

Tough Leaders?

The Role of Leader/Follower Gender and Leadership Style on Leadership Effectiveness

ABSTRACT

Addressing inconclusive findings in the relational demography and role congruity literature, this study examined the conditions under, and the processes by which gender affects leadership effectiveness. Grounding the analysis in the Social Identity Theory of Leadership (SITL), it was hypothesised that leader gender affects leadership effectiveness via leadership group prototypicality contingent on leadership style (directive versus participative) and follower gender. Data was collected from 126 employees in the services sector in Lebanon and Germany. As hypothesized, moderated mediation analyses showed that female leaders who engaged in directive leadership with their male followers were more prototypical and ultimately more effective than male leaders who engaged in equivalent behaviour; however, the study did not find support for the idea that male leaders were more prototypical and effective than female leaders when they engaged in participative leadership with their male followers. Implications for theory and practice are discussed.

Keywords: Gender, leadership group prototypicality, leadership styles, leadership effectiveness

INTRODUCTION

Understanding the impact of leader gender on follower perceptions of leadership effectiveness is particularly important in our current times as the representation of female leaders in what are stereotypically masculine roles increases, albeit at an incremental rate (Catalyst, 2016a, 2016b). As female leaders continue to face diverse barriers to entry at top leadership positions, when compared to males, they occupy merely 4.2% of chief executive officers of S&P companies and only 19.2% of board level members (Catalyst, 2016b). The fact that female leaders are less likely to be appointed in key leadership positions while are more likely to find themselves in precarious leadership roles that are almost ‘destined’ to fail (Ryan & Haslam, 2005; Ryan, Haslam, Hersby, & Bongiorno, 2011) begs the question of whether female leaders are considered as effective as male leaders.

A plethora of research has addressed the relationship between gender and leadership effectiveness at both the individual (for meta-analyses, see Eagly, Karau, & Makhijani, 1995; Paustian-Underdahl, Walker, & Woehr, 2014) and the dyadic level (Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989); (dis)similarity between a leader and their follower. The first stream is grounded in the relational demography literature which looked at the effectiveness of leaders at the dyadic level (Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989). Two theoretical frameworks dominated the discussions; namely the similarity-attraction paradigm (Byrne, 1971) and the more comprehensive self-categorization theory (Turner, Hogg, Oakes, Reicher, & Wetherell, 1987). Though via different mechanisms, the main contention of both approaches is that similarity between leaders and followers yields positive outcomes while dissimilarity yields negative outcomes (Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989; Vecchio & Bullis, 2001). However, empirical evidence in the relational demography approach is mixed and fails to provide a clear indication as to how and when male and female leaders are most effective (e.g., Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Loi & Ngo, 2009; Tsui & O’Reilly, 1989; Varma & Stroh, 2001; Vecchio & Bullis, 2001).

Role congruity theory (Eagly & Karau, 2002) is the second stream of research that examined the impact of gender and focuses specifically on the role of female leaders. Predominantly, the theory postulates that female leaders are only successful to the extent to which the leadership role is congruent with their gender stereotypes. While meta-analytic evidence points to no difference in the effectiveness of male and female leaders per se (Eagly, Makhijani, & Klonsky, 1992), a fine-grained analysis showed that across a range of predominantly masculine leadership roles, female leaders were rated as less effective than their male counterparts (Eagly et al., 1992; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). And while the majority of leadership roles are engraved with masculine stereotypes (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Koenig, Eagly, Mitchell, & Ristikari, 2011), role congruity and other related theories do not offer any other factors that can explain when female leaders are as effective as male leaders (Eagly & Karau, 2002). Moreover, several tenets underlying role congruity theory, namely that female leaders would be better rated than male leaders in female-typed jobs, that male raters would prefer male leaders, and that female leaders would be considered less effective in business settings, have been refuted in a recent meta-analysis on gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014). Additionally, recent studies have shown that female leaders were more effective than male leaders when they divert from their communal norm and engage in agentic behavior (e.g., Amanatullah & Tinsley, 2013; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Rosette & Tost, 2010) providing contrasting evidence to the role congruity theory.

The lack of a comprehensive theoretical framework that can explain what female leaders need to exhibit to be effective in leadership roles necessitates an approach that can explain how and when female leaders can be endorsed. This research addresses this gap in the literature by grounding the analysis in the social identity theory of leadership (SITL) (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) which offers a plausible way forward. SITL hinges

on the extent to which leaders are considered prototypical – that is, embodying the attitudes, attributes, and behavior of the group – which in turn leads to leadership effectiveness (Hogg, van Knippenberg, & Rast, 2012; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). What SITL further implies is that originally non-prototypical leaders can engage in an array of behaviors that would eventually cast them as prototypical (e.g., van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). While SITL postulates that leadership group prototypicality does not have to encompass demographic characteristics (van Knippenberg, 2011), having a female leader in an organizational leadership role that is predominantly male, as well as with male-like organizational behavioral norms is often a barrier to perceiving a female leader as the prototypical group member (see Hogg et al., 2006). One way of countering this may be for her to display overtly prototypical group behavior (see Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) that will allow her to shape and carve the group's identity and norms (Steffens et al., 2014). We build on this and propose female leaders can be considered prototypical, and thus endorsed, through using certain leadership styles, namely directive leadership as opposed to participative leadership.

In doing so, the study contributes to the literature on the effectiveness of female leaders by addressing the inconclusive findings of the relational demography and role congruity literature and developing a new theoretical framework that explains the conditions under, and the processes by which leader gender affects perceptions of leadership effectiveness on the basis of SITL. Putting this newly developed theoretical model to an empirical test, this study also identifies leadership style (directive versus participative) and follower gender as the boundary conditions, and leadership group prototypicality as the underlying mechanism of the leader gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness relationship. Further, this study contributes to the nascent literature on leadership group prototypicality as a mediator in explaining the effectiveness of majority and minority leaders.

THEORY AND HYPOTHESES

Two major streams of research cast attention at the gender and leadership effectiveness literature (Joshi, Neely, Emrich, Griffiths, & George, 2015). The first one is grounded in the vertical dissimilarity literature which entails the demographic differences between a leader and their followers on demographic characteristics such as gender (Tsui & Gutek, 1999; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). In this dyadic approach, results are largely inconclusive. As some studies showed a negative impact of gender dissimilarity on measures of leadership effectiveness (Duffy & Ferrier, 2003; Green, Whitten, & Medlin, 2005; Loi & Ngo, 2009; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989), others found a positive effect (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Vecchio & Brazil, 2007), while still others showed a null effect on a range of attitudinal and performance-related outcomes (e.g., Adebayo & Udegbe, 2004; Avery, Volpone, McKay, King, & Wilson, 2012; Epitropaki & Martin, 1999; Vecchio & Brazil, 2007).

