-term positive impacts of transformational leadership on wellbeing were mediated by a positive climate for innovation. In addition, Tafvelin et al. (2011) also found that different levels of employee wellbeing can derive from the level of innovative climate which their closest leader has created. As such, leadership may influence climate, which in turn, influences wellbeing. Thus, it may operate through climate, which I address

below as both an outcome and potential mediator of the influence of leadership styles on employee outcomes.

Another existing study also found a positive link between leadership and employee wellbeing. Skakon, Nielsen, Borg and Guzman (2010) conducted an intensive computerized search and systematic review of nearly 30 years of empirical research on the link between leadership and employee wellbeing. In their research, they found that the impact of leadership styles and behaviours did have a beneficial influence on employee stress and wellbeing. For instance, transformational leadership has a positive link to a low degree of employee stress and positive employee affective wellbeing. In addition, their research also supports that leaders' behaviours, such as support, feedback, trust, consideration and integrity, enhance employee affective wellbeing and reduce stress effectively. Furthermore, Skakon, Nielsen, Borg and Guzman (2010) believed that leaders' stress and affective well-being were associated with employee stress and affective wellbeing. Also, the positive relationship between leaders and their employees along with their leadership styles enhanced to employee stress and affective wellbeing which is supported by LMX theory focusing on the exchange relationships between leaders and their employees (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Skakon, et al., 2010). Moreover, the research supports the notion that leaders who possess positive empowerment, offer great support or have good human relations are able to reduce employee stress and enhance staff wellbeing (Schaufeli & Enzmann, 1998; Skakon, et al., 2010).

In their study, Haar and Brougham (2013) mentioned that there is a relationship between culture and wellbeing. In addition, Diener, Oishi and Lucas (2003) pointed out that “people all over the world most want to be happy by achieving the things they value” (p. 420). Diener et al. (2003) also explained how culture influences wellbeing, and how different people may enhance wellbeing through different values and beliefs.

Cultural wellbeing is a new factor developed by Haar and Brougham (2013). Cultural wellbeing is defined as “how indigenous employees feel about the way their cultural values and beliefs are accepted in the workplace” (Haar & Brougham, 2013, p. 877). The concept has been created and tested in order to see how indigenous employees perceive career satisfaction (Haar & Brougham, 2013). Although the definition of cultural wellbeing is initially defined for the indigenous employees at workplaces, Haar and Brougham (2013) also suggested that cultural wellbeing can be considered to extend its concept to other ethnic groups.

In their study, using a sample of 172 Maori employees, they found that the cultural factor of workplace cultural wellbeing was a significant predictor of career satisfaction, and accounted for 24% of the variance for career satisfaction of the indigenous people of New Zealand. The research also suggests that it is crucial to create good quality exchange relationship between indigenous employees and employers, and this quality relationship might be achieved if indigenous employees feel their cultural beliefs are respected.

Therefore, this study suggests that indigenous employees with a higher level of workplace cultural wellbeing will have greater career satisfaction.

Consistent with previous studies, particularly the study of Haar and Brougham (2013), the present study examines the cultural wellbeing factor, not only for indigenous employees, but also for other ethnic groups in ethnically diverse organisations in Auckland. This leads to the following hypothesis

Hypothesis c: The five leadership styles will be positively related to cultural wellbeing.

6.4 Turnover intentions

Along with job satisfaction and organisational commitment, turnover intention is also an important area which organisations focus on improving (Tumwesigye, 2010; Van Dick et al., 2004). A turnover intention is defined as a mental decision of an individual's as to whether to continue or leave the job (Hussain & Asif, 2012; Jacobs & Roodt, 2007). Prior research has demonstrated that intention to leave is one of the strongest predictors of employee turnover (Dess & Shaw, 2001; Griffeth, Hom, & Gaertner, 2000; Hussain & Asif, 2012). Therefore, according to Dess and Shaw (2001), identifying and resolving antecedents of turnover intentions is a practical way of cutting actual turnover. Turnover intentions have a direct association with turnover behaviour (Boles, et al., 2007; Hussain & Asif, 2012; Loi, Hang-Yue, & Foley, 2006). Turnover leads to indirect costs such as reduction in morale among remaining employees, work overload, and loss of social capital (Hussain & Asif, 2012).

Loi et al.'s (2006) study investigated the relationships between employees' justice perceptions, perceived organisational support (POS), organisational commitment and intention to leave. Using hierarchical regression analyses on a large sample of 514 practising solicitors in Hong Kong, they found that employee's justice perceptions contributed to the development of POS, and POS mediated their effects on organisational commitment and turnover intentions (Loi, et al., 2006). Similarly, with a sample of 297 postgraduate students at Uganda Management Institute employed in private, public and NGO sectors in Uganda, Tumwesigye (2010) investigated the mediating role of organisational commitment between perceived organisational support and turnover intentions. He also used mediated regression and path analysis to test the direct and mediated relationships between the variables. His study's results found significant relationships between perceived organisational support and organisational commitment, organisational commitment and turnover intentions, perceived organisational support and turnover intentions.

The relationship between leadership and turnover intentions was found in some existing studies (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Harris, Wheeler, & Kacmar, 2009; Tse, Huang, & Lam, 2013). For example, in their study, Gerstner and Day (1997) conducted research using meta-analysis to examine the relationships between LMX and its outcomes. The study suggested that there is significant link between LMX and turnover intentions; however, there is no significant relationship between LMX and actual turnover. Furthermore, they found that 7-item LMX is the most effective measurement of instruments. In addition, they also suggested that longitudinal field research is essential to explore the

dynamics of leader-member relationships over; further researchers should take into account integrating transformational leadership into LMX to develop a comprehensive model of dyadic leadership.

Furthermore, previous research also found that employee turnover intentions are influenced by transformational leadership. Tse et al. (2013) conducted a study to investigate the relationship between transformational leadership and employee turnover. By using the structural equation modelling on a sample of 490 full-time employees working in a large telecommunication company in the PRC, the study found that transformational leadership is related to both social exchange mechanisms – LMX and affective commitment – turnover intention and turnover behaviour (Tse, et al., 2013). Furthermore, the results showed that affective commitment mediated the relationship between transformational leadership and turnover intention.

Another existing study also found that LMX influenced employee turnover intentions. Han and Jekel (2011) conducted a study to investigate whether job satisfaction mediates between leader-member exchange and nurse turnover intentions. A cross-sectional survey was conducted. With a sample of 181 nurses from a US hospital, the study found higher leader-member exchange was associated with lower turnover intentions, and job satisfaction was negatively related to turnover intentions. In addition, job satisfaction mediates the link between leader-member exchange and turnover intentions. The study suggested that turnover intentions can be reduced by enhancing job satisfaction.

Consistent with previous literature, this present study predicts that leadership styles can negatively influence turnover intentions of employees. This leads to the following hypothesis

Hypothesis d: The five leadership styles will be negatively related to turnover intentions

6.5 Job burnout: Emotional exhaustion-cynicism

Job burnout is an important detrimental outcome which has a significant effect on employees' ability to deliver quality service (Ledgerwood, Crotts, & Everett, 1998). Job burnout has received attention from researchers, as leaders' stress and burnout has been found to influence employee wellbeing (Roche & Haar, 2013; Skakon, et al., 2010). Maslach, Schaufeli and Leiter (2001) considered burnout as feelings of depression occurring at work which have a tendency to pervade every area of a person's life. Job burnout can be "manifested by a sense of feeling psychologically and emotionally drained" (Zohar, 1997, p. 110). In addition, employees with high levels of job burnout were reported to be less positive when dealing with customers, and this resulted in a poorer performance. Therefore, it is crucial to predict job burnout to avoid black side of this psychological aspect.

Although job burnout has three dimensions (Maslach & Jackson, 1981), Euwema, Kop and Bakker (2004) suggested that emotional exhaustion and cynicism are the "core dimensions of burnout" (p. 24). Emotional exhaustion is defined as "feelings of being emotionally overextended and exhausted"

(Maslach & Jackson, 1981, p. 101), or “chronic state of physical and emotional depletion that results from excessive job demands and continuous hassles” (Wright & Cropanzano, 1998, p. 489). Cynicism is associated with a distant attitude towards work, and having an uncaring and distrustful attitude to work (Euwema, et al., 2004), or “feelings of frustration and disillusionment as well as negative feelings toward and distrust of a person, group, ideology, social convention, or institution” (Andersson & Bateman, 1997, p. 450). To be consistent with these earlier studies, this study will also measure job burnout through its core dimensions: emotional exhaustion and cynicism.

In their research, Roche and Haar (2013) examine the influence of leaders’ life goals towards wellbeing, focusing on job burnout. The study employs self-determination theory to explore seven dimensions of the aspirations of 386 New Zealand leaders towards emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Overall, the study highlighted the importance of job burnout amongst leaders.

Existing research shows that leadership influences emotional exhaustion and cynicism. For example, Kara, Uysal, Sirgy and Lee (2013) conducted a study to see if transformational leadership style is more effective than transactional leadership style in enhancing quality of work life and life satisfaction, as well as increasing organisational commitment and decreasing employee burnout.

With a sample of 443 employees at 5-star hotels in Turkey, the study reported that transformational leadership enhances employee wellbeing and decreases employee job burnout (Kara, et al., 2013). Similarly, Dale and Weinberg (1989) conducted a study on a sample of 302 high school and college coaches

to determine if burnout is related to leadership style. They also found there was a significant relationship between burnout and leadership styles. Consistent with the existing studies, this present study predicts that leadership styles will be negatively related to emotional exhaustion and cynicism. This leads to hypothesis ‘e’

Hypothesis e: the five leadership styles will be negatively related to employees' emotional exhaustion.

Hypothesis f: the five leadership styles will be negatively related to employees' cynicism.

In addition to the direct effects of leadership styles on employee outcomes, the present study also explores perceived organisational support as a mediator. This is discussed below.

6.6 Perceived organisational support

Perceived organisational support (POS) is defined as employees' beliefs towards the level of recognition and welfare care of the organisation in response to their contribution at the workplace (Tumwesigye, 2010). POS plays an important role as a trustable and guaranteed support from the organisation towards employees when they need to complete their job effectively or face stressful situations at work (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). In addition, POS is a binding agent connecting the organisation and employees; for example, organisations have a feeling of obligation to employee welfare, whereas POS

makes employees integrate organisation membership and role status into their social identity (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

Existing studies found that POS has a relationship with other job outcomes (Eisenberger, Cummings, Armeli, & Lynch, 1997; Eisenberger, Fasolo, & Davis-LaMastro, 1990; Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison, & Sowa, 1986). Eisenberger, Huntington, Hutchison and Sowa (1986) developed the notion of POS to explore the development process of employee commitment to an organisation. They believed that "employees develop global beliefs concerning the extent to which the organization values their contributions and cares about their well-being" (Eisenberger, et al., 1986, p. 501), where global beliefs is considered to be POS. Ultimately, in a number of studies, Eisenberger et al. (1986) found that POS strongly influences employees' commitment to the organisation. For examples, employees perceiving support and well-being care from an organisation showed a lower level of absenteeism and a greater endeavour towards achieving organisational goals (Eisenberger, et al., 1986; Tumwesigye, 2010). Similarly, Settoon, Bennett and Liden (1996) suggest that POS creates a feeling of commitment and improves employees' work attitude. They conducted a survey with a sample of 254 nonsupervisory employees at a regional hospital in the United States. They found that POS produces feelings of obligation in employees and enhances citizenship behaviours (Settoon, et al., 1996). Overall, POS was supported by previous research as an important factor influencing employee job outcomes.

In addition, the crucial role of POS can be explained by social exchange theory (Gerstner & Day, 1997; Swift & Virick, 2013). Swift and Virick (2013) discussed the social exchange theory, emphasizing the reciprocity in social exchanges. For example, when one receives a favour from another person, he or she is expected to return that favour to that person (Swift & Virick, 2013). By employing the social exchange theoretical perspective, Eisenberger et al. (1986) explained that with positive beliefs towards the organisation's commitment to them, employees in turn contribute by increasing their commitment to the organisation. Therefore, a high level of POS produces higher employees' commitment, and reduces turnover rate.

Moreover, recent research has shown the usefulness of conceptualizing POS as an effective mediator for the relationship between independent and dependent variables (Hochwarter, Kacmar, Perrewé, & Johnson, 2003). For instance, Wayne, Shore and Liden (1997) found that POS mediated the relationship between human resource practices and affective commitment, organisational citizenship behaviours, and turnover intentions. M. W. Allen (1992) reported that POS mediated the relationship between co-worker communication and commitment relationships. Finally, recent research of Rhoades et al. (2001) found that POS influenced the association between commitment and organisational rewards, procedural justice, and supervisor support. Based on these studies, it indicates that POS possesses great potential to influence various work relationships (Hochwarter, et al., 2003).

Consistent with the existing findings, this present study also predicts a relationship between POS and employee outcomes. This lead to the following hypothesis:

Hypothesis 6: POS will mediate the influence of leadership styles on beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

6.7 Summary

In summary, the five outcomes investigated above are crucial in evaluating the influence and effectiveness of leadership styles. The five outcomes: job satisfaction, organisational commitment, cultural wellbeing, turnover intentions and job burnout (emotional exhaustion and cynicism) are the centre of discussion of this present study. In addition, POS is predicted to contribute to mediating the relationship between leadership styles and employee outcomes. Although employee outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment and turnover are typical of the literature, they are typically tested with only one or a few leadership styles. This study aims to test these five outcomes with multiple leadership styles – the five leadership styles in the previous chapters. Similarly, the use of cultural wellbeing is considered as a unique contribution as to develop further arguments in literature towards enhancing employee wellbeing at culturally diverse organisations. In addition, cultural wellbeing is measured along with job burnout. This is to bring in the

additional angle of wellbeing, such as the mental health approach which is an additional contribution to the existing literature.

CHAPTER 7

NEW ZEALAND CULTURAL CONTEXT

As this present study was conducted within the Auckland area, it was important to understand the cultural factors where leadership styles influence employee outcomes in culturally diverse organisations. Therefore, the aim of this chapter was to provide an understanding of the concept of culture, and then offer a review in a New Zealand cultural context.

7.1. Culture

Culture is defined as the process of interaction within specific groups focusing on values, beliefs, attitudes and cognitions (Kwok & Fons, 2008), or as a shared meaning system among generations (Ronald, 2009). However, certain aspects of culture of diverse ethnicities tend to draw a boundary between the in-group and the out-group (Worchel, 2005). Moreover, “culture is the learned and shared way of thinking and acting among a group of people or society” (French & Schermerhorn, 2008, p. 40). Cultural values become crucial in the global workplace. People are not born with a culture, but people are born into the society where they are taught by its culture. Therefore, culture is shared among people in the same group, but it creates a boundary among different groups by the way people interact and treat each other based on their core values of the culture.

Heckscher & Adler (2006) also believe that “culture is in effect an interplay among social norms, organizational structures, and social character, attempts to change organization without recognizing the limits of character are likely to run aground on resistance and lack of motivational capabilities” (p. 266). Therefore, this present study considers culture as an important factor having a bearing on leadership and employee outcomes in culturally diverse organisations in Auckland.

7.2 New Zealand cultural context

The past decade has seen a remarkably increasing diversity in the New Zealand population (Watts & Trlin, 2000). This has occurred as a consequence of a more open immigration policy aimed at building human capital with skilled and qualified immigrants from different cultural backgrounds (Watts & Trlin, 2000). Four objectives of New Zealand Immigration policy are: (1) to build New Zealand’s human capital by enhancing the skilled workforce; (2) to reinforce international connections at all levels from government, corporate, community and individual; (3) to foster innovation by bringing in people with vision and a desire to succeed; and (4) to sustain social cohesion while increasing New Zealand’s diversity and strength (New Zealand Immigration Service, 1995). Therefore, this has led to a concern of how to provide an environment to meet the needs of immigrants and to enhance their opportunities to achieve their full potential. Furthermore, in order to foster the strength of diversity, it is crucial to understand the culture of each ethnic group. This means that it is crucial to examine the Treaty of Waitangi – a principle for

all social activities in New Zealand, and to understand the cultural value of each ethnic group in New Zealand.

First, diversity in New Zealand started from the bicultural nature of New Zealand arising from the signing of the Treaty of Waitangi in 1840 by the British Crown and Maori chiefs. The result was a partnership which even today is regarded by many as complex (Brougham & Haar, 2012; Henry & Pringle, 1996). The Treaty in 1840 provided Maori “active protection, the tribal right to self regulation, the right of redress for past breaches, and the duty to consult” (Waitangi Tribunal, 2013, p. 1). Further, the Treaty stipulated the right to be equal and the importance of the conservation of Maori language and culture (Brougham & Haar, 2012). The Treaty was established to recognise the ownership of Maori lands and other properties (Little, Akin-Little, & Johansen, 2013). Although the relationship between Maori and European settlers has been at times tense, Maori have experienced a privileged relationship with European settlers through their right to equality and recognition of their status in New Zealand society (Brougham & Haar, 2012; King, 2003). It can be said, therefore,, that one of the basic aims of the Treaty of Waitangi was to develop a culture of tolerance and harmony (King, 2003).

This tolerance and harmony is important. Diversity is becoming an important concept in New Zealand society as proportions in the work force change. Of the New Zealand population, approximately 70% are of European descent, 14.5% of Maori, 8% of Asian origin, and 7% are Pacific Islanders (Little, et al., 2013), all with different cultural backgrounds. The indigenous Maori people

are important to New Zealand society and the economy (Haar & Brougham, 2013), with their 14.5% of the population (Statistics New Zealand, 2006).

Although it is said that Maori face problems of high unemployment rates, low average incomes, and poor wellbeing, their numbers are increasing and they are expected to contribute to New Zealand's society significantly in the future (Haar & Brougham, 2013). For this reason, if for no other, it is crucial to understand Maori culture and its characteristics of collectivism so as to enhance employee outcomes at the workplace (Haar & Brougham, 2013).

As regards that part of the population with European origins, Ah Chong & Thomas (1997) believe that the term "Pakeha" was given them by Maori, although the actual meaning of "Pakeha" is still argued. However, Pakeha culture is defined as "membership in the dominant group and by a particular relationship to the Maori and to the social and physical environment of New Zealand" (Spoonley, 1994, p. 89). Pakeha culture is typified by the nuclear family and a high level of individualism (Ah Chong & Thomas, 1997). Society acknowledges the status of a person, but status is not as important as what the person has done. This is important in an employment context. People in management positions are usually promoted on ability (Ah Chong & Thomas, 1997) and this aligns with Pakeha society, which is characterised by the culture of individualism, responsibility and independence (Ah Chong & Thomas, 1997).

Pacific Islanders are the second largest ethnic group in New Zealand after Maori, and include Cook Islanders, Fijians and Tongans (Ah Chong & Thomas,

1997). According to Ah Chong & Thomas (1997), Pacific Island managers obtain their power not from personal characteristics, but from their official position. In addition, Pacific Island managers tend to pay attention to members' welfare within the workplace as well as in other aspects of their lives. Overall, New Zealand is a country where the number of migrants with different cultural backgrounds is substantial (Coates & Carr, 2005); further, the Treaty of Waitangi is a tool with the potential to bring cultural diversity into harmony. As regards the Treaty, there are several lists of principles, one from the Crown, one from the courts, as well as a growing argument in academic discourse. One of the principles is the *Principle of Partnership* which is considered as a modern interpretation of the Treaty. Article One is the cession of sovereignty by Maori to the Crown. In return, the Crown guarantees to Maori the full and exclusive possession of their resources in Article Two. Through the first and second Articles is implied the mutual responsibility between parties in the process of achieving partnership. The third Article gives Maori the same rights and privileges as English subjects, which is considered as non-discrimination in diversified groups. This is a factor which can help maintain a healthy and long-term partnership. A practical approach to the meaning of a document today emphasises the importance of its political, economic, social and cultural context. The Treaty is still relevant to contemporary society as it provides a direction for future growth and development in the form of a social contract.

In brief, although the Treaty of Waitangi is seen as a critical guideline among people from different ethnic groups, it is still a challenge for leaders to achieve employee positive outcomes in culturally diverse organisations.

7.3 Summary

In conclusion, it is a unique advantage for New Zealand to have cultural diversity to enhance creativity and competitiveness (Cox & Blake, 1991). Therefore it is crucial to search for a leadership style influencing employee outcomes effectively. Overall, this present chapter has provided a background of New Zealand's culture. The following chapters will consider culture as an important component in understanding the link between leadership styles and its outcomes in culturally diverse organisations in Auckland.

CHAPTER 8

THEORETICAL MODEL

Based on hypotheses presented in the literature review in previous chapters, the present chapter first presents two theoretical models (a direct effects only model and a mediation model) to provide a clearer understanding about the relationships of interest in this study.

8.1 Two theoretical models

Based on three core leadership theories (collaborative leadership, authentic leadership, and path goal leadership), five leadership styles (collaborative leadership, authentic leadership, participative leadership, supportive leadership and instrumental leadership) form the centre of discussion. Participative, supportive and instrumental leadership are three leadership styles of path goal theory. In addition, there are six employee outcomes (job satisfaction, organisational commitment, cultural wellbeing, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion and cynicism) where job burnouts have been slipped into two variables – emotional exhaustion and cynicism. Also, based on literature reviews in previous studies, POS seems to be an effective mediator between the two variables (Hochwarter, et al., 2003). Therefore, consistent with previous studies, this study chose POS to be a mediator between five leadership styles and six employee outcomes.

Model One – a direct effects only model is to test direct influences of five leadership styles on six employee outcomes. Model Two – a mediation model investigates the role of one mediator: perceived organisational support (POS) and acting between these leadership styles and the five employee outcomes.