Theoretical frameworks underlying the vertical dissimilarity literature have not been able to account for these inconsistent results. The predominantly used framework is Byrne's (1971) similarity-attraction paradigm which postulates that people like, and are attracted to, others who share the same demographic characteristics for this projects common life experiences, values, and beliefs (Byrne, 1971). Empirically, however, the underlying mechanisms of the similarity-attraction paradigm (positive affect & liking) did not generate consistent results across gender similarities and leadership effectiveness (Murphy & Ensher, 1999; Tsui, Egan, & O'Reilly, 1992; Varma & Stroh, 2001; Vecchio & Brazil, 2007).

Research in vertical dissimilarity has also been grounded in the social identity theory (SIT) (Ashforth & Mael, 1989; Reynolds, Turner, & Haslam, 2003; Tajfel & Turner, 1986) and its related theory – self-categorization theory (SCT) (Turner et al., 1987). The SIT and SCT stem from group membership and postulate how individuals are generally motivated to identify with groups with the aim of enhancing their self-esteem and reducing uncertainty

(Hogg & Terry, 2000; Mullin & Hogg, 1999; Turner et al., 1987). One criteria on which individuals form group membership is gender as it constitutes a salient and pervasive category (Chattopadhyay, George, & Lawrence, 2004; Riordan, 2000). Looking at the empirical evidence, gender similarity in vertical dyads does not always yield positive outcomes (e.g., Epitropaki & Martin, 2005; Farh et al., 1998; Wesolowski & Mossholder, 1997). One key reason underlying this shortcoming maybe the fact that studies focused merely on the social integration/self-enhancement motives for predicting the effects of (dis)similarity (Schaffer & Riordan, 2013) and overlooked other processes that are central in the SIT perspective, namely uncertainty reduction (Guillaume, van Knippenberg, & Brodbeck, 2014; Hogg & Mullin, 1999; Reid & Hogg, 2005). Moreover, as attested by research in SITL (Hogg, 2001; D. van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003), the effects of the dynamics between leaders and followers on work related outcomes in a group context might be better accounted for by a more fine grained analysis of the social identity processes of the leader-follower relationship.

The second stream of research examining the effectiveness of female leaders shifts focus from the dyadic perspective and looks at the overall differences in leadership effectiveness between male and female leaders. Predominantly grounded in the role congruity theory (RCT), the contention is that female leaders are effective as long as the leadership role is congruent with their gender role (Eagly & Karau, 2002). In two meta-analyses on gender and the effectiveness of leadership (Eagly et al., 1995; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014), several claims of the RCT were confirmed while numerous others were not. For example, female leaders were not rated more favourably in female-typed jobs. Instead, female leaders were rated more favourably in male-dominated positions such as business settings, and were rated slightly better than male leaders in senior positions.

Additionally, the extent to which the RCT is able to explain recent findings in the endorsement of female leaders is limited. Particularly, empirical evidence on whether backlash effects are evident if a female leader engages in agentic leadership behaviour is mixed (e.g., Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Amanatullah & Tinsley, 2013; Heilman, 2012). While the RCT postulates that as female leaders engage in agentic leadership behaviour, they are consequently evaluated as behaving less communally (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ridgeway, 2004; Rudman & Phelan, 2008) and thus deemed less effective, a study by Rosette and Tost (2010) showed that female leaders at the top of the organisational hierarchy were deemed more effective and received higher ratings on agentic and communal traits than male leaders. Similarly, in another recent study, researchers found that female leaders who engage in agentic leadership behaviour were rated as effective as their male counterparts, and emerging and over-emerging as leaders the more they engaged in agentic behaviour (Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015). Thus, neither relational demography nor RCT fully account for the effects of leader gender on leadership effectiveness. In the following, we draw on SITL to develop a new theoretical framework with the aim to more fully account for the inconclusive findings of the effects of leader gender on leadership effectiveness.

The Social Identity Theory of Leadership (SITL)

To explain when and how leaders are effective, SITL posits that first and foremost leaders are part of the groups that they lead (Hogg, 2001; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). Grounded in the SIT and SCT, SITL postulates that group members who rise and are effective in leadership positions are the ones who embody the group prototype - a fuzzy set of attributes (attitudes, feelings, and behaviours) that captures in-group similarities and out-group differences (Hogg, 2001). Highly prototypical members, having prescriptive influence over the group's prototype, occupy a leadership position and become entrepreneurs of

identity in that members look up to them to define their identity, enhance their self-esteem and reduce uncertainty (Steffens et al., 2014).

The impact of leadership group prototypicality on leadership effectiveness is widely supported (Cicero et al., 2007; Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Hirst, van Dick, & van Knippenberg, 2009; Hogg et al., 2006; Pierro et al., 2005; Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). Unlike non-prototypical leaders who have to engage in group-serving behaviours (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), group-favouring decisions (Platow & van Knippenberg, 2001), group-oriented rhetoric (Platow, van Knippenberg, Haslam, van Knippenberg, & Spears, 2006), or procedural fairness (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008) to be deemed effective, prototypical leaders are endorsed for they embody the group's identity and are perceived to care for the collective (Steffens et al., 2014).

As gender constitutes an integral aspect on how people are perceived and how effective they are regarded in leadership positions (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003; Eagly, 1987; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Gartzia, 2011; Ridgeway, 2004), in an organisational context, individuals turn to gender to form the basis for group categorization (Hogg & Terry, 2000; Mackie, Hamilton, Susskind, & Rosselli, 1996). Unlike the dissimilarity literature that emphasises gender similarity as a basis for leadership effectiveness, SITL postulates that is not gender per se that drivers leadership group prototypicality (Hogg et al., 2006; van Knippenberg, 2011). A study by Hogg et al. (2006) showed that it is not the leader's gender that informs leadership group prototypicality, rather it is the match between the gender-related impression of the leader and the group prototype whereby a good match indicates high leadership group prototypicality and a low match indicates a low leadership group prototypicality.