Details of the two models are illustrated as follows:

Figure 1. Theoretical Model One: Direct Effects Only

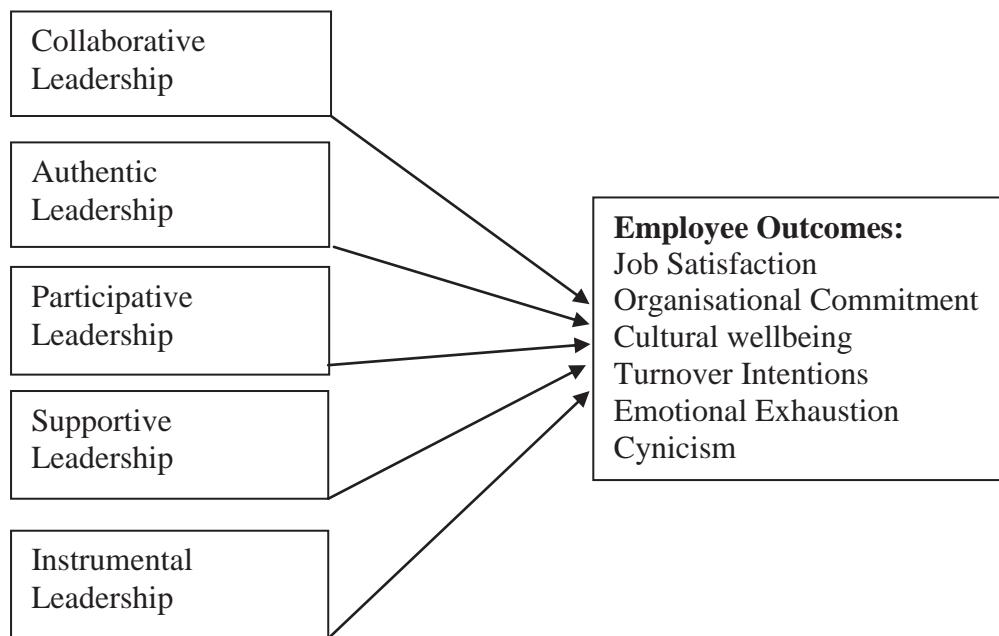
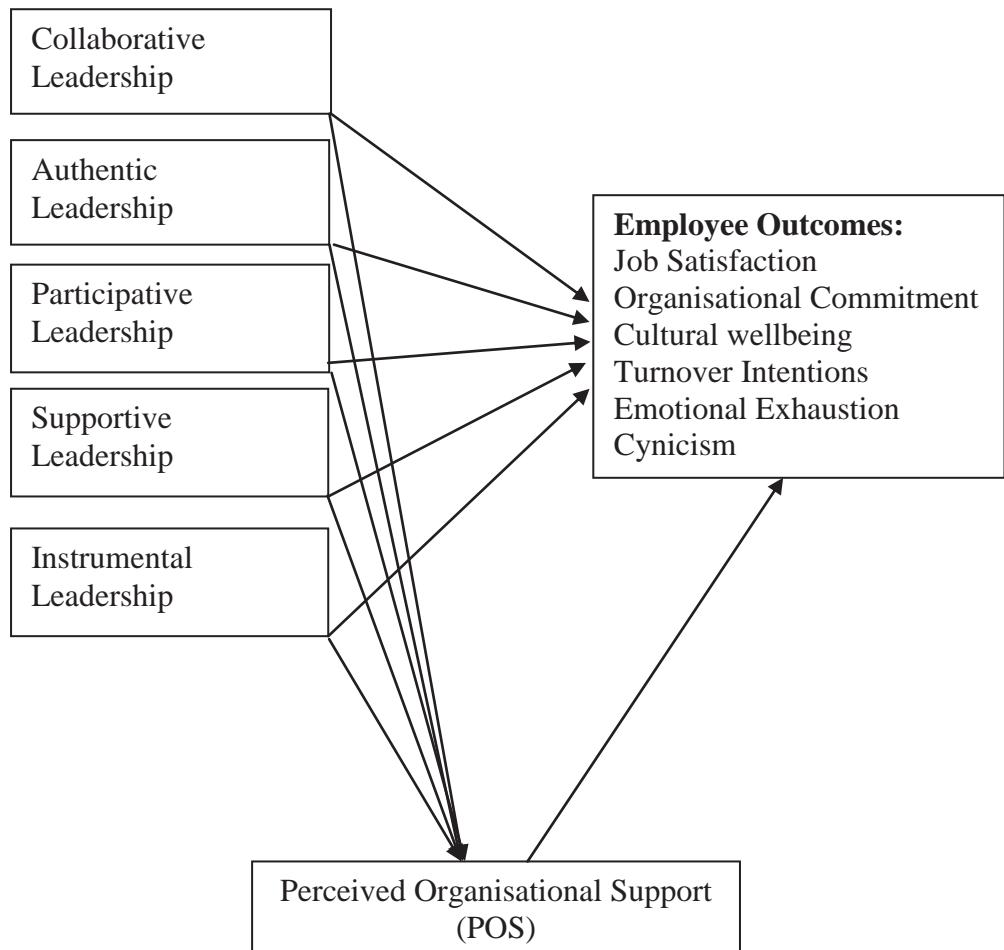


Figure 2. Theoretical Model Two: Mediation Effect of POS



8.2 Hypotheses

Based on the literature, I expect the following:

Hypothesis 1: collaborative leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 2: authentic leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 3: participative leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 4: supportive leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 5: instrumental leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

Hypothesis 6: POS will mediate the influence of leadership styles on beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism).

CHAPTER 9

METHODOLOGY & RESEARCH DESIGN

9.1 Overview research method

The present study seeks to test the influence of leadership style on employees' outcomes including job satisfaction, organisational commitment, cultural wellbeing, turnover intentions, and job burnout (emotional exhaustion and cynicism) based on three leadership theories: collaborative leadership, authentic leadership and path-goal theory (participative-supportive-instrumental leadership). In addition, the study examines the role of POS as a mediator between the five leadership styles and the six outcomes. Furthermore, the study aims to find out what leadership style is most effective in creating positive outcomes in culturally diverse organisations.

The purpose of this chapter is to present the methodology used in this study. This chapter comprises descriptions of samples and participants, the measurements utilised for each variable, and the procedures used for analysing the data.

9.2 Sample

The population for this study includes part-time and full-time employees working for private companies, government organisations, and non-profit organisations in New Zealand, mainly in the Auckland CBD. In order to avoid

a sampling bias, large retail shops and restaurants were excluded as employees in those workplaces were too busy to participate in the survey and, if they did, they might have provided inaccurate responses due to time pressure and their workload. In addition, small retail shops or convenience stores were not included as these businesses are normally run by the owner or a shop assistant, neither of whom has a desire to examine how leadership influences employees' outcomes. Small offices of real estate companies in the Auckland CBD were also excluded because many are independent contractors, not employees. For example, in the office of Bayleys Commercial, there are just two people, the receptionist and the owner, neither of whom was considered suitable for examination in respect of the relationship proposed in this study. Sole ethnic-owned companies such as Japanese or Chinese magazine publishers or educational agencies were excluded because those businesses mainly serve their own ethnic community, and there might also be a language barrier to participation in the survey. In addition, having only one ethnic group in the organisation could skew the results of this study.

In total, 212 surveys were returned for a response rate of 61 %. On average, the participants were 37.78 years of age ($SD = 12.16$ years), males (50 %). All major nationalities were represented in the sample: New Zealand European (41.5%), Maori (3.8%), Asian (25.2%), Pacific Islanders (9%), Indian (11.3%) and others (9.2%). On average, respondents worked 36.31 hours per week ($SD = 10.36$ hours) and had a tenure of 5.77 years ($SD = 6.63$ years). With regards to education, 14.6 % held a high school qualification, 8 % a polytechnic

qualification, 39.6 % a university degree, and 35.4 % a post-graduate qualification.

9.3 Questionnaires

Self-completion questionnaires were chosen for conducting this survey. Self-completion questionnaires have the advantages of being cheap and saving time regarding the collection of data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In addition, self-completion questionnaires can reach more people quicker. Another advantage is that they eliminate any risk of unfavourable aspects such as interviewer bias or response bias due to negative perceptions about the interviewer (Bryman & Bell, 2011).

The questionnaire has two parts: the first part is demographic information; the second part comprises questions designed to measure variables of interest (e.g., leadership styles and employee outcomes). The questionnaires were administered in English only as the survey was conducted in culturally diverse organisations in New Zealand where it was expected that English would be spoken (and thus understood).

9.4 Materials

9.4.1 Collaborative leadership

Collaborative leadership or distributed leadership was measured by seven items adapted from a measure developed by Heck and Hallinger (2010) exploring the

perceptions of leadership in organisations, based on five-point, Likert-type scales (1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree). The stem used for these items was “To what extent does the organisation’s leadership...?” The seven items were employed to explain three perspectives of distributed leadership. The first aspect is organisation improvement with three items: “To what extent does your organisation’s leadership: Make decisions to facilitate actions that focus the energies of employees on organisational achievement?”, “empower staff?” and “encourage commitment, participation and shared accountability for organisational performance?” The second perspective is organisational governance with two items: “Adopt governance guidelines which are consistent with the organisation's purpose” and “Support the achievement of the stated standards towards outcomes”. The third one is resource management and development with two items “Allocate available resources in a manner that sustains the organisation and its goals” and “Internal analysis results as the basis for the allocation and use of resources”. This measure has Cronbach’s alpha = .91

9.4.2 Authentic leadership

Authentic leadership was measured by 16 items developed by Avolio, Gardner and Walumbwa (2007) called the Authentic Leadership Questionnaire (ALQ). Authentic leadership was measured via addressing its components: self awareness, transparency, ethical/moral, and balanced processing (Avolio, et al., 2007). Participants were provided with a five-point Likert-type scale, with anchors ranging from "Not at all" to “Frequently, if not always”. Respondents

were asked to assess the level of authenticity and honesty of his or her leader in the workplace. A sample item stated “My leader says exactly what he or she means”. This scale had a Cronbach’s alpha = .96

9.4.3 Leadership styles: participative-supportive-instrumental

Leadership styles were measured with 13 items implemented in the study of Ogbonna and Harris (2000), coded 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree. This measurement of leadership styles was originally developed from sources such as Fiedler (1967), Fleishman (1957) and Stogdill (1963); it was further validated by House (1971, 1973), and House and Dessler (1974). In addition, this measure was used and found valid by scholarly researchers such as (Kohli, 1989; Ogbonna & Harris, 2000; Teas, 1981). Participants were asked to evaluate the level of the employee’s involvement with his or her leader. A sample item stated “When faced with a problem, s/he consults with subordinates”. There are three dimensions within this measure of path-goal leadership: (1) Participative leadership, (2) Supportive leadership, and (3) Instrumental leadership. This measure has Cronbach’s alpha of .91 for participative leadership, .79 for supportive leadership and .80 for instrumental leadership.

9.4.5 Job satisfaction

Job satisfaction was measured using 5 items from the job satisfaction index developed by Brayfield and Rothe's (1951). Judge, Locke, Durham, and Kluger (1998) also employed this measurement with a coefficient alpha of .88 and

shortened the measure to a reduced 5-item measure. It was this version of the measure that was used. Respondents were asked the extent to which they were satisfied with their current work. A sample item read "Each day at work seems like it will never end" (reverse coded). Again, a 5-point scale was used from 1 (strongly disagree) to 5 (strongly agree). The Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .91

9.4.6 Organisational commitment

Organisational commitment has three dimensions developed by Meyer and Allen. However, the literature review suggested that affective commitment is most related to a psychological contract (Herriot, Manning, & Kidd, 1997). Further, it is the most powerful predictor of commitment regarding actual turnover (Meyer, Allen, & Smith, 1993). Therefore, in this present study organisational commitment was measured with affective dimension only with the 6-items developed by Allen and Meyer (1990; N. J. Allen & J. P. Meyer, 1990) coded 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree (Meyer, et al., 1993). Respondents were asked to measure their level of commitment to their organisation. A sample item stated "I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation". Based on an investigation of 40 studies on affective commitment, Allen and Meyer (1997) also reported that a median reliability for the six items of affective commitment is .85. Therefore, this present study's Cronbach's alpha for this measure was .86, indicating consistency with previous studies and good internal reliability.

9.4.7 Cultural wellbeing

Cultural Wellbeing was measured with four-items developed by Haar and

Brougham (2013), coded 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree.

Respondents were asked to express the level of their cultural satisfaction in their workplace. A sample item read “I find real enjoyment in my culture in my workplace”. This measure had adequate reliability with Cronbach’s Alpha .90.

9.4.8 Turnover intentions

Turnover intentions were measured using fouritems by Kelloway, Gottlieb and

Barham (1999), coded 1 = strongly disagree, 5 = strongly agree. Sample

questions were “I am thinking about leaving my organisation” and “I don’t

plan to be at my organisation much longer”. Respondents’ turnover intentions

were operationalised using Hom & Griffeth (1995)’s conceptualisation:

thinking of quitting, intend to search for a new job, and intend to quit. A higher

score indicates a greater propensity to leave their organisation. The Cronbach’s

alpha for this measure was 0.91 indicating a strong level of internal reliability.

9.4.9 Job burnout: Emotional exhaustion-cynicism

Job burnout was measured through two core dimensions: emotional exhaustion

and cynicism. Emotional exhaustion and cynicism were measured using five-

items each for each dimension from Maslach and Jackson (1981). A sample

item for emotional exhaustion stated “I feel emotionally drained by my work”,

and for cynicism, “I have become more cynical about whether my work

contributes anything.” Overall, higher scores indicate greater emotional exhaustion and greater cynicism, respectively. This scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .92 for emotional exhaustion, and .92 for cynicism.

9.4.10 Perceived organisational support

Perceived organisational support was measured using a ten-item scale of Eisenberger et al. (1986), coded 1=strongly disagree, 5=strongly agree. This shortened version was pioneered by Lambert (Lambert, 2000). Questions included “The organisation really cares about me” and “The organisation strongly considers my goals and values”. This scale had a Cronbach’s alpha of .94

9.4.11 Demographic

A number of demographics common to leadership literature were controlled for: age (in years), gender (1=female, 0=male), tenure (in years), ethnicity (1=European New Zealanders, 2=Asian, 3=Maori, 4=Pacific Islander, 5=Indian, 6=Others), hours of work (from 1 to 60), firm size (1=1-10 employees, 2=11-20, 3=21-50, 4=51-100, 5=101-200, 6=201-500, 7=501-1000, 8=1000 plus employees), industry (1=private, 2=public, 3=not for profit) and education (1=high school, 2 = polytechnic qualification, 3=bachelor’s degree, 4=postgraduate qualification)

9.5 Procedures

9.5.1 Data collection

The survey was conducted over a 12-week period. First, with the original data collection plan, I chose five CEOs and directors of five organisations from my personal contact list in Auckland CBD, and made a phone call to request a meeting to ask whether their organisation would be willing to participate in this survey. During the meetings, they were happy to help complete this survey themselves, but refused to let their employees participate. The first reason is because the research topic (leadership influences employees' outcomes) was felt to be “too sensitive”, and some questions were considered potentially offensive such as “I do not feel emotionally attached to this organisation” or “I am not sure if I fully trust my employer”. For example, a CEO of one organisation said that: “Line managers would hesitate to ask their staff to fill in a physical questionnaire”. It was felt that employees would not be honest in completing the questionnaire especially if they had something negative to say about the organisation or manager, as it might put their job at risk.. Second, company policy often insists that employees do not do other things apart from their assigned work during office hours. One director of an organisation said to me that it would be difficult for staff to complete the questionnaire during their work time, and it would not be proper to ask them to do so in their private time. Third, top management of those organisations was concerned about the privacy aspect, and commercially sensitive business strategies and HR information being revealed. In addition, management certainly do not want their “dirty

washing”, that is, internal problems, made known to outsiders, with the distinct possibility of a negative impact on the organisation’s reputation. Hence, those organisations all declined to participate in this survey.

Due to a lack of CEOs’/managers’ support, the original data collection plan could not proceed. As an alternative, I reverted to my current approach by adopting the snowballing technique for data collection. First, the snowball technique was used because “snowball sampling is a form of convenience sampling, but it is worth distinguishing ” since it can be expanded to a large number of potential respondents (Bryman & Bell, 2011, p. 192). In addition, according to Bryman and Bell (2011), “a convenience sample is one that is simply available to the researcher by virtue of its accessibility” (p. 190); I was advised that using a convenience sample is especially suitable for completing a research study at this level (i.e., a master thesis). In addition, according to (Bryman & Bell, 2011) “in the field of business and management, convenience samples are very common and indeed are more prominent than are samples based on probability sampling” (p. 190). Therefore, I believe snowball sampling to be suitable for this study in the field of leadership and management.

Email was used as a method of distributing the questionnaire to each participant on my personal contact list because of its low cost and efficiency (Bryman & Bell, 2011). In addition, email has the unique advantage of reaching a larger number of the population in a shorter period of time (Bryman & Bell, 2011). The survey was administered online via the survey monkey

website. Thus, confidentiality was assured as participants did not have to provide their names or contact details (i.e., email addresses were not required). In addition, only minimal details were asked of their organisation; specifically, the number of employees (in a range) and the industry sector (e.g., private), thus ensuring that identification of their organisation would be impossible. The purpose of using this online survey is to generate quick data collection without human error during the entry procedure, and the time consuming manual procedure of entering the responses into a data file (Lefever, Dal, & Matthíasdóttir, 2007) .

First, an email explaining the purpose of the research and its topic along with the link of the online survey was sent to the initial contacts of 120 employees who are currently working for organisations in New Zealand, mainly in the Auckland region. In addition, potential respondents were then asked to forward the online survey to their friends and networks. The reason for this was that it is believed that “following up on referrals has proved to be the most effective approach and eventually yielded the majority of the potential respondents listed on the sampling frame” (Venter, Boshoff, & Maas, 2005, p. 291).

Since in an industrialised society, people tend to be very busy, follow up contacts were included in the survey procedure. Therefore, reminder emails were used to contact 120 employees on the list of initial contacts in order to enhance the response rate. The first reminder email was sent after two weeks, and the second reminder was sent after another two weeks.

In spite of the efforts made in data collection and the support received from friends, recruitment response was still short of what might be considered an adequate number. For example, I was targeting a minimum of 200 responses to enable meaningful data analysis. To make certain the target of 200 participants was achieved, in addition to the online data collection a paper-pencil version of the survey was prepared in order to collect data in person. The purpose of this additional method of data collection was to generate a larger and instant response rate. The physical surveys (hand-delivered) were conducted directly with organisations in the Auckland CBD. Employing the technique of cluster sampling, I used the Auckland CBD map to carry out this procedure. The first starting point was the Britomart Transport Centre, continuing up Queen Street to the corner of Queen Street and Victoria Street, and then travelling in a clockwise direction, still collecting data, back to the Westfield Shopping Centre, opposite the Britomart Transport Centre. The second area was the remainder of Queen Street (starting at the corner of K' Road and Queen Street from the Columbus Café up to the ANZ Bank at the corner of Queen Street and Victoria Street, then across the road to continue the circle in a clockwise direction, and so back to the starting point). The targeted visiting points were travel agencies, pharmacies and commercial buildings with different offices and private schools. When approaching the targeted companies, I first started the conversation about this research with the receptionist and asked if their line manager would be happy to participate in this survey. Thirty organisations refused outright to take part in the survey because of company policy. However, staff at the front offices of 20 organisations was willing to complete

the questionnaire themselves, as other members of their organisation were too busy to participate. Six companies gave support by distributing the questionnaire to their staff; the data was collected two days later.

After 12 weeks, 120 surveys had been emailed and 230 had been completed by hand or distributed among staff members at various CBD organisations; , the number completed and returned totalled 212, constituting a return rate of 61%.

9.5.2 Research Ethics

This study was conducted with the utmost attention given to the guiding moral principles and the professional code of conduct for researchers at Massey University. A low risk notification was declared before conducting the survey (see Appendix A). The questionnaires were distributed with the cover letter stating clearly an explanation of the nature of this study. Participants were informed that all participation was voluntary, and it was the right of participants to accept or deny participating in this survey. Furthermore, there was only a minimum of demographic data collected so as to ensure the confidentiality and anonymity of participants. In addition, the cover letter also provided the contact details of the researcher's supervisors so as to protect participants from harm caused by any issues which should occur as a result of the research. Also, an ethics application was submitted as a low risk notification on the 9th of September 2013. After ten days, the notification was accepted by the Massey University Human Ethics Committees. A copy of the approval letter is included as Appendix A. The project was recorded on the

Low Risk Database reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committees.

CHAPTER 10

RESULTS

Initially, this chapter provides an explanation of data analysis including data entry, missing data, and statistic analysis. It then presents the results of this study.

10.1. Data Analysis

10.1.1 Data Entry

The survey was designed via the SurveyMonkey website. Paper-pencil version data was entered manually and replicated the online questionnaires using a tablet with touch screen via the SurveyMonkey website so as to make the process of data entry quicker and more accurate. Online data was then exported directly from the database hosted on the website.

10.1.2 Missing Data

Raw data was screened and revealed five cases with substantial missing data, so those cases were deleted. All other cases with missing data were reviewed and as they had only 5% or less missing data, so they were retained. In addition, both the online and the hand-delivered surveys were designed using the method whereby the respondents need to concentrate in order to respond correctly. Nevertheless, there were still missing values due to respondents' errors or subjective evaluation as non-applicable questions. Missing values were

labelled as ‘99’. The present study also investigated the SPSS procedure for handling missing data as suggested by George and Mallery (2003). Since none of the variables had more than 10 percent of the cases missing, series mean substitution was used for missing value replacement (Roth, 1994). Therefore, missing data was not an issue with the present study and there were no outliers.

10.1.3 Statistic Analysis

Analysis of the data was conducted by using the Statistical Package for Social Science (SPSS) for Windows software. First, descriptive statistics were used to describe the socio-demographic information computed with percentages and means (Bryman & Bell, 2011; Chow, 2005; Saunders, Lewis, & Thornhill, 2012). The skewness and kurtosis scores for the present study’s predictor and outcomes variables were all well within acceptable limits.

Second, hierarchical regression analysis was used to analyse the data. For the first set of analyses, job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, cynicism and cultural wellbeing were the criterion variables. Control variables were entered in Step 1, while the various leadership styles (collaborative leadership, authentic leadership, participative leadership, supportive leadership, and instrumental leadership) were entered in Step 2 as predictor variables. To test for the potential mediation effects of perceived organisational support, this variable was entered in Step 3 following the steps outlined by Baron and Kenny (1986). In the second set of analyses,

job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism were the criterion variables.

10.2 Results

Descriptive statistics for all the study variables are shown in Table 1 (below).