In taking stock of the issue of gender and SITL, one conclusion is relevant: As leadership group prototypicality does not hinge on demographic characteristics, the extent to which the held gender stereotypes matches the group prototype becomes of vital importance. In a sense, as organisational leadership roles are mostly male-typed and as traditionally held gender stereotypes are still pervasive in the workplace (Brescoll, 2016; Eagly & Heilman, 2016; Heilman, 2012), it becomes evident that a prototypical member of the group, and thus the person most likely to be endorsed in a leadership position, is either male or, more importantly, possesses male-like attributes. Unlike the RCT that merely prescribes communal behaviour for female leaders to be effective, SITL conceives of leaders not as passive subjects who are dependent on group members' evaluations alone but instead suggests that leaders are and can be entrepreneurs of the group's identity and define what is considered prototypical (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003). More specifically, research by Steffens and colleagues (2014) suggests that whether leaders are perceived to be prototypical does not only hinge on whether the leader is considered one of the group but also on whether the leader can make the group matter, craft the groups' identity and is concerned about the welfare of the group. Thus, whether a male or female leader is considered prototypical is likely to not only depend on their gender and those of their followers but also on the actions they engage in. In the following it is therefore argued that the extent to which follower and leader gender facilitate or undermine leadership effectiveness hinges on the leadership they employ and is mediated by the extent to which they are perceived to be prototypical. The conceptual framework is presented in Figure 1.

Insert Figure 1 about here

Interaction of Leader Gender, Leadership Style, and Follower Gender on Leadership Group Prototypicality

While SITL does not prescribe a specific leadership style that the leader has to exhibit, the theory postulates that followers look up to prototypical leaders and endorse them (Hogg et al., 2012). Moreover, given that previous research highlighted the role of follower gender on leader endorsement (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Eagly et al., 1995; Paustian-Underdahl et al., 2014; Powell & Butterfield, 2015b), and with a lack of consideration of how follower gender impacts on leadership group prototypicality (Hogg et al., 2006), it is necessary to account for its role.

According to the leadership literature, leadership behavior primarily resides over two orientations; one directed towards structuring followers' work processes, namely a task-oriented approach and another in which the leader engages followers in managing the work process – a relationship-oriented approach (Bass & Bass, 2008; Stogdill, 1974). On the task-oriented side lies *directive leadership* which draws on position power to gain influence (French & Raven, 1959; Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Directive leadership subsumes characteristics associated with *male-like* behavior (e.g., being dominant and controlling) and thus encompasses an agentic leadership behavior (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Ridgeway, 2004). On the relationship-oriented side is *participative leadership* which relies on personal power to influence followers (Yukl & Falbe, 1991). Generally, participative leadership is associated with *female-like* characteristics (e.g., being a good listener, sympathetic) and subsumes a communal leadership style that has mainly been associated with a female-stereotypical behavior (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003; Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Ridgeway, 2004).

The uncertainty reduction hypothesis (Hogg & Mullin, 1999; Reid & Hogg, 2005) underpinning SITL suggests that people are motivated to reduce uncertainty related to their

identity or the group that they identify with. Given the greater likelihood of low status and low competence attributions imbued for female leaders (as opposed to male leaders), they are hence more likely to evoke feelings of uncertainty in their followers; particularly in their male followers due to status differences (Balkwell & Berger, 1996; Chattopadhyay, George, & Ng, 2011; DiTomaso, Post, & Parks-Yancy, 2007). The felt uncertainty by male followers is not only manifest in norm uncertainty which is related to how they must behave to meet the leader's expectations (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2011) but also in instrumental uncertainty derived from the low competence attributions associated with female leaders. In that regard, male followers might exhibit doubts about the leader's ability and competence to reach work outcomes (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2011). The manifestation of uncertainty of female followers reporting to female leaders will be of lesser intensity than that experienced by male followers reporting to a female leader. While female followers will not experience norm uncertainty, they will nevertheless uphold the low leadership attributions ascribed to female leaders (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Ridgeway, 2004) and will thus be prone to experiencing instrumental uncertainty. To help reduce uncertainty, followers look to leaders whose roles imply that they enjoy a greater deal of authority to define the group's identity (Hogg, 2001; Rast et al., 2012). It has been shown that under high levels of self-uncertainty, group members prefer directive, authoritative, and even autocratic leaders (Hogg & Adelman, 2013; Hogg, et al., 2012; Rast et al., 2013). It seems plausible then to suggest that directive leadership plays a vital role in reducing follower uncertainty evoked by female leaders, in particular among male followers.

Through having a firm hold of the reins, a female leader communicates direction and competence, in particular to the male follower, which serves to attenuate uncertainty and drive a positive group identity (Mullin & Hogg, 1999; Rast, Gaffney, Hogg, & Crisp, 2012; Rast, Hogg, & Giessner, 2013). Thus, with heightened levels of uncertainty, female leaders

draw on the legitimacy of their positions to prescribe group norms and to assert their competence in driving work results, which paves the way for them to exercise directive leadership to be considered prototypical. While this refutes numerous empirical evidence showing that females are ‘backlashed’ when they engage in male-like leadership behavior (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ellemers, Rink, Derks, & Ryan, 2012; Gupta, Turban, & Bhawe, 2008), more recent evidence has shown that female leaders are better rated when they engage in agentic-like behaviors such as directive leadership (see Amanatullah & Morris, 2010; Amanatullah & Tinsley, 2013; Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Reid, Palomares, Anderson, & Bondad-Brown, 2009; Rosette & Tost, 2010).

Hypothesis 1a: Female leaders will be perceived to be more prototypical than male leaders when they exercise more directive leadership particularly with their male followers.

When the leader is male, he is more likely to be considered high status and is readily regarded as competent, legitimate, assertive, and possessing leader-like characteristics (Correll & Ridgeway, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002; Ellemers et al., 2012; Heilman, 2012; Powell & Butterfield, 2015a; Ridgeway, 2004). As such, male leaders do not have to resort to a directive leadership style to appear prototypical but are more likely to be effective if they rely on their personal power and engage in participative leadership to influence their followers (Sauer, 2011). In fact, a study by Subašić et al. (2011) showed that as leaders are considered part of the ‘in-group’, and thus prototypical, they are less tolerated when they resort to harsh power tactics for that signals a violation of trust in the leader-follower relationship which is detrimental for being considered prototypical (Rast et al., 2012; van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003; van Knippenberg, 2011). The choice of which of the follower genders participative leadership works best for begs consideration from two main perspectives. Firstly, female followers under a male leader are prone to norm uncertainty and

as people cope differently with norm and instrumental uncertainty, the choice of which leadership style works best to mitigate uncertainty is largely dependent on the gender or relative status and competence attributions of the leader (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2011). In order to attenuate her uncertainty and to learn about group norms, a female follower looks up to the male leader who is seen to embody the prototypical attributes of the group (Hogg & Terry, 2000). In this regard, and because male leaders are more likely to be considered high status, they are more effective when they engage in participative leadership style (Sauer, 2011). It could well be argued that the impact of participative leadership style – particularly when leaders draw on their personal power to prescribe the norms of the group would be more effective on female followers as opposed to male followers who are not prone to feelings of uncertainty when under a male leader. However, although they do not experience uncertainty, male followers might be more negatively affected than their female counterparts when their male leader exercises directive leadership as opposed to participative leadership: Being more likely to be considered high status themselves, male followers are more keen on being associated with male leaders as that preserves and further asserts the prototype valence of their group (Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Ely, 1994). And with males embodying the prototypical attributes of an organizational leader, it becomes more crucial for the prototypical leader, i.e., the male leader, to preserve the notions of inherent trust particularly with his male followers and engages in participative leadership (Subašić, Reynolds, Turner, Veenstra, & Haslam, 2011).