Table 1 shows that education is significantly correlated with age ($r = .28, p < .01$). Hours worked is significantly correlated with age ($r = .19, p < .01$) and education ($r = .15, p < .05$), while firm size is significantly correlated with age ($r = .20, p < .01$), education ($r = .14, p < .05$) and hours of work ($r = .24, p < .01$).

Education is significantly correlated with collaborative leadership ($r = .15, p < .05$) and participate leadership ($r = .15, p < .05$). Hours worked is significantly correlated with collaborative leadership ($r = .22, p < .01$) and participate leadership ($r = .16, p < .05$). Firm size is significantly correlated with collaborative leadership ($r = .19, p < .01$). Tenure is significantly correlated with instrumental leadership ($r = .14, p < .05$).

Age is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .14, p < .05$) and turnover intentions ($r = -.21, p < .01$). Education is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .19, p < .05$) and cultural wellbeing ($r = .15, p < .05$). Hours worked is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .20, p < .01$), cynicism ($r = -.16, p < .05$), cultural wellbeing ($r = .22, p < .05$) and POS ($r = .16, p < .05$).

Collaborative leadership is significantly correlated with authentic leadership ($r = .75$, $p < .01$), participate leadership ($r = .75$, $p < .01$), supportive leadership ($r = .72$, $p < .01$) and instrumental leadership ($r = .55$, $p < .01$). Authentic leadership is significantly correlated with supportive leadership ($r = .67$, $p < .01$), instrumental leadership ($r = .53$, $p < .01$) and participate leadership ($r = .74$, $p < .01$). Participate leadership is significantly correlated with supportive leadership ($r = .73$, $p < .01$) and instrumental leadership ($r = .48$, $p < .01$). Instrumental leadership is significantly correlated with supportive leadership ($r = .50$, $p < .01$).

Job satisfaction is significantly correlated with all leadership styles ($.37 < r < .59$, all $p < .01$). Organisational commitment is significantly correlated with all leadership styles ($.22 < r < .44$, all $p < .01$). Turnover intentions is significantly and negatively correlated with all leadership styles ($-.45 < r < -.20$, all $p < .01$). Emotional exhaustion is significantly and negatively correlated with all leadership styles ($-.40 < r < -.19$, all $p < .01$). Cynicism is significantly and negatively correlated with all leadership styles ($-.54 < r < -.34$, all $p < .01$). Cultural wellbeing is significantly correlated with all leadership styles ($.36 < r < .52$, all $p < .01$). POS is significantly correlated with all leadership styles ($.44 < r < .75$, all $p < .01$).

Job satisfaction is significantly correlated with organisational commitment ($r = .41$, $p < .01$), turnover intentions ($r = -.49$, $p < .01$), emotional exhaustion ($r = -.48$, $p < .01$) and cynicism ($r = -.66$, $p < .01$). Organisational commitment is significantly correlated with turnover intentions ($r = -.56$, $p < .01$), emotional

exhaustion ($r = -.52$, $p < .01$) and cynicism ($r = -.60$, $p < .01$). Emotional exhaustion is significantly correlated with turnover intentions ($r = .59$, $p < .01$). Cynicism is significantly correlated with turnover intentions ($r = .65$, $p < .01$) and emotional exhaustion ($r = .75$, $p < .01$). Cultural wellbeing is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .54$, $p < .01$), organisational commitment ($r = .25$, $p < .01$), turnover intentions ($r = -.20$, $p < .01$), emotional exhaustion ($r = -.28$, $p < .01$), cynicism ($r = -.36$, $p < .01$) and POS ($r = .54$, $p < .01$). POS is significantly correlated with job satisfaction ($r = .64$, $p < .01$), organisational commitment ($r = .44$, $p < .01$), turnover intentions ($r = -.51$, $p < .01$), emotional exhaustion ($r = -.55$, $p < .01$) and cynicism ($r = -.65$, $p < .01$).

Table 1-1 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations

Variables	M	SD	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8
1. Age	38.4	13.5	--							
2. Education	3.0	1.0	.28**	--						
3. Hours worked	36.6	11.2	.19**	.15*	--					
4. Tenure (org)	12.4	11.2	.09	.13	.02	--				
5. Firm size	3.4	2.2	.20**	.14*	.24**	.10	--			
6. Collaborative leadership	3.5	.75	.06	.15*	.22**	.01	.19**	--		
7. Authentic leadership	3.4	.84	-.09	.06	.10	.00	.05	.75**	--	
8. Participative leadership	3.4	.86	-.01	.15*	.16*	.01	.09	.75**	.74**	--
9. Supportive leadership	3.4	.80	-.01	.11	.12	.04	.04	.72**	.67**	.73**
10. Instrumental leadership	3.6	.81	.07	.08	.14	.14*	.13	.55**	.53**	.48**
11. Job satisfaction	3.6	.92	.14*	.19*	.20**	.09	.11	.57**	.59**	.53**
12. Organisational commitment	3.7	1.0	.04	.05	.01	-.04	-.05	.38**	.44**	.35**
13. Turnover intentions	2.6	1.1	-.21**	-.10	-.09	.02	.04	-.41**	-.45**	-.41**
14. Emotional exhaustion	2.6	1.0	-.12	.03	.00	-.01	.09	-.33**	-.40**	-.35**
15. Cynicism	2.2	1.1	-.14	-.02	-.16*	.00	-.01	-.53**	-.54**	-.47**
16. POS	3.4	.70	.08	.06	.16*	-.02	.02	.68**	.75**	.59**
17. Cultural wellbeing	3.5	.80	-.04	.15*	.22*	.09	.03	.52**	.52**	.45**

N=212, *p< .05, **p< .01

Table 1-2 Descriptive Statistics and Correlations (cont.)

Variables	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17
1. Age									
2. Education									
3. Hours worked									
4. Tenure (org)									
5. Firm size									
6. Collaborative leadership									
7. Authentic leadership									
8. Participative leadership									
9. Supportive leadership									
10. Instrumental leadership	.50**	--							
11. Job satisfaction	.48**	.37**	--						
12. Organisational commitment	.28**	.22**	.41**	--					
13. Turnover intentions	-.37**	-.20**	-.49**	-.56**	--				
14. Emotional exhaustion	-.28**	-.19**	-.48**	-.52**	.59**	--			
15. Cynicism	-.34**	-.34**	-.66**	-.60**	.65**	.75**	--		
16. POS	.59**	.44**	.64**	.44**	-.51**	-.55**	-.65**	--	
17. Cultural wellbeing	.39**	.36**	.54**	.25**	-.20**	-.28**	-.36**	.54**	--

N=212, *p< .05, **p< .01

10.2.1 Direct Effects of Leadership Styles

Results of the hierarchical regressions for the direct effects (Hypotheses 1 to 5) and the mediating effects of POS (Hypothesis 6) are shown in Tables 2 to 7 (below).

Tables 2–7 show that collaborative leadership was significantly associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = .26$, $p < .05$), cultural wellbeing ($\beta = .36$, $p < .01$) and cynicism ($\beta = -.34$, $p < .01$). These findings provide support for Hypotheses 1a, 1c and 1f. In addition, authentic leadership was significantly associated with job satisfaction ($\beta = .41$, $p < .001$), organisational commitment ($\beta = .38$, $p < .01$), turnover intentions ($\beta = -.33$; $p < .05$), emotional exhaustion (($\beta = -.356$, $p < .01$) and cynicism ($\beta = -.41$, $p < .001$). These findings provide support for Hypotheses 2a, 2b, 2d, 2e and 2f. Finally, supportive leadership was significantly associated with cynicism ($\beta = -.24$, $p < .05$), and this provided support for Hypotheses 4f.

From the R^2 Change figures in Step 2, we see that the five leadership styles account for 39% of the total variance for job satisfaction ($p < .001$), 22% for organisational commitment ($p < .001$), 19% for turnover intentions ($p < .001$), 23% of the total variance for emotional exhaustion ($p < .001$), 39% of the total variance for cynicism ($p < .001$), and 28% of the total variance for cultural wellbeing ($p < .001$). These findings provide further support for Hypotheses 1 to 5 and show that leadership styles do play an important and sizeable role in understanding the outcomes explored in this study.

10.2.2 Mediating Effects of POS

Regarding the potential mediating effects of POS, Step 3 shows that POS had a significant effect towards all outcomes: job satisfaction ($\beta = .35$, $p < .001$), accounting for an additional 4% ($p < .01$) of the variance, organisational commitment ($\beta = .40$, $p < .01$) for an additional 5% ($p < .01$), turnover intentions ($\beta = -.37$, $p < .01$) for an additional 4% ($p < .01$), emotional exhaustion ($\beta = -.66$, $p < .001$) for an additional 14% ($p < .001$), and cynicism ($\beta = -.53$, $p < .001$) for an additional 8% ($p < .001$). These findings provide support for Hypothesis 6.

Tables 2 – 7 also show results for the mediation in step 3 with significant relationships being found between the outcomes and the predictor variable (leadership styles), indicating significant relationships with the potential mediator variable (POS).

Table 2. Regression Coefficients for Job Satisfaction

Independent Variables	Job Satisfaction		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	-.03	.04	-.01
Gender	.00	.01	-.00
Education	.17*	.13	.15*
Ethnicity	-.21*	-.18**	-.12
Tenure	.14	.08	.04
Hours worked	.07	.06	.06
Firm size	-.02	-.07	-.02
Industry	.10	-.01	-.02
Collaborative leadership		.26*	.17
Authentic leadership		.41***	.22*
Participative leadership		.01	.06
Supportive leadership		-.01	-.06
Instrumental leadership		-.01	.01
POS			.35***
R ² Change	.12*	.39***	.04**
Total R ²	.12	.50	.54
Total Adjusted R ²	.06	.45	.49
Total F Statistic	2.224*	10.091***	10.859***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001. Standardized regression coefficients, all significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 2 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on job satisfaction. Authentic leadership had a decrease in beta weight from $\beta = .41$ ($p < .001$) to $\beta = .22$ ($p < .05$). In addition, collaborative leadership went from being significant at $\beta = .26$ ($p < .05$) to being non-significant. Therefore, leadership styles were mediated by POS – fully for collaborative leadership and partially for authentic leadership.

Table 3. Regression Coefficients for Organisational Commitment

Independent Variables	Organisational Commitment		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	.06	.09	.03
Gender	.01	-.00	-.02
Education	.09	.09	.12
Ethnicity	.01	.04	.11
Tenure	.01	-.03	-.08
Hours worked	-.03	-.04	-.04
Firm size	-.10	-.17	-.12
Industry	.08	.01	.01
Collaborative leadership		.19	.10
Authentic leadership		.38**	.17
Participative leadership		.09	.12
Supportive leadership		-.18	-.24
Instrumental leadership		-.01	-.01
POS			.40**
R ² Change	.02	.22***	.05**
Total R ²	.02	.24	.29
Total Adjusted R ²	.00	.17	.21
Total F Statistic	0.418	3.182***	3.783***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Standardized regression coefficients, all significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 3 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on organisational commitment. Authentic leadership changed from being significant at $\beta = .38$ ($p < .05$) to being non-significant. Therefore, the authentic leadership style was fully mediated by POS.