Hypothesis 1b: Male leaders will be perceived to be more prototypical than female leaders when they exercise more participative leadership particularly with their male followers.

Leadership group prototypicality as a Mediator of the Interactive Effects of Leader Gender, Leadership Style, and Follower Gender on Leadership Effectiveness

Based on SITL, we suggest further that once the leader is considered prototypical, they are likely to influence followers to reach prescribed work outcomes. SITL postulates that leadership group prototypicality is the primary reason that underlies why leaders are effective (Hogg et al., 2012; van Knippenberg, 2011) and research in leadership group prototypicality has consistently shown positive effects on leadership effectiveness including follower and organizational performance, creativity, and organizational citizenship behaviour (Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Hirst et al., 2009; Pierro et al., 2005; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005). As we have posited that female leaders exercising directive leadership with male followers will be regarded more prototypical than female leaders exercising directive leadership with female followers and that male leaders engaging in participative leadership with male followers will be perceived as more prototypical than male leaders with female followers, the result is a relationship between leader gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness, which is moderated by leadership style and follower gender, and mediated by leadership group prototypicality.

As male followers are prone to more heightened uncertainty than female followers and are known to uphold more gender stereotypic characteristics that hinder female leaders from being considered prototypical (Eagly et al., 1995, 1992; Hogg & Terry, 2000; Koenig et al., 2011), the effect of directive leadership is estimated to be more positive for them. Under these conditions, female leaders are more likely to be perceived as prototypical and to receive more favorable ratings on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. However, if a male leader engages in directive leadership, he will be perceived by both follower genders as unnecessarily relying on the power of his position (Sauer, 2011). In that case, followers are likely to negatively interpret such behavior as in being overly assertive and lacking in

competence and trust (Hogg et al., 2012; Subašić et al., 2011). Thus, when compared to a female leader, a male leader is likely to receive less favorable evaluations on leadership group prototypicality and ultimately on perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Hypothesis 2a: Leadership group prototypicality will mediate the relationship between leader gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness such that the effect will be positive and stronger for male than female followers and when the leader is female compared to male and engages in more directive leadership.

In contrast, leader gender has a positive effect on perceptions of leadership effectiveness when the leader is male and exercises participative leadership, particularly with their male followers, through a positive effect on leadership group prototypicality and a positive effect of leadership group prototypicality on perceptions of leadership effectiveness. While this effect is predicted to be positive for both follower genders, the effect on leadership group prototypicality will be stronger for male followers who are likely to experience not only a greater sense of security and competence (Ridgeway, 2004) but also a more favorable relationship with their leader (Subašić et al., 2011). The relationship is again different for female leaders; a female leader engaging in participative leadership and adopting a consultative approach might be further viewed by both follower genders as lacking in competence and not providing the norms required for the group (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Ridgeway, 2004; Sauer, 2011). As a result, when compared to a female leader, followers are more likely to consider a male leader using participative leadership prototypical which will lead to more favorable effects on perceptions of leadership effectiveness in particular with male followers

Hypothesis 2b: Leadership group prototypicality will mediate the relationship between leader gender and perceptions of leadership effectiveness such that the effect

will be positive and stronger for male than female followers and when the leader is male compared to female and engages in more participative leadership.

METHOD

Sample

Participants. One hundred and seventy-six employees from 10 small to medium sized organizations operating in the services sector in Lebanon and Germany were invited to take part in the study. Out of these, 126 employees provided usable data, constituting a response rate of 71.6%. Nine organizations are based in Lebanon and one is the German-subsiary of a US-based commodity trading firm. Of the 9 companies in Lebanon, one is in the waste-management field and provides services across the Middle East and North Africa (MENA), three provide IT and project management support to clients in Lebanon and the MENA region, one is in the manufacturing business, two provide learning and education support to Lebanese and international clients, one offers food safety consulting services in the MENA region, and one offers design consulting. The age for leaders ranged from 27 to 60 ($M = 38$, $SD = 9.2$) and 49.4% were male. Employees' age ranged from 21 to 61 ($M = 34.02$, $SD = 10.73$) and 55.6% were male.

Procedure. Followers were asked to complete an online questionnaire assessing the study variables. In detail, participants rated their leader's leadership style (directive and participative) and the extent to which they regarded their leader as prototypical. They also responded to a measure of leadership effectiveness. Moreover, followers reported demographics pertaining to age, organizational tenure, the duration they have worked with each (leader-follower tenure), along with company membership. They also reported their leader demographics. These variables were subsequently included as controls in the analyses. We controlled for leader-follower tenure as previous research has shown that that duration of acquaintance affects perceptions of leadership effectiveness (Somech, 2003). We also

controlled for leader and follower age and organizational tenure as both variables have effects on leadership effectiveness (Caldwell & O'Reilly, 1982; Collins, Hair, & Rocco, 2009; Gilbert, Collins, & Brenner, 1990; Wright & Bonett, 2002). Finally, we controlled for company membership to account for industry differences as well as differences in organizational and national culture.

In 7 of the 10 participating organizations, links to the online versions of the follower survey were sent by either the Human Resources manager or the managing director. For the remaining 3 companies, links were sent separately to the followers by an HR administrator. For data collection in Lebanon, the scales were kept in their English versions. Being established as a multilingual society, Lebanon uses Arabic, French, and English in its daily communication with the latter being predominant in the economic, education, and social domains (Shaaban, 2005; Shaaban & Ghaith, 2002). As for data collection in Germany, scales that were not readily available in their German versions were translated by a German native speaker and back translated by another 2 native speakers in order to ensure its validation and effective use in a cross-cultural context (Behling & Law, 2000; Cha, Kim, & Erlen, 2007). While keeping in mind that back-translation might not be sufficient to ensure cross-cultural validity (Beaton, Bombardier, Guillemin, & Ferraz, 2000), reviewing the items in the scales did not reveal discrepancies and misconceptions between the German respondents and the Lebanese ones. In addition, cross-cultural validity problems were considered unlikely for the constructs used in this study such as leadership group prototypicality and directive and participative leadership, have been studied in numerous cultures (e.g., Cicero et al., 2007; Hogg et al., 2006; Kahai et al., 2004; Rast et al., 2013; Somech, 2003). Participating employees were allowed to complete the surveys during their working hours.