Table 4. Regression Coefficients for Turnover Intentions

Independent Variables	Turnover Intentions		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	-.16	-.22**	-.17*
Gender	-.02	-.01	-.00
Education	-.11	-.07	-.09
Ethnicity	.09	.08	.02
Tenure	-.09	-.04	-.00
Hours worked	.06	.06	.05
Firm size	.18*	.19*	.14
Industry	-.09	-.02	-.00
Collaborative leadership		-.14	-.04
Authentic leadership		-.33**	-.12
Participative leadership		-.04	-.09
Supportive leadership		-.04	.02
Instrumental leadership		.10	.09
POS			-.37**
R ² Change	.09	.19***	.04**
Total R ²	.09	.29	.33
Total Adjusted R ²	.04	.22	.26
Total F Statistic	1.713	3.986***	4.474***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001. Standardized regression coefficients, all significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 4 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on turnover intentions. Authentic leadership went from being significant at $\beta = -.33$ ($p < .05$) to being non-significant. Therefore, leadership styles were fully mediated by POS.

Table 5. Regression Coefficients for Emotional Exhaustion

Independent Variables	Emotional Exhaustion		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	-.13***	-.19*	-.11
Gender	-.04	-.05	-.03
Education	.04	.08	.05
Ethnicity	.02	-.02	-.13
Hours worked	-.02	.03	.11
Tenure	.01	.02	.02
Firm size	.13	.16	.07
Industry	-.05	.04	.056
Collaborative leadership		-.027	.15
Authentic leadership		-.356**	.01
Participative leadership		-.129	-.21
Supportive leadership		-.016	.08
Instrumental leadership		-.008	-.03
POS			-.66***
R ² Change	.03	.23***	.14***
Total R ²	.03	.27	.40
Total Adjusted R ²	-.02	.19	.34
Total F Statistic	.598	3.689***	6.310***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001. Standardized regression coefficients, all

significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 5 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on emotional exhaustion. Authentic leadership went from being significant at $f\beta = -.356$ ($p < .01$) to being non-significant. Therefore, leadership styles are fully mediated by POS.

Table 6. Regression Coefficients for Cynicism

Independent Variables	Cynicism		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	-.07	-.13	-.07
Gender	-.13	-.13	-.11
Education	-.01	.01	-.01
Ethnicity	.11	.07	-.02
Hours worked	-.17	-.10	-.03
Tenure	.05	.06	.06
Firm size	.07	.13	.06
Industry	-.06	.04	.06
Collaborative leadership		-.34**	-.21
Authentic leadership		-.41***	-.12
Participative leadership		-.08	-.16
Supportive leadership		.24*	.33**
Instrumental leadership		-.07	-.07
POS			-.53***
R ² Change	.07	.39***	.08***
Total R ²	.07	.46	.55
Total Adjusted R ²	.02	.41	.50
Total F Statistic	1.271	8.507***	10.984***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p< .001. Standardized regression coefficients, all significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 6 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on cynicism. Collaborative leadership went from being significant at $\beta = -.34$ ($p < .01$) to non-significant. Similarly, authentic leadership went from being significant at $\beta = -.41$ ($p < .001$) to non-significant. In addition, supportive leadership had an increase in beta weight from $\beta = .24$ ($p < .05$) to $\beta = .33$ ($p < .01$). Therefore, two leadership styles (collaborative and authentic) are fully

mediated by POS, while POS has no mediating affects whatsoever on the influence of supportive leadership and cynicism. Furthermore, the *positive* direction of the relationship between supportive leadership and cynicism is against that expected and might suggest a spurious result. This is further supported by the correlations between supportive leadership and cynicism being significant and negative.

Table 7. Regression Coefficients for Cultural Wellbeing

Independent Variables	Cultural Wellbeing		
	Step 1 Controls	Step 2 Leadership styles	Step 3 Mediator: POS
Age	-.11	-.07	-.10
Gender	.01	-.01	-.01
Education	.14	.13	.14
Ethnicity	-.14	-.10	-.06
Hours worked	.16	.09	.07
Tenure	.12	.10	.11
Firm size	-.12	-.15*	-.12
Industry	.06	-.06	-.07
Collaborative leadership		.36**	.30*
Authentic leadership		.20	.08
Participative leadership		.06	.09
Supportive leadership		-.07	-.11
Instrumental leadership		.04	.05
POS			.23
R ² Change	.09	.28***	.02
Total R ²	.09	.37	.38
Total Adjusted R ²	.04	.30	.32
Total F Statistic	1.653	5.730***	5.685***

*p<.05, **p<.01, ***p<.001. Standardized regression coefficients, all significance tests were two-tailed.

Table 7 shows that POS mediates the influence of leadership styles on cultural wellbeing. Collaborative leadership had a decrease in beta weight from $\beta = .36$ ($p < .01$) to $\beta = .30$ ($p < .05$). However, POS is not significantly related to cultural wellbeing; therefore POS cannot be viewed as having any mediation effects on leadership styles and cultural wellbeing.

10.3 Conclusion

In conclusion, this present study successfully provided empirical analysis with all significant results via the above mentioned descriptive analysis and hierarchical regression with a sample size of 212 in Auckland's culturally diverse organisations. These results clearly show the strong relationship between the five leadership styles and six employee outcomes, especially authentic leadership and collaborative leadership which showed to be the most significant; however, authentic leadership influences employee outcomes more effectively than collaborative leadership. Furthermore, it shows the important role of POS as a mediator acting between leadership styles and employee outcomes.

CHAPTER 11

DISCUSSIONS AND CONCLUSIONS

11.1 Introduction

There were two major focuses of the present study: (1) the direct effects of leadership styles on employee outcomes, and (2) the mediation of POS between leadership styles and employee outcomes. Results reported from this present study were significant and supported previous findings and proposed new directions of research.

Previous literature found leadership styles influence employee job outcomes. For example, Skakon et al. (2010) found leadership styles have a positive influence on employee stress and well-being. They found, too, that transformational leadership has a negative link to employee stress and a positive influence towards employee affective well-being. This finding was supported by previous literature, namely that of Bass (1999) and Yukl (1989). With a cross-sectional survey design of a sample of 233 nursing faculties, based on transformational and transactional leadership theory, Shieh, Mills and Waltz (2001) found that idealized influence, intellectual stimulation, and contingent reward leadership styles significantly and positively related to job satisfaction. On the other hand, active management-by-exception was found to be significant and negatively related to job satisfaction. Therefore, they suggested that nursing leaders should implement effective leadership styles.

However, the above mentioned studies had a limitation in that they did not examine different leadership theories to draw out further persuasive results. Indeed, the leadership literature is dominated by single or dual theory approaches to leadership. Therefore, based on the existing literature, in order to provide further precise findings, I tested my research questions by examining five distinct leadership styles: (1) authentic leadership, (2) collaborative leadership, (3) participative leadership, (4) supportive leadership and (5) instrumental leadership. In this regard, the present study improves on a number of leadership studies by examining multiple dimensions of leadership styles towards a broad range of employee outcomes.

The following discussion is to deepen understanding of the present study's findings. Its outline is based on responding to the two research questions, but the sequence of its presentation will start with the most significant results.

11.2 The direct influence of leadership styles on employee outcomes

The first research question stated “Do leadership styles influence employee outcomes?” I begin with Hypothesis 2 (authentic leadership) because ultimately this is the most dominant predictor.

This aligned with Hypothesis 2, which suggested authentic leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisational commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to

detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism). In line with Hypothesis 2, authentic leadership was found to be positively related to job satisfaction and organisational commitment, and negatively related to turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion and cynicism. In addition, authentic leadership has been significantly related to most employee outcomes, and showed its leading role in predicting employee outcomes when compared with the four other leadership styles.

These results towards authentic leadership and its outcomes were consistent with the previously conducted research and support prior findings in other contexts. For example, in their research with a random sample size of 248 registered nurses working in hospitals in Ontario in Canada, Wong and Laschinger (2013) found that authentic leadership influenced job satisfaction, and furthermore, its finding contributed to literature in supporting the similar findings of Avolio and Gardner (2005). Another existing study also supported the findings of this present research. Laschinger, Wong and Grau (2013) conducted their research using secondary data from two studies conducted with registered nurses practising in hospitals in Ontario. They found authentic leadership significantly and negatively influenced emotional exhaustion and cynicism through workplace empowerment.

Overall, being different from previous literatures, especially by testing five leadership styles, the findings of this present study are not just limited to the one industry - health care - but can also be applied to other industries where

there is a relationship between employees and their leaders or managers. This is because a broad range of industries were targeted in this research; 57% of the sample came from the private sector, 30% from the public sector, and 13% from the not-for-profit sector. In addition, these findings make a meaningful contribution to the body of existing literature from the point of view of exploring the crucial role of authentic leadership in a multicultural environment where there are different ethnic groups working together.

The present study hypothesised that collaborative leadership would be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisation commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism). This was in line with Hypothesis 1, where collaborative leadership was positively related to job satisfaction and cultural wellbeing, and negatively related to cynicism. When investigating previous studies (see in Chapter 3), most existing literature on collaborative leadership focuses on a group process rather than individuals' influences such as employee outcomes. For example, Kramer and Crespy (2011) examined collaborative leadership via the process of the interaction behaviours of a leader and followers in order to promote collaboration in groups. Another study, by Ansell and Gash (2012), found that collaborative leadership has a positive impact on promoting creativity and managing conflicts. This present research and findings on collaborative leadership were not consistent with the previously conducted research. However, this study aims to provide a new perspective and direction of research suggesting that the role of collaborative

leadership influences each individual in groups. Overall, this present study showed significant results collected via empirical data with the hope of building persuasive findings and arguments.

One existing study found that collaborative leadership influences job satisfaction (Perry, Pearce, & Sims, 1999). Through developing a theoretical model of selling team effectiveness, they argued that shared leadership influences the job satisfaction of the selling team (Perry, et al., 1999). This present study supported the prior finding of (Perry, et al., 1999); by providing an insightful understanding into collaborative leadership theory.

Importantly, the result found that collaborative leadership positively influenced cultural wellbeing, and this result supports and contributes to previous literature by Haar and Brougham (2013). This meant when leadership is distributed among employees, the barriers among diverse cultures could be reduced and results in a higher level of cultural wellbeing. Haar and Brougham (2013) found cultural wellbeing to be the dominant predictor of cultural wellbeing, and suggested it plays an important role for understanding employees from diverse minority groups, such as Maori. This interesting result can be interpreted as if people work collaboratively in the environment of shared leadership, they will feel happier and satisfied with their job and come closer to each other. The result will be a deeper understanding and respect among cultures in the group.

The present study also hypothesised that supportive leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisation commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism). In line with these hypotheses, supportive leadership regarding employee cynicism was negative. Importantly, there has been little attention given to this leadership theory and employee outcomes such as cynicism, and as such, this adds to the literatures' development. In addition, the result in this study found that there was a *positive* direction of the relationship between supportive leadership and cynicism, which is against the hypothesis, so it might likely suggest a spurious result. This result might occur because perhaps the instrument of supportive leadership was not fully developed in prior literature, and supportive leadership did not gain much attention among organisational researchers. Therefore, this present study suggests that there may be no significant relationship between supportive leadership and cynicism. It suggests further development of research instruments for supportive leadership theory, or re-building the perspective of supportive leadership, or perhaps its measurement.

The other hypotheses (3 and 5) of the present thesis suggested that participative and instrumental leadership will be positively related to beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisation commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism). However, overall, these hypotheses were not supported by the present study since the results

showed that participative leadership and instrumental leadership did not have a direct influence on employee job outcomes. However, these results are not surprising; from the starting point of this research, I aimed to test different leadership styles to compare and evaluate which leadership style is the most influential. This is further supported by the fact that these leadership style dimensions were significantly correlated with all the employee outcomes in the expected directions.

Overall, leadership styles have a direct influence on employee outcomes. The present research provides evidence that authentic leadership was the most influential leadership style. Collaborative leadership also had a direct influence on employee outcomes; however, the results reported that its influence was weaker than that of authentic leadership.

The second research question of the present study asked whether perceived organisational support (POS) mediated the influence of leadership styles on employee job outcomes. Thus, Hypothesis 6 stated that POS will mediate the influence of leadership styles on beneficial employee outcomes (a. job satisfaction, b. organisation commitment, c. cultural wellbeing), and, negatively, on detrimental employee outcomes (d. turnover intentions, e. emotional exhaustion, f. cynicism). In line with Hypothesis 6, POS was found to mediate the influence of leadership styles on beneficial employee outcomes (job satisfaction and organisation commitment), and to be negatively related to detrimental employee outcomes (turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion and cynicism). While the majority of hypothesised mediation effects were

supported, Hypothesis 6c was not supported by this present study. This related specifically to cultural wellbeing as an employee outcome. Probably, in order to achieve greater cultural wellbeing, the perception towards the level of support received from the organisation is not a major contributor, and instead it is more about people and their relationship, the treatment and their interactions between employees from different cultures.

Previous studies generally argue that perceived organisational support has a positive and direct impact on employee outcomes (Eisenberger, et al., 1990; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Tumwesigye, 2010). The present study showed a similar result to previous studies that perceived organisational support predicts employee outcomes, which provides strong support for Hypothesis 6. These effects are discussed further below.

11.3 Direct influences of POS on employee outcomes

The results of the present study show perceived organisational support has a direct impact on job satisfaction. This finding aligns with research perceiving organisational support as a critical factor for job satisfaction (Eisenberger, et al., 1997; Shore & Tetrick, 1991). This finding supports the notion of most studies that perceived organisational support in previous literature is focused on the direct reciprocal relationship based on the social exchange theory; hence, it focuses more on job performance, organisational commitment or turnover intentions as do a significant number of prior studies (Aggarwal-Gupta, Vohra, & Bhatnagar, 2010; D. G. Allen, Shore, & Griffeth, 2003; M.

W. Allen, 1992; Eisenberger, Armeli, Rexwinkel, Lynch, & Rhoades, 2001; Hochwarter, et al., 2003; Loi, et al., 2006; Rhoades, et al., 2001).

This present study also found perceived organisational support positively influences organisational commitment and turnover intentions. These findings are consistent with the previously conducted research and support prior findings in other contexts (Eisenberger, et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002; Rhoades, et al., 2001; Shore & Tetrck, 1991). For example, Allen et al. (2003) found that POS increases organisational commitment, and negatively influences turnover intentions. In addition, in their study on 413 postal employees, Eisenberger et al. (2001) found POS was positively related to employees' affective organisational commitment (and job performance). Their research approach was consistent with organisational support theory's statement that POS strengthens affective commitment and performance by a reciprocation process (Eisenberger, et al., 2001). Similarly, research from Dobreva-Martinova (2002) found that perceived organisational support was a significant independent predictor of stress, job satisfaction, and affective commitment. Besides, similar findings were also reported by Aggarwal-Gupta, Vohra and Bhatnagar (2010) via their intensive research with a sample of 523 managers working in two large Indian organisations.

In addition, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) also suggested that POS enhanced employees' affective commitment to the organisation with feelings of belonging. Therefore, it created a force encouraging their stay, resulting in a lower rate of turnover intentions (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). By

conducting meta-analysis of 70 studies, Rhoades and Eisenberger (2002) provided comprehensive examination and findings that beneficial treatment and perceived organisational support were associated with outcomes favourable to employees (job satisfaction and positive mood), and the organisation (affective commitment, performance, and lessened turnover intentions).

Overall, the rationale of the association between the perception of organisational support and employee outcomes is derived from organisational support theory (Eisenberger, et al., 2001). The theory presumes that employees possess general beliefs about which organisations value their contributions and have concerns about their wellbeing. Based on the reciprocal relationship, such POS would bring out employees' feelings of obligation to care about the organisation's welfare; this, in turn, helps the organisation achieve its objectives. Hence, employees satisfy this indebtedness through expressing greater organisational commitment and efforts to contribute to the organisation (Eisenberger, et al., 2001; Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002).

In addition, the resource approach of social exchange theory of Foa and Foa (1980) may be also helpful to explain this relationship between POS and employee outcomes. Employees expect the organisation to grant them access to resources such as goods, information, socio-emotional support and money. In return, organisations expect similar resources to be reciprocated by employees such as extra effort, commitment, and performance which impact on the organisation's financial results (Epitropaki & Martin, 2013; Foa & Foa, 1980).

11.4 POS acting as a mediator between leadership styles and employee outcomes

Results of this present study found leadership styles had an indirect influence on job satisfaction, organisational commitment, turnover intentions and emotional exhaustion, because they were mediated by POS. The existing literature pays little attention to the mediating role of POS acting between leadership styles and employee outcomes. Therefore, the results of this present study may be considered as a contribution to add to the existing body of knowledge regarding the importance of POS in mediating leadership styles and employee outcomes. It suggests that it is crucial to have a suitable leadership style in place at work, but POS is also crucial to enhance a workplace environment and leadership effectiveness. For instance, a line manager is perhaps a great authentic leader or at a high level of collaborative leadership. However, if his employees do not feel they are receiving adequate support from the organisation, psychologically they will not be performing at their full capacity. The result will be a lower level of job satisfaction, organisational commitment or job performance, and a higher rate of turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion or cynicism.

This present study reported that POS mediated the relationship between collaborative leadership and the two outcomes (job satisfaction and cynicism), and between authentic leadership and the four outcomes (organisational commitment, turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion, and cynicism). In addition, as shown in the result – Table 6 - one interesting result is that

supportive leadership has a positive correlation with cynicism when POS entered in step 3 as a mediator. As is to be expected, an effective leadership style will eliminate or lessen the level of cynicism, which means the relationship should be negative rather than positive. This spurious result occurred because there might be perhaps a duplicated factor – the factor of “support”. Supportive leadership can be explained as one of the sources creating perceived organisational support in the workplace. Therefore, it may be more meaningful to examine how supportive leadership mediates the influence of POS on employee outcomes rather than the examination in this present study.

Several researchers have examined the mediating or moderating role of POS. One is Epitropaki and Martin (2013) who found that POS is an important moderator in the relationship between transformational-transactional leadership and employees' choice of upward influence tactics. In addition, Hochwarter et al. (2003) found that POS acted as a mediator of the relationship between politics perceptions and work outcomes such as job satisfaction, performance, affective commitment and job-induced tension.

In addition, with questionnaire data collected from 244 university employees, Allen (1992) found that POS mediated the relationship between co-worker communication and organisational commitment. Similarly, Loi, Hang-Yue and Foley (Loi, et al., 2006) reported that POS played an important role mediating the relationship between employees' justice perceptions and organisational commitment or turnover intentions.

Through investigating the existing literature on POS, I found that it has been of great interest to researchers to employ POS as a test of the mediating role of POS between two factors. Although there has not been found an existing research showing the mediating role of POS towards the relationship between the leadership styles presented in this study and employee outcomes, I believe that my research approach has been consistent with existing literature by using POS as an effective mediator in this present study.

11.5 Conclusions

In evaluating the evidence for the two research questions, I found significant support for the proposition that specific leader styles are associated with employee outcomes and mediated by POS. Leadership styles, in particular authentic leadership and collaborative leadership, have positive influences on beneficial employee outcomes (job satisfaction, organisation commitment and cultural wellbeing), and significant and negative influences on detrimental employee outcomes (turnover intentions, emotional exhaustion and cynicism) in ethnically diverse organisations. In addition, this study tested the mediating variable – POS to provide an insight into the relationship of leadership styles and employee outcomes. Overall, despite being significantly correlated, there was no significant result for supportive, participative, or instrumental leadership towards any of the employee outcomes tested here. Authentic leadership showed most significant results from Table 2 to Table 7, and therefore, the present study suggests authentic leadership is the most effective leadership style in ethnically diverse organisations (the context of the study

settings). In addition, it is interesting to learn that collaborative leadership also impacts positively on cultural wellbeing. The results add to the growing body of knowledge on authentic leadership and collaborative leadership in ethnically diverse workforce settings. Practically, those academic results may suggest that managers, particularly in multicultural organisations such as are to be found in Auckland, should learn, practise and apply the components of authentic leadership and collaborative leadership when communicating and working with staff to achieve a higher level of effectiveness at work.

11. 6 Limitations and Suggestions for Future Research

According to Keyton (2006), there is no perfection in research. In addition, there is always a possibility of error and bias during the process of conducting research such as sampling and in measurement (Keyton, 2006). Therefore, this present study also has limitations. Initially, the study aims to frame this research within SMEs in New Zealand. However, due to the small number of collected questionnaires, this goal was not able to be achieved; it means the sample of 212 is inclusive of all sizes of organisations, both big and small. This limitation may lead to inaccuracies in results, because the more people in the organisation with whom the respondent interacts, the more complicated the relationship will be. In addition, the level of POS is normally more significant in smaller organisations than in larger organisations (Rhoades & Eisenberger, 2002). However, when conducting the survey, I aimed to approach ethnically diverse organisations only. In addition, it is crucial to obtain a sample representative of the population in quantitative research (Bryman & Bell,

2011). Also, representativeness can only be guaranteed with random sampling (Keyton, 2006). Due to a lack of randomness in sampling, it may be biased and not have the potential for statistical generalisation. However, it is common to use a convenient sampling technique in social research as discussed in the method chapter (Bryman & Bell, 2011). Therefore, the generalisability of this present study's findings cannot be established without replication. However, the design of the present study provides a foundation for further examination of the relationship between leadership styles (collaborative leadership and authentic leadership) and employee job outcomes such as job satisfaction, organisational commitment, cultural wellbeing, or turnover intentions. Future studies should examine the generalisability of these findings in a bigger sample size with a systematic sampling technique to increase the possibility of statistical generalisation. Moreover, as a result, there was little understanding of how authentic and collaborative leadership influences specific employee outcomes. Therefore, future research should focus on the processes linking these leadership styles and employee outcomes. Results of this present study pointed out that authentic leadership and collaborative leadership have a relationship with some specific outcomes. However, it is uncertain how this process happens. Therefore, perhaps, a qualitative or observational method should be applied to explore further these relationships.

In addition, future research can use approaches beyond the cross-sectional approach of the current study – for example, using an observational method to avoid one single source of data (Bryman & Bell, 2011). This method allows researchers to compare different population groups at a single point in time.