Measures

Independent variables. Followers reported theirs and their leader's gender on a binary item with 0 = males and 1 = female. Directive (Pearce & Sims Jr, 2002) and participative leadership (Arnold, Arad, Rhoades, & Drasgow, 2000) were each measured by a 6-item scale. A sample item includes "My team leader sets the goals for my performance" ($\alpha = .84$) and "My team leader listens to my ideas and suggestions" ($\alpha = .71$).

Dependent variables. Leadership group prototypicality was measured by a 3-item scale (van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005) ($\alpha = .85$). A sample item is "My team leader represents what is characteristic about my team". Perceptions of leadership effectiveness was measured by an 8-item scale adapted from the Multifactor Leadership Questionnaire (MLQ) (Avolio & Bass, 1997). A sample item is "My leader is effective in meeting my job-related needs" ($\alpha = .93$). Responses on all scales were scored on a 5-point rating scale.

Control variables. Followers were asked to report theirs and their leader's age and organizational tenure in years. They were also asked to report, in years, the duration with which they worked with each other. Finally, company membership was dummy coded with 0 = respective company and 1 = all other companies. As a result, 9 dummy coded variables were generated.

Analysis method

Hypotheses 1a and 1b were tested using hierarchical linear regressions. Following the recommendations of Dawson (2014), all variables except the dependent variables and leader/follower gender were mean centered. In step 1 of the analysis, follower and leader age, organizational tenure, leader-follower tenure, and company membership were entered as control variables. In step 2, leader gender, follower gender, and participative and directive leadership were added. In step 3, interaction terms between leader gender and follower

gender, and leader/follower gender and each of the leadership styles were added. The 3-way interaction term was entered in the final step. The 3-way interaction terms for each of participative and directive leadership were separately tested to avoid possible collinearity between predictors (J. Dawson, personal communication, April 29th, 2016). Simple slope tests were used to probe for the direction of significance (Preacher, Curran, & Bauer, 2006; Wilkinson & Force, 2003). Hypotheses 2a and 2b were tested using bias corrected bootstrapping procedures recommended for testing moderated mediation (Preacher & Hayes, 2008; Preacher, Rucker, & Hayes, 2007). A 10,000 bootstrap resample was used for the analyses.

RESULTS

Means, standard deviations, and intercorrelations for all variables are presented in Table 1.

Insert Table 1 around here

Hypothesis 1. Prior to testing hypotheses 1a and 1b which predict the nature of the 3-way interaction, we ran a hierarchical regression for the relationship between leader gender and leadership group prototypicality contingent on leadership styles and follower gender. Results revealed a significant 3-way interaction between leader gender, participative leadership, and follower gender, with $\beta = -1.04$, $SE = .61$, $t = -1.7$, $p^1 = < .1$ and between leader gender, directive leadership, and follower gender with $\beta = -.56$, $SE = .33$, $t = -1.71$, $p = < .1$. In order to test whether the direction of the hypothesized relationship is in line with hypotheses 1a and 1b, simple slope tests were conducted at +/- 1SD and +/- 2SD of the continuous moderator (participative and directive leadership) (Dawson, 2014; Preacher et al., 2006). Hypothesis 1a stated that female compared to male leaders will be perceived to be

¹ The marginal significance threshold of $p < .1$ is commonly used in the leadership and gender literature (e.g., Amanatullah & Tinsley, 2013; Brescoll, 2012; Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008)

more prototypical when they use a high rather than low directive leadership style and that this will be further pronounced for male versus female followers.

The 3-way interaction is depicted in Figure 2. In line with hypothesis 1a, female leaders are perceived to be more prototypical than male leaders when they use a higher rather than lower directive leadership style which is more pronounced for male than for female followers. While simple slope tests did not differ from zero for +/- 1SD of the value of directive leadership (- 1SD, for male followers: $b = -.51$, $SE = .31$, $p = n.s.$, for female followers: $b = -.34$, $SE = .25$, $p = n.s.$; + 1SD, for male followers: $b = .42$, $SE = .25$, $p = n.s.$, for female followers: $b = -.36$, $SE = .28$, $p = n.s.$), they significantly differed from zero at +/- 2SD of directive leadership with $b = -.96$, $SE = .46$, $p < .05$ for male followers and $b = -.33$, $SE = .38$, $p = n.s.$ for female followers under -2SD of directive leadership and $b = .88$, $SE = .39$, $p < .05$ for male followers and $b = -.36$, $SE = .42$, $p = n.s.$ for female followers under +2SD of directive leadership. Results thus indicate that male followers considered female leaders more prototypical than male leaders when they exercised more directive leadership thus supporting hypothesis 1a.

Hypothesis 1b proposed that male leaders with male followers will be perceived to be more prototypical than female leaders when they exercise participative leadership. Simple slope tests did not significantly differ from zero for +/- 1SD and +/- 2SD of participative leadership (-1SD, for male followers: $b = -.33$, $SE = .34$, $p = n.s.$, for female followers: $b = -.21$, $SE = .26$, $p = n.s.$; +1SD, for male followers: $b = .37$, $SE = .3$, $p = n.s.$, for female followers: $b = -.52$, $SE = .28$, $p = n.s.$; -2SD: for male followers: $b = -.71$, $SE = .57$, $p = n.s.$; for female followers: $b = -.05$, $SE = .4$, $p = n.s.$; +2SD: for male followers: $b = .74$, $SE = .52$, $p = n.s.$; for female followers: $b = -.68$, $SE = .43$, $p = n.s.$). Thus, hypothesis 1b was not supported.

Insert Figure 2 around here

Hypothesis 2. Hypothesis 2a predicted that leadership group prototypicality will mediate the relationship between leader gender and leadership effectiveness such that the effect will be positive and stronger for male followers when the leader is female compared to male and engages in more directive leadership. Moderated mediation analyses for hypothesis 2a were run for +/- 1SD and +/- 2SD of the value of directive leadership; results are displayed in Table 2. We found that under high levels of directive leadership (+2SD), leadership group prototypicality mediated the interactive effects of leader gender, follower gender, and directive leadership on perceptions of leadership effectiveness such that the effects were positive and stronger for male followers than for female followers when the leader is female compared to male. On the other hand, we found that when the female engaged in low levels of directive leadership (-2SD), the effect on male followers was significant but negative. Hypothesis 2a was supported.

Insert Table 2 around here

Hypothesis 2b predicted that leadership group prototypicality will mediate the relationship between leader gender and leadership effectiveness such that the effect will be positive and stronger for male followers when the leader is male compared to male and engages in more participative leadership. Analyses (presented in Table 2) show that leadership group prototypicality did not mediate the interactive effects of leader gender, participative leadership, and follower gender on leadership effectiveness and therefore, hypothesis 2b was not supported.