The researchers should measure how the process of leadership styles influences employee outcomes. Furthermore, research on leadership styles and employee outcomes could be expanded by using longitudinal approaches with larger samples and method triangulations including qualitative methods (Bryman, 2006; Voss, Tsikriktsis, & Frohlich, 2002). It could be helpful to understand the complexity of the association between leadership and employee outcomes. Ideally, a longitudinal approach would have been preferred for this present study. However, it was impossible to carry out such an approach within the limited timeframe of a master thesis.

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Appendix A: Survey questionnaires

EMPLOYEE SURVEY: All responses are confidential and your name is not required.

PLEASE ANSWER THE FOLLOWING (CIRCLE/INSERT) & THEN CONTINUE ON THE FOLLOWING PAGES.

Age:	Gender: Male / Female	Married/De Facto? Yes / No	Ethnicity:
Parent? Yes / No	If Yes, number kids under 18 yrs:		Total hours worked per week:
How long (in years – round up) have you worked...		In your organization?	In your current job?
Highest education completed:		Your occupation: manual / non-manual / both	
What industry do you work in? Private / Public / Not-for-Profit		Total number of employees in your firm:	

Please circle the number that best represents your opinion relating to the following goals or aspirations that you hope to accomplish over the course of your life.

	Strongly Agree Agree Neither Disagree or Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree				
	Strongly Agree Agree Neither Disagree or Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree				
	Strongly Agree Agree Neither Disagree or Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree				
Most days I am enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5
I feel fairly satisfied with my present job	1	2	3	4	5
Each day at work seems like it will never end	1	2	3	4	5
I find real enjoyment in my work	1	2	3	4	5
I consider my job rather unpleasant	1	2	3	4	5
I would be very happy to spend the rest of my career with this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
I really feel as if this organisation's problems are my own.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel a strong sense of "belonging" to my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel "emotionally attached" to this organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
I do not feel like "part of the family" at my organisation.	1	2	3	4	5
This organisation has a great deal of personal meaning for me.	1	2	3	4	5
I am thinking about leaving my organization	1	2	3	4	5
I am planning to look for a new job	1	2	3	4	5
I intend to ask people about new job opportunities	1	2	3	4	5
I don't plan to be at my organisation much longer	1	2	3	4	5
I would change my regional location if that would help me find a new job	1	2	3	4	5

The following questions relate to your own ethnic culture...

	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
I am enthusiastic about my culture in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
I find real enjoyment in my culture in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
I feel satisfied about my understanding of my culture in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
I am happy being myself culturally in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5
In most ways, I am satisfied with my culture in my workplace	1	2	3	4	5

Read the following statements and by circling the number, indicate the extent to which you experience the following statements:

	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
	Always A few times a week A few times a month A few times a year Never				
I feel emotionally drained from my work	1	2	3	4	5
I feel used up at the end of the workday	1	2	3	4	5
I feel tired when I get up in the morning and have to face another day on the job	1	2	3	4	5
Working all day is really a strain for me	1	2	3	4	5
I feel burned out from my work	1	2	3	4	5
I have become less interested in my work since I started this job	1	2	3	4	5
I have become less enthusiastic about my work	1	2	3	4	5
I have become more cynical about whether my work contributes anything	1	2	3	4	5
I doubt the significance of my work	1	2	3	4	5

EMPLOYEE SURVEY: All responses are confidential and your name is not required.

I just want to do my job and not be bothered	1	2	3	4	5	Strongly Agree Agree Neither Disagree or Agree Disagree Strongly Disagree
Please indicate how often you engage in the following behaviours...						
	All of the Time	Most of the Time	Much of the Time	Some of the Time	Never	
Helps others who have been absent	1	2	3	4	5	
Willingly give their time to help others who have work-related problems	1	2	3	4	5	
Goes out of the way to make newer employees feel welcome in their work group	1	2	3	4	5	
Assists others with their duties	1	2	3	4	5	
Attends functions that are not required but that help the organizational image	1	2	3	4	5	
Defends the organization when other employees criticize it	1	2	3	4	5	
Shows pride when representing the organization in public	1	2	3	4	5	
Expresses loyalty toward the organization	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>The following survey items refer to your leader's style, as you perceive it. Judge how frequently each statement fits his or her leadership style.</i>						
	Frequently, if not always	Fairly often	Sometimes	Once in a while	Not at all	
My leader...						
Says exactly what he or she means	1	2	3	4	5	
Admits mistakes when they are made	1	2	3	4	5	
Encourages everyone to speak their mind	1	2	3	4	5	
Tells you the hard truth	1	2	3	4	5	
Displays emotions exactly in line with feelings	1	2	3	4	5	
Demonstrates beliefs that are consistent with actions	1	2	3	4	5	
Makes decisions based on his or her core values	1	2	3	4	5	
Asks you to take positions that support your core values	1	2	3	4	5	
Makes difficult decisions based on high standards of ethical conduct	1	2	3	4	5	
Solicits views that challenge his or her deeply held positions	1	2	3	4	5	
Analyzes relevant data before coming to a decision	1	2	3	4	5	
Listens carefully to different points of view before coming to conclusions	1	2	3	4	5	
Seeks feedback to improve interactions with others	1	2	3	4	5	
Accurately describes how others view his or her capabilities	1	2	3	4	5	
Knows when it is time to reevaluate his or her positions on important issues	1	2	3	4	5	
Show he or she understands how specific actions impact others	1	2	3	4	5	
<i>Please indicate the extent to which the following statements are true of the Chief Executive Officer (or equivalent) of your company by circling the appropriate answer (disagree-agree)</i>						

THANK YOU FOR YOUR TIME!! ☺

Appendix B: Invitation letter

Dear employee

My name is Ruby and I am conducting my Master's thesis research on employees and their work experiences. Your participation involves completing the following survey, which is expected to take most people approximately 12 minutes to complete. Your participation in the research is completely voluntary. Please be assured that any responses will be treated with the utmost confidentiality and we are collecting no names, hence, you will never be personally identified. Only aggregate data will be used in the analysis. If you have any questions or concerns about this study, please contact my supervisor Professor Jarrod Haar (j.haar@massey.ac.nz) and remember – your name is not required. Thank you for your support. Ruby ☺

This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research. If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director, Research Ethics, telephone 06 350 5249, email humanethics@massey.ac.nz.

Yours sincerely



Ruby Nguyen
Phone: 022-600-9003
Email: ruby.nguyen611@gmail.com

Appendix C: Email correspondence

RE: (From Ruby) An request on participating in the survey - Message (HTML)

You replied on 27/09/2013 9:23 a.m.

From: Millie Liang [mailto:millie@millieliang.co.nz]
To: Ruby Nguyen'
Cc:
Subject: RE: (From Ruby) An request on participating in the survey

Dear Ruby, all agents work as contractor, none of us are employees.

All the best for your study.

Best Regards,

Millie Liang 

DDI 09 375 8440 | MOB 021 968 128 | FAX 09 309 9404 | SKYPE millie-liang| QQ 1945234446 | Wechat ID millieliang168

From: Ruby Nguyen [mailto:ruby.nguyen.611@gmail.com]
Sent: Thursday, September 26, 2013 9:40 PM
To: millie@millieliang.co.nz
Subject: (From Ruby) An request on participating in the survey
Importance: High

Dear Millie

Thank you very much for your support always.

This year I am engaging in the 120 credit Master's thesis at Massey University.

This is an interesting research topic on leadership, especially in New Zealand where diversity is an alarming topic.

Although cultural diversity may create a gap in communication via misunderstanding of culture among different ethnic group, it would be a great advantage for New Zealand organisations to have suitable leadership to expand the strength of cultural diversity at workplace.

Therefore, this survey is to explore "how leadership influences employee outcomes" moderating by perceived organisational support and cultural wellbeing at workplace as the following link:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/76y6YH6>

Appendix D: Email-reminder

An request on participating in the INTERESTING survey - Message (HTML)

This message was sent with High importance.
Click here to download pictures. To help protect your privacy, Outlook prevented automatic download of some pictures in this message.

From: Ruby Nguyen [ruby.nguyen.611@gmail.com]
To: 'Ruby Nguyen'
Cc: An request on participating in the INTERESTING survey
Subject: An request on participating in the INTERESTING survey

Dear All

*May I apologise for sending this reminder. Please ignore this email if you have participated in the survey.
Also, please do not hesitate to let me know if you will not be able to participate in the survey.*

This year I am engaging in the 120 credit Master's thesis at Massey University.

This is an interesting research topic on leadership, especially in New Zealand where diversity is an alarming topic.

Although cultural diversity may create a gap in communication via misunderstanding of culture among different ethnic group, it would be a great advantage for New Zealand organisations to have suitable leadership to expand the strength of cultural diversity at workplace.

Therefore, this survey is to explore "how leadership influences employee outcomes" moderating by perceived organisational support and cultural wellbeing at workplace as the following link:

<https://www.surveymonkey.com/s/76Y6YH6>

It would take approximately 10-12 minutes to complete this survey. This survey is really important to me as to produce a good research toward my Master degree and further studies in the future.

Therefore, it would be greatly appreciated if you can kindly help complete this survey, further send this link to your friends and network.

I am looking forward to complete this survey in the first week of October, and hope to have around 300 response for this survey. Therefore, I am very looking forward to your supportive time and effort in participating in this survey.

Once again thank you very much for your great help in advance, and I look forward to hearing from you

Kind regards
Ruby

Appendix E: Low Risk Notification



**MASSEY UNIVERSITY
ALBANY**

19 September 2013
Ruby Nguyen
1520/21 Whitaker Place
Auckland 1010

Dear Ruby
Re: Leadership Influence on Followers

Thank you for your Low Risk Notification which was received on 9 September 2013.

Your project has been recorded on the Low Risk Database which is reported in the Annual Report of the Massey University Human Ethics Committees.

The low risk notification for this project is valid for a maximum of three years.

Please notify me if situations subsequently occur which cause you to reconsider your initial ethical analysis that it is safe to proceed without approval by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees.

Please note that travel undertaken by students must be approved by the supervisor and the relevant Pro Vice-Chancellor and be in accordance with the Policy and Procedures for Course-Related Student Travel Overseas. In addition, the supervisor must advise the University's Insurance Officer.

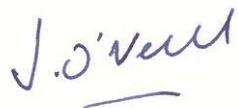
A reminder to include the following statement on all public documents:

"This project has been evaluated by peer review and judged to be low risk. Consequently, it has not been reviewed by one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. The researcher(s) named above are responsible for the ethical conduct of this research.

If you have any concerns about the conduct of this research that you wish to raise with someone other than the researcher(s), please contact Professor John O'Neill, Director (Research Ethics), telephone 06 350 5249, e-mail humanethics@massey.ac.nz".

Please note that if a sponsoring organisation, funding authority or a journal in which you wish to publish requires evidence of committee approval (with an approval number), you will have to provide a full application to one of the University's Human Ethics Committees. You should also note that such an approval can only be provided prior to the commencement of the research.

Yours sincerely

A handwritten signature in blue ink that reads "J. O'Neill". The "J." is at the top left, followed by "O'Neill" on the right, with a horizontal line underneath the entire name.

John G O'Neill (Professor)
Chair, Human Ethics Chairs' Committee and
Director (Research Ethics)

cc Prof J Haar
School of Management
Albany campus

Prof S Leberman HOS
School of Management
Turitea