DISCUSSION

In order to explain how and when female leaders can be effective in what are typically male-leadership positions (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Gupta et al., 2008; Heilman, 2012; Koenig

et al., 2011), we grounded the analysis in SITL (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) and explained the effect of leader gender on leadership effectiveness through leadership group prototypicality. We predicted that the interaction between leader gender, leadership styles (directive vs. participative) and follower gender influences perceptions of leadership group prototypicality which in turn paves the way for leadership effectiveness. Particularly, we hypothesized that female (male) leaders who engage in directive (participative) leadership will drive leadership effectiveness through being perceived more prototypical than her (his) male (female) counterpart; this effect will particularly be pronounced for male followers. While we did not find support for the effectiveness of male leaders, our findings regarding the female leader by and large support the hypotheses.

The results of the 3-way interaction assert that female leaders who exercise directive leadership are perceived more prototypical than male leaders particularly when leading male followers. Contrary to previous research which posited that male followers more harshly scrutinize female leaders especially when the latter violate their stereotypically-accepted leadership behavior (Eagly & Johnson, 1990; Eagly et al., 1992), our findings reveal the opposite and thus point to a new direction guided by SITL (van Knippenberg & Hogg, 2003) and the underpinning uncertainty reduction hypothesis (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2011; Hogg & Mullin, 1999; Reid & Hogg, 2005) in looking at the effectiveness of female leaders. In the female leader – male follower relationship, follower uncertainty is likely to be manifest in the form of norm and instrumental uncertainty. Under such heightened levels of uncertainty, followers yearn for a leader who prescribes, rather than consults, on group norms and behavior (Rast et al., 2012, 2013). Evidently, male followers in the study perceived the female leader as being prototypical of the group the more she engaged in directive leadership. Interestingly, as the levels of directive leadership exercised by the female leader dropped, male followers' perceptions of the female's leadership group prototypicality dropped which

further bolsters our argument. In addition, behaving counter-stereotypically in a leadership role (i.e., a female leader engaging in directive leadership) is likely to have a stronger impact on male followers who endorse gender stereotypes more than female followers (Brescoll, Uhlmann, Moss-Racusin, & Sarnell, 2012; Eagly et al., 1992; Koenig et al., 2011) likely so because they experience greater uncertainty.

The relationship between female followers and female leaders was starkly different to that with male followers. The pattern of the results do not divert from research on how female followers evaluate leaders per se, and female leaders in particular. As found by other researchers (Brescoll et al., 2012; Eagly et al., 1992), female leaders did not exhibit a preference for either leadership style and results did not show an inclination towards either of the leader genders. The results thus indicate that the evaluation of female leaders hinges on the perception of male followers who seem to be more likely to hold stereotypes against female leaders (Brescoll et al., 2012; Eagly et al., 1992).

Furthermore, the results also indicate that the interaction between leader gender, leadership styles, and follower gender influences perceptions of leadership effectiveness via leadership group prototypicality such that female leaders exercising directive leadership are perceived to be more effective than male leaders particularly by their male followers. In line with SITL, male followers are more likely to consider a female leader prototypical when the latter engages in directive leadership. This not only attenuates uncertainty but also paves the way for males to endorse the female leaders (Hogg & Terry, 2000). The fact that we did not find significant results for the female follower suggests two things: Firstly, although female followers do not exhibit a preference for either a male or a female leader, a different leadership style might be more suitable to attenuate follower uncertainty, particularly instrumental uncertainty (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2011). Secondly, it could well be that female followers do not experience uncertainty when reporting to a female leader thus

challenging previous findings that females hold the low status attributions ascribed to them and prefer to associate with other males in order to enhance their self-esteem and positive image (cf. Chattopadhyay et al., 2004; Ridgeway, 2004; Tajfel & Turner, 1986). In fact, other trends of research have found that females are much less threatened than their male counterparts when reporting to a female leader in a gender-incongruent role (Brescoll et al., 2012).

In addition, the field study also did not find significant moderated mediation effects for leadership group prototypicality when either of the leaders engage in participative leadership. In line with previous research, participants showed a preference towards participative leadership regardless of leader gender (DeRue, Nahrgang, Wellman, & Humphrey, 2011; Judge, Piccolo, & Ilies, 2004). Several reasons could explain why male leaders who engaged in participative leadership were not considered more prototypical than female leaders using the same leadership style – as previous research indicates (Heilman & Chen, 2005; Jussim, Coleman, & Lerch, 1987; Subašić et al., 2011). Participants in the field study are predominantly college graduates who are likely to have decreased gender stereotypes (Powell, Butterfield, & Parent, 2002) and adopt a more contemporary view on leadership that includes agentic and communal characteristics (Koenig et al., 2011). In this regard, when a male engages in participative leadership, his behavior is not considered ‘atypical’ but is rather normalised. Secondly, it could well be that when evaluating leadership effectiveness, participants are more concerned with agency as that stipulates leadership characteristics more than communal behavior (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Eagly & Carli, 2003; Eagly & Karau, 2002). As such, it is worth considering whether participative leadership style is conducive to drive perceptions of leadership group prototypicality. Additionally, it could well be that both male and female leaders are considered prototypical under participative

leadership. Further research should consider investigating this issue in more depth along with considering different leadership styles.

Moreover, one of the main key findings supports the conceptual model in that it is not the similarity to the leader that drives leadership effectiveness as depicted in the dissimilarity literature (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) nor is it the extent to which leader gender fits the leadership role (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001). Rather it is the perception of leadership group prototypicality which is a function of the interaction between leader gender, leadership styles, and follower gender. The results show that leadership group prototypicality mediates the path from leader gender to perceptions of leadership effectiveness. This in turn is believed to lead to positive work performance (see Hogan et al., 1994).

Theoretical Contributions

Two key theoretical contributions can be derived from our findings. Firstly, we diverted research away from the inconclusive findings of the relational demography literature (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) and from the scope of the RCT and related theories (Eagly & Karau, 2002; Heilman, 2001; Rudman & Glick, 2001) and validated a conceptual model grounded in SITL and the uncertainty reduction hypothesis (Hogg et al., 2012). The conceptual framework was able to explain the effectiveness of female leaders above and beyond the formerly mentioned theories. Specifically, the model asserted that, in order to be considered effective, female leaders need to engage in prototypical leadership behavior. And while previous research showed that female leaders are backlashed when resorting to agentic leadership behavior (Cejka & Eagly, 1999; Rudman, Moss-Racusin, Phelan, & Nauts, 2012), we found, in line with recent findings (see Lanaj & Hollenbeck, 2015; Rosette & Tost, 2010), that engaging in directive leadership renders the female leader prototypical of the group,

particularly by her male subordinates. In that light, SITL offers a promising way forward in accounting for how and when female leaders are endorsed.

The second key contribution lies in the further development of SITL. While leadership group prototypicality has extensively been studied as a moderator (e.g., De Cremer, van Dijke, & Mayer, 2010; Lipponene, Koivisto, & E, 2005; van Knippenberg & van Knippenberg, 2005), merely two studies have looked at leadership group prototypicality as a mediator (e.g., Rast et al., 2013; Yoshida et al., 2013). Our model adds to the research exploring leadership group prototypicality as the mechanism that leads to leadership effectiveness. Moreover, this study lends further support to Rast and colleagues (2012; 2013) and extends their work in exploring how directive leadership is best suited to attenuate the uncertainty of followers with a female leader. While Rast and colleagues explored the effect of self-uncertainty, this study looked at how leader gender interacts with leadership style and follower gender to attenuate the effects of norm and instrumental uncertainty. In addition, the study adds to the plethora of research that looked at how contingency factors influence leadership group prototypicality (e.g., Cicero et al., 2007; Giessner & van Knippenberg, 2008; Pierro et al., 2005) and adds to the research of Hogg and colleagues (2006) in exploring the roles of gender and leadership styles in influencing perceptions of leadership group prototypicality. To our knowledge, this is the first study that looked at how participative and directive leadership styles affect leadership group prototypicality.

Practical Contributions

The findings provide practitioners with tools on how to equip female leaders to better thrive in their leadership roles. Specifically, practitioners are advised to train their female leaders on using agentic leadership behaviors and to make sure that such leadership styles are used with male followers as opposed to female followers. With that, it is recommended that organizations give female leaders leverage to exercise different leadership styles with her

subordinates where one of which has to be directive leadership at least with her male followers. In order for females to thrive in their roles as leaders, organizations should also support females from any backlash that they might be subject to, not necessarily from their subordinates, because of their agentic behavior. As such, practitioners should be well aware that directive leadership is better suited for female leader than for male leaders who do not appear prototypical nor do they drive leadership effectiveness under such leadership style. With that being established, organizations should set systems in place where they do not compare, ‘apple-to-apple’, the leadership styles of male and female leaders – lest in current times where males are still likely to hold stereotypical beliefs about female leaders.

Furthermore, the findings of the study provide solid evidence for practitioners seeking to enhance the relationship between their gender-diverse workforce that it is not similarity per se that drives leadership effectiveness, rather, practitioners should make sure that leaders engage in prototypical behavior that renders them prototypical of the group. This in turn will lead to positive outcomes such as a positive relationship between leaders and members and good perceptions of leadership effectiveness.

Finally, it is important to note that engaging in directive leadership is not the ultimate solution for the effectiveness of female leaders. In line with Lanaj and Hollenbeck (2015), a more lasting solution would be for gender stereotypes to change and for leadership to be conceptualized in a more inclusive manner. Until stereotypes change, the findings in this study offer female leaders a way forward in being considered effective leaders.

Limitations and Avenues for Future Research

Although this study contributes to our understanding of how and when female leaders are effective, some limitations have to be acknowledged. Firstly, all of the variables were collected in one questionnaire and at the same time. However, it is worth noting that the independent variable (leader gender) and one of the moderators (follower gender) are

demographic variables which lowers the risk of common method variance compared to an analysis that includes all continuous variables. In addition, when looking at interactive effects as is the case with our analyses, common method and common source variance have been shown to be less of a problem as they do not account for interactions obtained in regression analyses but rather result in an undervaluation of the strength of such effects (McClelland & Judd, 1993). Nevertheless, the mediator and outcome measure were both rated by followers and thus suffer from common rater effect (Podsakoff, MacKenzie, Lee, & Podsakoff, 2003). Future research should measure those variables at different points in time and with different raters.

While this study is one of the first to look at the effectiveness of female leaders under SITL lens (Hogg et al., 2006; Wells & Aicher, 2013), future research should explore how different leadership styles, other than directive and participative, affect how prototypical female leaders are perceived. It would be particularly interesting to explore how highly communal leadership behavior, such as servant leadership (Greenleaf, 1996) and authentic leadership (Avolio & Gardner, 2005) would affect the prototypicality and thus the effectiveness of female leaders. It would also be worthwhile exploring what contingency factors avail the opportunity for female leaders to ‘just be themselves’, be it engaging in agentic and/or communal leadership, and be accepted in their leadership roles.

Finally, it would also be recommended to explore the conceptual model under different demographic attributes. While we theorized on the effectiveness of female leaders, the theoretical framework can be extended to other minority groups or ‘less prototypical’ leaders such as leaders of different ethnicities, sexual orientation, and nationalities. Furthermore, the model might also be extended to explore deep level dissimilarities such as differences in values, beliefs, and attitudes.

CONCLUSION

This study addressed a gap in the literature accounting for the effectiveness of female leaders (cf. Eagly & Karau, 2002; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989) and proposed a model based on SITL and the related uncertainty reduction hypothesis, explaining how and under what conditions female leaders drive leadership effectiveness. Results show female leaders are considered more prototypical and thus more effective than their male counterparts if they engage in directive leadership with their male followers.

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TABLE 1
Means, Standard Deviations, and Intercorrelations for Study Variables

| Variables | M | SD | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 | 11 | 12 | 13 | 14 | 15 | 16 | 17 | 18 | 19 |
|--|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|--------|-------|-------|--------|-------|--------|-------|--------|--------|--------|--------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| 1 Company 1 ^a | 0.59 | 0.49 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 2 Company 2 ^a | 0.85 | 0.36 | -.35** | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 3 Company 3 ^a | 0.90 | 0.31 | -.28** | -0.14 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 4 Company 4 ^a | 0.98 | 0.15 | -0.13 | -0.06 | -0.05 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 5 Company 5 ^a | 0.97 | 0.18 | -0.15 | -0.07 | -0.06 | -0.03 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 6 Company 6 ^a | 0.97 | 0.18 | -0.15 | -0.07 | -0.06 | -0.03 | -0.03 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 7 Company 7 ^a | 0.90 | 0.29 | -.27** | -0.13 | -0.11 | -0.05 | -0.06 | -0.06 | - | | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 8 Company 8 ^a | 0.92 | 0.27 | -.24** | -0.12 | -0.10 | -0.05 | -0.05 | -0.05 | -0.10 | - | | | | | | | | | | | |
| 9 Company 9 ^a | 0.96 | 0.20 | -0.17 | -0.08 | -0.07 | -0.03 | -0.04 | -0.04 | -0.07 | -0.06 | - | | | | | | | | | | |
| 10 Follower org. tenure | 7.79 | 8.18 | -0.06 | 0.06 | .208* | -0.06 | 0.04 | 0.15 | -.64** | .20* | 0.15 | - | | | | | | | | | |
| 11 Leader org. tenure | 10.46 | 6.77 | -0.1 | -0.15 | .34** | 0.00 | -0.01 | .19* | -.47** | .23** | 0.13 | .52** | - | | | | | | | | |
| 12 Leader-follower tenure | 3.95 | 4.54 | 0.33 | 0.02 | 0.08 | 0.04 | 0.10 | .12 | -.59** | .12 | 0.16 | .65** | .52** | - | | | | | | | |
| 13 Leader age | 38.11 | 8.19 | -0.03 | -0.08 | .33** | 0.02 | 0.09 | -0.03 | -.63** | .29** | .18* | .48** | .67** | .48** | - | | | | | | |
| 14 Follower age | 34.03 | 10.74 | -0.08 | 0.06 | 0.14 | -0.05 | 0.03 | 0.15 | -.55** | .23** | .23** | .86** | .45** | .61** | .51** | - | | | | | |
| 15 Leader gender ^b | 0.43 | 0.50 | 0.07 | .36** | -.33** | 0.14 | -.21* | -0.03 | 0.17 | -0.04 | -.23** | -.35* | -.36** | -.26** | -.28** | -.38** | - | | | | |
| 16 Follower gender ^b | 0.44 | 0.50 | 0.1 | 0.11 | -.32** | 0.03 | -0.02 | -0.02 | 0.02 | 0.14 | -0.06 | -.18* | -0.16 | -0.11 | -0.10 | -.24** | .38** | - | | | |
| 17 Directive leadership | 3.44 | 0.79 | 0.04 | -0.05 | -0.03 | -0.03 | -0.07 | -0.03 | .31** | -.17* | -0.11 | -.36* | -.25** | -.23** | -.2* | -.33** | 0.15 | 0.02 | - | | |
| 18 Participative leadership | 4.14 | 0.50 | 0.06 | -0.04 | 0.02 | -.216* | 0.04 | 0.13 | -0.01 | 0.03 | -0.13 | -0.03 | 0.05 | 0.04 | -0.03 | -0.11 | 0.17 | 0.07 | .27** | - | |
| 19 Leadership Group Prototypicality | 3.77 | 0.80 | 0.12 | -0.15 | 0.03 | -0.11 | -0.02 | 0.04 | .187* | -0.09 | -0.03 | -0.07 | 0.04 | 0.04 | -0.11 | 0.03 | -0.01 | -0.05 | .51** | .33** | - |
| 20 Perceptions of leadership effectiveness | 4.07 | 0.77 | 0.09 | -0.02 | 0.05 | -0.12 | -0.04 | 0.11 | 0.02 | -0.05 | -0.10 | -0.05 | 0.01 | 0.04 | -0.05 | -0.03 | 0.15 | -0.03 | .46** | .58** | .56** |

Note. *N* = 126.

^a 1 = respective company, 0 = all other companies

^b 1 = female, 0 = male

* *p* < .05 (two-tailed test).

** *p* < .01 (two-tailed test).

TABLE 2
Summary of Conditional Indirect Effect of Leader Gender on Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness via Leadership Group Prototypicality at Follower Gender and at +/- 1 & 2SD of Directive and Participative Leadership

| Moderators | | |
|-----------------|--------------------------|---|
| Follower Gender | Directive Leadership | Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness |
| Male | Low (-2SD) | -.4 (.19)* |
| Female | Low (-2SD) | -.13 (.29) |
| Male | Low (-1SD) | -.21 (.11)* |
| Female | Low (-1SD) | -.14 (.12) |
| Male | Mean | -.02 (.08) |
| Female | Mean | -.14 (.09) |
| Male | High (+1SD) | .17 (.12) |
| Female | High (+1SD) | -.14 (.16) |
| Male | High (+2SD) | .36 (.2)* |
| Female | High (+2SD) | -.15 (.25) |
| Follower Gender | Participative Leadership | Perceptions of Leadership Effectiveness |
| Male | Low (-2SD) | -.28 (.23) |
| Female | Low (-2SD) | -.02 (.2) |
| Male | Low (-1SD) | -.13 (.13) |
| Female | Low (-1SD) | -.08 (.12) |
| Male | Mean | .01 (.08) |
| Female | Mean | -.14 (.09) |
| Male | High (+1SD) | .15 (.15) |
| Female | High (+1SD) | -.21 (.14) |
| Male | High (+2SD) | .29 (.25) |
| Female | High (+2SD) | -.27 (.23) |

Note. Standard errors are in parentheses. Significance levels are *p*-scores set at 95% and unstandardized path coefficients are reported.

FIGURE 1
Conceptual Framework

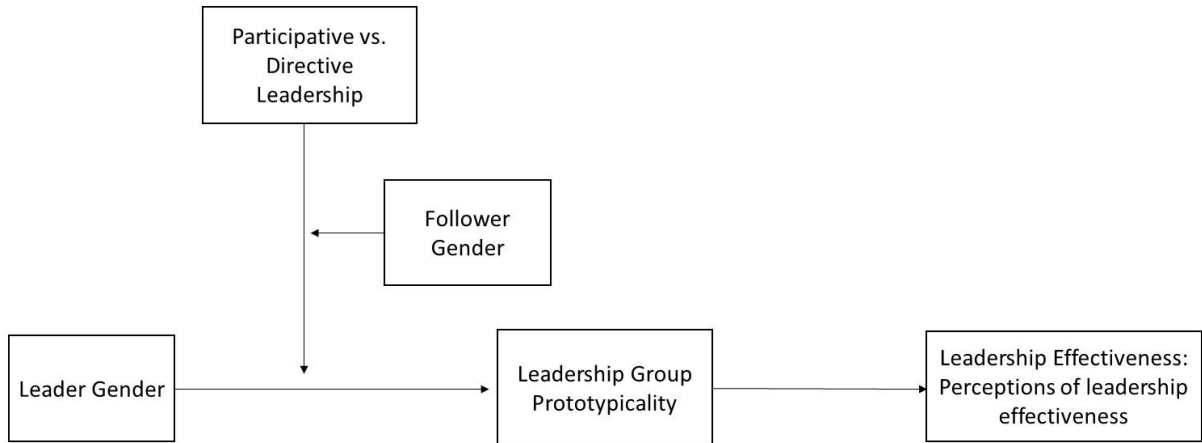


FIGURE 2
Interaction of Leader Gender, Directive Leadership, and Follower Gender on Leadership group prototypicality.

